A Comparative Analysis of the Labour Market Position of Workers with Disabilities*

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Individuals with disabilities represent 15% of the EU population, but only around a fifth of them are employed. The paper investigates the labour market position of individuals with disabilities, focusing on the quality and stability of their employment in comparison to individuals without disabilities. The results of a population-wide microdata analysis show that individuals with disabilities are on average less educated, concentrate in low-skill occupations, and more often have an open-end contract, however, the matching process also reveals a wage gap. The results highlight the comparative position of individuals with disabilities in the labour market and can as such carry relevant policy implications.

Keywords: individuals with disabilities, labour market position, job quality, empirical analysis.

JEL code: J16, E24

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INTRODUCTION

An estimated 1.3 billion individuals with a disability comprise 16% of the global population (World Health Organization, 2023) and, despite large differences between countries, are less likely to have a job (International Labour Organization, 2018). In Europe, 27.0% of the population of at least 16 years of age reported having either some (19.8%) or severe limitations (7.2%) in 2022 due to health problems (which Eurostat views as disability). The shares vary significantly across countries, being the lowest in Bulgaria at 14.6% and Malta (15.1%) and the highest in Finland, Portugal, Denmark and Latvia, where the shares range between 33% and 38.5%. The shares of people with either some or severe disabilities are generally higher among women and as expected increase with age (Eurostat, 2023b). In total, around 17.1 million people with some or a severe limitation on their activity were employed in 2022. The activity rates among people with disabilities are much lower, only 55% of those with some or severe limitations are active compared to 77% of those with none. In particular, those with serious limitations are in danger of inactivity because only around 32% were active in the EU-27 in 2022. In addition, the employment gap between those with some or severe limitations and those without disabilities in the EU was 21.4 percentage points in 2022, being the lowest in Denmark (8.5%) and the highest in Ireland and Croatia at 37 and 36 percentage points, respectively. The gap even widens to 42 percentage points in 2022 when just those with severe limitations are considered. In 2022, the unemployment rate in the EU for people with some disability was 8.8%, 12% for those with severe disabilities, which is considerably higher than for those with no disabilities (6.1%) (Eurostat, 2024a). On top of the fact that disability reduces the chances of employment, notably individuals with more serious disabilities (Mussida & Sciulli, 2016), the OECD (2022) stresses that many are excluded from more meaningful jobs and also more likely to be in a materially and socially disadvantaged position, which adds to their early departure from the labour market towards inactivity. The data show that in 2022 those with some or severe disabilities in the EU-27 indeed also faced higher in-work risk of poverty than those without a disability (10.2% compared to 8.3%) (Eurostat, 2024a).

However, detailed research on the position held by workers with disabilities in the labour market, their job quality and labour market mobility is scarce. Generally, non-discrimination, equality of opportunity, accessibility, respect, gender equality and involvement should be the principal guidelines when including those with disabilities in the labour market (International Labour Organization, 2015, 2021). Nevertheless, studies find that workers with disabilities are significantly less likely to be employed anywhere in the world (Heymann et al., 2014) due to a number of concerns among employers – from recruitment challenges to adjustment costs, qualification concerns, productivity issues and others (Bonaccio et al., 2020). The people with disabilities who are employed often face an unequal position, resulting in lower job quality, which implies lower incomes, promotion and training opportunities, professional positions and the differences are more striking for those with a higher education (Agovino & Parodi, 2014).

Both employment and the job quality gap are extremely important from the perspective of individuals' future in the labour market and overall job quality, especially since (psychosocial) job quality further affects individuals' career development and their health status (Milner et al., 2015) and, in turn, their life quality. While the literature provides abundant evidence of the

employment gap, there is little systematic evidence of the comparative job quality, in particular those relying on population-wide registry data, which provide detailed information on both people with and without disabilities.

This paper adds to the discussion of the relative labour market position of workers with disabilities who under Slovenian legislation have a reduced working capacity and can perform work with certain adjustments and limitations. These are termed as workers with a second and third degree of disability. The paper investigates both the relative characteristics and employment quality of both groups along with the employment quality and the impact of disability on the wages received. The analysis relies on rich monthly data for the entire working population in Slovenia in the period between 2010 and 2020, accompanied by data on their incomes and their employers (companies or others). The results show that the disabled, even though they are more likely to have a stable, open-ended contract, are nonetheless in an unfavourable position, especially being more concentrated in lower-end jobs and in certain industries. This applies generally, even after controlling for a number of other wage-determining variables, ranging from occupation, industry, education, work time, absence from work, and others.

In the continuing, theoretical background for the analysis of the position held by workers with disabilities in the labour market is first provided, followed by a presentation of the data and the methodology. The results comparatively assess the position of people with disabilities in the labour market before the focus moves to an analysis of the impact of mobility and disability on the quality of employment (notably the wage). The paper ends with a discussion and conclusion.

THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

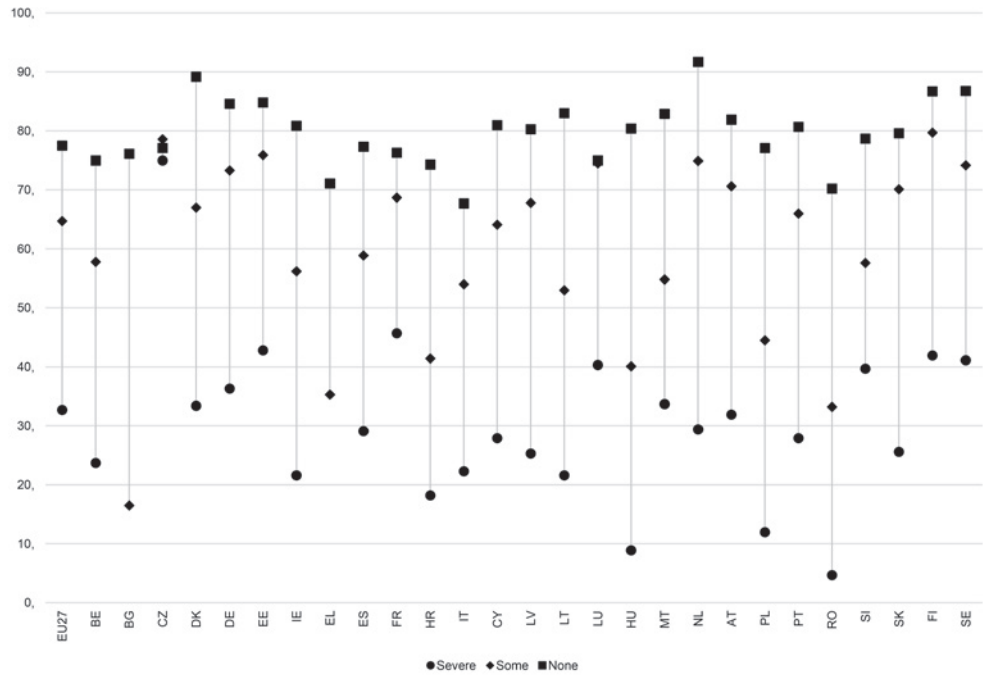
People with disabilities in the labour market

Workers with disabilities are a very divergent group of individuals with physical, sensory or mental disabilities, which they are either born with or acquire later on during life (International Labour Office, 2002). Workers are either disabled by external, environmental factors and/or their bodies, which means that disability not only refers to the medical definition, but in fact arises from the interaction between the individual and their environment (Vornholt et al., 2017).

The impact of a disability on a worker's ability to be educated or work can vary significantly (International Labour Office, 2002). The literature shows that workers with disabilities do not share the same work opportunities as persons without disabilities and are considerably more underemployed than them (Bonaccio et al., 2020; Vornholt et al., 2017). The employment gap is reported to be large. According to Bonacio et al. (2020), around the world differences in employment rates are vast between those with and those without a disability. For example, only one-third of Americans with a disability work compared to 76% of those without one, a figure that is increasing. Similar gaps can also be found in other developed countries. The EU is on average (Figure 1) characterised by significantly lower activity rates for those with disabilities, especially those with severe disabilities. In 2022, the average activity rate for the entire working age population was 77.5% in the EU-27, around 64.7% for those with some disability, and just 32% for those with a severe disability. There are also sizeable differences between countries, for instance, the differences in the activity of those without a disability and some disabilities are the lowest, below 10 percentage points and are the highest in Hungary, where they even

reached 40 percentage points in 2022. Those with a severe disability typically have a much larger activity gap, reaching 44 percentage points on average in the EU-27, but ranging between 30 (France) and 71 percentage points (Greece)[1]. The unemployment levels in 2022 were on average also higher for workers with disabilities. While on average the unemployment rate was 6.1% for those without a disability, it reached 12% for those with one and 9.4% for those with some disability. Among individuals with a severe disability, unemployment was the highest in Spain, almost 29% in 2022, followed by Lithuania at 20.8%, while on the other hand it was the lowest in Czechia, Belgium and Germany at 3%–5.6%. Those with only some disability on average have much lower unemployment rates, ranging from 1.8% (Czechia) to around 5% (Luxembourg, Netherlands, Germany), increasing to around 20% in Spain and Greece (Eurostat, 2024a). The data for 2012, which provide additional detail, showed that on average in the EU among those with a disability, the majority are retired and are inactive due to other statutory reasons (Eurostat, 2024a). As reported, the situation deteriorated significantly during COVID-19 (DisabilityRightsUK, 2021), seeing unemployment grow and considerably fewer job opportunities for people with a disability.

Figure 1
Activity rates by level of disability in Europe in %, 2022



Data: (Eurostat, 2024a).

[1] Data for Czechia shows 75% employment for those with severe, 78.6% for those with some and 77.1% for those with no disability. The country is an outlier and is therefore not mentioned in the main text. It is not possible to check the data against other official statistics.

Leschke and Watt (2008) define *job quality* with six key dimensions: wages, (non-standard) forms of employment, work–life balance and working time, working conditions and job security, access to training and career advancement, and collective interest representation and voice/participation. Eurofound (2019) also examined six dimensions of job quality. The dimensions included the quality of the physical work environment, work intensity (working at a high speed, time pressure, emotional stress etc.), work time quality (working hours, breaks, work arrangements, flexibility), social environment (relationship quality, a supportive environment), learning and training opportunities and, finally, prospects (both career development and job loss). Due to the nature of the population registry data to be used in our empirical research, we focus on wage, job stability and labour market mobility, including occupational change and education.

Empirical evidence mainly shows that *workers with disabilities are generally less satisfied with their jobs*. There may be several complex reasons for this: from relatively lower wages to discrimination at the workplace, general working conditions, and possibly also harassment, although empirical evidence shows that disability type in combination with workplace characteristics is a significant factor for explaining the differences in satisfaction (Uppal, 2005).

Income is a major factor in assessing job quality. Several studies found that workers with disabilities are typically paid lower incomes. Overall, 15% of the global population is living with a disability and the share of those living in poverty among that population is disproportionately higher (Vornholt et al., 2018), while around 80% of people with disabilities are of working age (International Labour Organization, 2015). According to the OECD (2010), the income of workers with disabilities is on average 12% lower than the national average, even 20% to 30% in certain countries. The ILO (2015) reports that despite numerous anti-discrimination efforts and regulation, it is still possible that people with disabilities receive a subminimum wage (e.g., Doyle (2021) reports that the average wage of people with disabilities was USD 3.34 an hour vs. the federal standard of USD 7.25, namely, the minimum wage). Longhi (2017) states that the pay gap is significant as well as dependent on the type of disability, being particularly large for those suffering from neurological disorders, mental illness and/or learning difficulties. For example, men with epilepsy suffer a wage gap of around 40%, while anxiety and depression cause around a 30% gap and learning disabilities even a 60% one. The gap is significantly smaller for women. Jones (2008) adds that "disabled workers earn significantly less than nondisabled workers, even after controlling for differences in human capital and job-related characteristics". Still, the literature is not entirely unanimous. Brucker and Henly (2019) study the comparative prevalence of high-quality jobs for people with disabilities and others, where a 'good' job is required to have an above-median wage and employer-sponsored health insurance and a retirement savings programme. Interestingly, they find that disability does not predict the odds of having a good job once sociodemographic characteristics and health status are controlled for, which means that other subjective job quality assessments should be used. Yet they stress that disability is important in predicting the employment participation of workers with disabilities.

Although income data are not directly available at Eurostat, data on poverty, which is linked to income, for the EU-27 in 2022 show that the risk of poverty among workers with some disability was 28.8%, and even 35.9% among those with a severe disability compared to 18.3% for those without a disability. In a few countries, the risk of poverty among those with a severe disability

even reached above 50% (Latvia, Lithuania, Estonia, Bulgaria, and Romania). Persons with disabilities often live in households with very low work intensity, even 39.2% of those with a severe disability, compared to only 6.8% of those without a disability, which can further contribute to exposure to poverty. Severe material and social deprivation were characteristic for 14.9% of those with a severe disability in the EU-27 in 2022, 9.6% of those with some disability, and 'just' 5% of those with no disability (Eurostat, 2024a).

Workers with disabilities often have ***different contractual arrangements*** in place. Moore and Huberty (2020) report that temporary employment is often a step towards permanent employment, and that "temporary situations have been an ability-stimulating intervention for those with physical and mental impairments". Workers with disabilities were stated to be among the most vulnerable to precarious employment (International Labour Organization, 2018). However, in the EU in 2011 (latest available data) the share of workers with basic disabilities in temporary employment was 11.5% (compared to 13.9% in the then EU-28 generally) (Eurostat, 2018). Nevertheless, the report highlighted country differences, with workers with disabilities in Latvia, Slovakia, Hungary and Turkey being more exposed to temporary employment (Eurostat, 2018). It should be noted that the reasons for temporary employment vary. While "inability to find a permanent job" was the dominant one, the share of those "who did not want a permanent job" was significantly higher among those with a disability. In the EU, the difference in the average duration of temporary employment among those with disabilities and the general population was not significant, yet there were considerable country differences (in Germany, Austria and Cyprus, the length of temporary employment among workers with disabilities was lower, while in Romania, Luxembourg, Slovakia and the UK the opposite was true) (Eurostat, 2015).

Disability also impacts on ***career development***. First, despite the growing focus on inclusive practices, many remain outside the labour market or underemployed. These workers can often encounter challenges with access to career development opportunities, although some disabilities are in fact linked to competitive advantages in other areas[2]. Oesch (2022) stresses that companies should be "*approaching the disability as 'a competitive advantage' rather than 'a potential setback'*", highlighting the need for "inclusive and holistic development". Data on the actual inclusion of workers with disabilities are hard to find; instead, experiences stem more from academic papers where discrimination is being researched. Villaneuva-Flores et al. (2014) find that workers with disabilities are often employed in low-status jobs where the opportunities for career advancement are limited. This also implies they could be employed in occupations that call for lower qualifications than they have. Villaneuva-Flores et al. (2014) also stress that this is an outcome of employers' biases and prevalent stereotypes that they would perform worse, be more prone to absenteeism, have higher turnover rates, and could also create additional 'accommodation' costs. This further limits the opportunities for individuals to progress during their careers. Further, disability itself, despite inclusive practices, on average limits the opportunities of individuals to the same education. For example, children with disabilities were reported to be less likely to start school, have lower completion rates, and be educated in special programmes (Birneanu & Mircea-Teodor, 2014). The very limited evidence on comparative labour market mobility effects also reveals

[2] E.g. Oesch (2022) reports that people with autism often have excellent mathematical skills.

that job mobility is low among workers with disabilities (National Disability Authority, 2005) and that workers with disabilities are comparatively more often subjected to involuntary job changes (Baldwin & Edward, 2002). Alongside the mentioned challenges, Szymanski and Vancollins (2003) highlight that the new business reality, which encompasses both the high pace of work, stress, increasing demands, and higher job insecurity (all linked to stronger global competition among firms), as well as the challenges of adopting new technologies represent a serious challenge for workers with disabilities, which may lower their desire to push forward, especially those with learning disabilities.

Besides the effects reported, disability holds *other negative effects for workers*. Studies report that workers with disabilities feel a larger social distance from their co-workers, encounter different attitudes of their co-workers, and are subjected to stereotypes and discrimination (Draper et al., 2011; McMahon, 2012; Snyder et al., 2010). Such workers can be regarded as less efficient (Aichner, 2021) and consequently, co-workers can hold a more negative attitude toward and also lower expectations of them, which in turn inhibits their career progress (Vornholt et al., 2018). The reality could be the opposite – with workers with disabilities being equally efficient and valued members of the teams (Aichner, 2021; Hindle et al., 1999). These workers can also encounter misunderstanding, a lack of belonging, or stigma, which isolates them and may cause workers with disabilities to be more likely to "leave" the workforce earlier (Vornholt et al., 2018; as also suggested by Brucker and Henly, 2019).

Institutional framework

From the legal perspective, workers with disabilities are recognised as a vulnerable group in the labour market, and granted special protection in the employment relationship by international and national legislation. In particular, the International Labour Organization (ILO) has adopted several conventions and guidelines aimed at promoting the greater inclusion of workers with disabilities (O'Reilly, 2007). While stemming from prohibitions against the discrimination of workers with disabilities, and the obligation to adapt workplace conditions to remaining work capacities, this does not ensure their full integration into the work environment, nor guarantee employment, as scholars in different countries have noted (Doyle, 1996; Baldwin & Johnson, 2006; Østerud, 2022 to name a few). Nevertheless, a comprehensive study conducted across all 193 UN member states revealed that while there has been some progress, only one-third of them have laws in place prohibiting discrimination and harassment, and just over half of them guarantee reasonable accommodation and prohibit pay discrimination or discrimination in promotion/demotion (Heymann et al. 2022). This underscores the significance of addressing not only the gaps in national legislation but also intensifying efforts to implement and enforce existing legal rights. It further emphasises the imperative to provide workers with disabilities with a safe and healthy environment, which could facilitate their entry into and retention in paid work (Piasna, 2023).

In the context of the Slovenian institutional framework, it is noted that the protection of workers with disabilities is robust, and guaranteed by the Constitution and other laws. As well as the prohibition on discrimination, they are to some extent granted the right to reasonable accommodation and vocational rehabilitation, which often means that after becoming disabled they perform different work than they did before (Pension and Disability Insurance Act). An important institution fostering the employment of workers with disabilities

is the quota system, which encourages employers to hire a certain percentage of workers with disabilities or contribute to a special fund (Vocational Rehabilitation and Employment of Persons with Disabilities Act). Legislation (Employment Relationship Act, Pension and Disability Insurance Act) also allows for part-time employment due to a reduced work capacity which, however, leads to a lower income given that disability pensions are lower than the wages they would receive if they were working full-time. In practice, this reflects a disadvantaged position and lower pay, often pushing workers with disabilities into poverty (Korpič-Horvat et al. 2022).

Overall, following the evidence in the literature and framing it within the "job quality" model, it is apparent that disability does in fact lower the quality of jobs, but not necessarily in all dimensions. The literature is unable to provide a comprehensive picture of the several dimensions of job quality, particularly while using a large and reliable dataset.

This paper aims to fill the void by answering three research questions (Figure 2):

1) Job quality. What are the comparative characteristics of workers with and without a disability in terms of wage, job stability (permanent v. temporary employment) and work characteristics?
2) Employment, occupation, and education.
   a. Are workers with disabilities caught in low-end jobs that require a lower qualification than they have?
   b. Does educational attainment improve the employment position of workers with disabilities, i.e., their wage?
3) Are workers with disabilities paid lower wages?

Figure 2
Research goals

	Job quality dimensions investigated
Cross-sectional comparison in employment characteristics between those without a disability and those with a 2nd or 3rd degree of disability	
Employment / job quality	Contract type, employer type, working hours, income
	Mobility of workers (occupational and firm mobility)
The comparative wage	
Employment / job quality	Wages, while controlling for contract type, employer type, working hours, sector and other relevant variables

METHODOLOGY AND DATA

Data and methodology

The analysis relies on a combination of several protected population-level micro databases provided by the Statistical Office of the Republic of Slovenia[3]. Two key datasets are the population-wide »Registry of active population« in Slovenia, which gives detailed information about the employment history, individual workers and basic identifiers of the employer. The information about individuals working at the end of the year (December) was merged with the data on the yearly wages/incomes obtained from the »Income tax statements« for all individuals as well as data on absences from work due to illness provided by the National Institute

[3] The anonymized and protected data were made available to the researchers under the contract No. 960/150/2019, provided by the Statistical Office of the Republic of Slovenia.

of Public Health. Mobility (employer, ISCO, education) data were obtained by comparing end-of-year situations in two consecutive years. Data regarding the disability status were also obtained from the »Registry of the active population«. According to the methodology, »*people with disabilities are people whose ability to secure and maintain themselves is adequate employment and progress in it are significantly reduced due to physical or mental impairment recognized to them according to legislation*« (Čuk et al., 2021, p. 6). The registry provides details about 11 different categories of disability. The analysis focused on two categories of work-related disability: those with either a 2nd or 3rd degree of disability pursuant to the Pension and Insurance Act. These two groups of people with disabilities are the biggest two, are also quite homogenous and represent roughly 90% of all employed persons with a disability. No further details about the level of disability are given, which to some extent makes it a challenge to research.

Besides the standard descriptive statistics used to describe the observed population and determine the effect of disability on the quality of employment between the groups, mobility was studied as well. Two groups were observed: those without a disability and those with a 2nd or 3rd degree of disability according to the aforementioned legislation.

In particular, we were interested in the mobility between companies (job stability), changes in occupation (ISCO level 3 and level 4), and education (ISCED level 1). The variables were constructed by observing two consecutive observations and any change would be coded as 1 (compared to no change, 0). The change in income was calculated as a change in year on year income. The analysis of income changes was limited to those with a 40-hour working week or a 20-hour week separately to eliminate the effect of different contracts.

To investigate the impact of disability on the measured »job quality«, proxied by the wage, propensity score matching was used. Details of the matching approach are provided for clarity before continuing with the results.

Description of the population

The paper relies on the entire population of Slovenian workers between 2010 and 2020, in total 8.9 million observations (Table 1). The population of employed with disabilities was rising in this period, from a total of 29,900 to 35,000 people. The share of the observed people with disabilities represented around 90% of the total employed people with disabilities, and their number grew from around 27,000 in 2010 to around 31,000 in 2020. Among those with a disability, women represented 49% of the population on average, increasing from 44% to 52% between 2010 and 2020, in comparison to having a share of 45% among those without a disability, even falling slightly from 46% to 44%.

Those with a disability more often work in larger companies, over 38% were employed in companies that had at least 50 workers, while only 29% of those without a disability were working in medium and large companies (50+ employees). An open-ended contract was held by 89% of those with a disability compared to 76% of those without one, most being employed by a company (92%), compared to those without a disability where the share of those who were sole-proprietors or »persons with professional activities« or farmers exceeded 8%, compared to less than 5% among those with a disability. The biggest shares of those with a disability were employed in manufacturing (NACE C), where on average 34.5% of all employed with a disability were working compared to only 22.9% of those with no disability. Twelve percent of those with a disability were working in

Table 1
Population description: those without a disability and individuals with a 2nd and 3rd degree work disability, share of women and average age (years)

	Relevant population (number)			Share of women in the population		Average age (years)	
	Not disabled	All disabled	Disabled (a 2nd or 3rd degree disability)	Without a disability	With a disability	Without a disability	With a disability
2010	709,853	29,898	27,463	0.462	0.446	39.8	49.0
2011	704,099	30,068	27,426	0.465	0.459	40.1	49.2
2012	743,059	29,901	26,807	0.455	0.467	40.6	49.3
2013	740,004	30,426	27,184	0.455	0.475	41.0	49.6
2014	751,854	30,669	27,449	0.454	0.482	41.3	49.9
2015	763,185	30,997	27,633	0.454	0.488	41.4	50.2
2016	786,371	32,365	28,788	0.455	0.497	41.6	50.8
2017	814,109	33,463	29,691	0.455	0.508	41.7	51.3
2018	841,308	34,532	30,624	0.451	0.512	41.7	51.7
2019	857,887	35,239	31,310	0.448	0.516	41.9	52.1
2020	856,130	35,097	31,162	0.446	0.520	42.4	52.4

Data: (Statistical Office of the Republic of Slovenia, 2021), own calculations.

health (NACE Q), whereas the share of all workers with no disabilities engaged in the area of health was only around 7%. A large proportion of those with a disability was also working in retail (9.2%, NACE G), although in this case, the proportion of all workers without a disability was higher at around 13.5% on average.

RESULTS

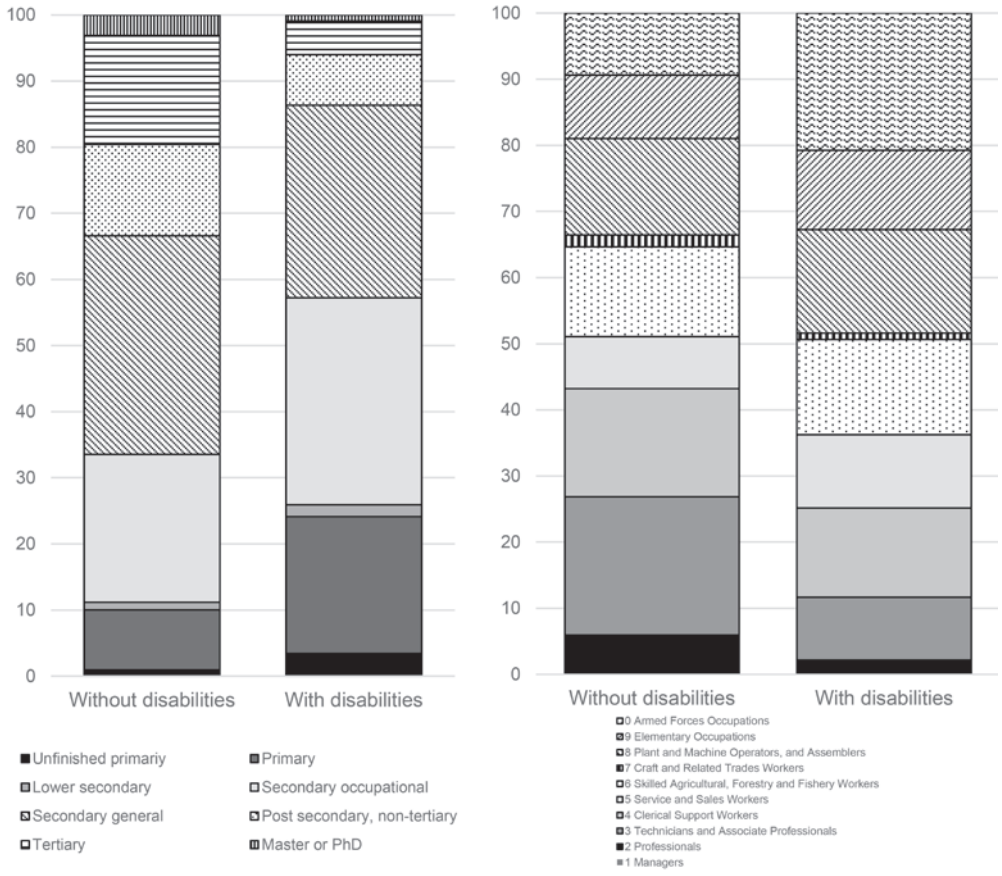
General characteristics of the job quality of workers with disabilities

Workers with disabilities in total (all categories) represent a mere fraction of all workers (around 4% of all workers). Workers with disabilities observed in this paper account for some 3.5% of the total working population. Regardless of the level of disability, these workers represent one of the most vulnerable groups in the labour market where employment not only assures their material security but also the maintenance of social networks and inclusion. The observed workers with disabilities are on average 9–10 years older than those without a disability. Interestingly, even though the share of women in the whole period under observation is smaller than the share of men, it is larger than among the population without a disability, and in fact, it rose from 44.6% in 2010 to 52% in 2020. In the observed population without a disability, the average share of women was 46.1% in 2010 and in fact declined to 44.6% by 2020 (Table 1).

The active population is mostly employed by legal persons (84.8% among workers with disabilities and 92.05% among those with the observed two disabilities), while a significantly smaller proportion of those with a disability decides on sole-proprietorship or other self-employment types (4.9% as opposed to 8.8% among those without a disability) (Table 2). This discrepancy on the one hand offers more stability in employment, yet it is also a possible sign that they are more risky workers for sole proprietors due to the accommodation the employers must take care

of. A disproportionately larger share is also employed via public works (1.6% compared to 0.3%). In the observed period, workers with disabilities were mainly (over 89% of them) employed under open-end contracts, with just 10.1% having a fixed-term contract in comparison to 24.1% of all workers in the population without a disability. The vast majority of those with the observed two types of disabilities were employed for a full 40-hour week, even 98.2% compared to 95.4% among the population without a disability. Yet it is interesting that a larger share of them work shift work (38.6% in contrast with 29.1% among those without a disability). This could also result from the fact that a bigger proportion of workers with disabilities work in manufacturing (where the nature of work accidents also more often contributes to disability).

Figure 3
Educational (left panel) and occupational structure (right panel) of workers with and without a disability



Data: (Statistical Office of the Republic of Slovenia, 2021), own calculations.

In terms of education, the share of those with only a primary education is significantly higher among those with a disability (23.4%) than those without one (9.9%). It is also similar for secondary occupational education (31.3% compared to 22.3%), while the share of those with a higher than secondary and tertiary education is significantly lower among those with a disability (13.7% compared to 33.4%) (Figure 1). Similar patterns are also revealed in the occupational structure. The share of those with a disability working in elementary occupations is considerably higher (20.7% compared to 9.4), while the share of those holding a managerial position is significantly lower among those with a disability (2.1% compared to 5.8%) (Figure 3).

Table 2
Comparison of job quality dimensions

	Workers with a disability	**Workers without a disability**
Share of women	48.9%	45.4%
Open-ended contract	89.8%	75.7%
Share of tertiary educated (%)	6.4%	19.5%
Average age	50.5	41.3
Shift-work	28.9%	37.8%
40-hour week	98.2%	95.4%
Type of company (size, legal organisation)	Workers in a company or organisation 92.0% Employed by sole proprietors 3.0% Sole proprietors 4.3% 61% employed in companies with 50+ workers	Workers in a company or organisation 84.8% Employed by sole proprietors 6.4% Sole proprietors 6.7% 44% employed in companies with 50+ workers
Key industries	NACE C (33.3%), N (8.4%), Q (12.2%)	NACE C (22.7%), N (3.9%), P (8.5%)
Absence from work (sick leave, only those absent included)*	56.5% were absent Median absence 27 working days Mean absence 84.9 working days	40.1% were absent Median absence 11 working days Mean absence 24.7 working days
Wages (only those working a full 40 hours and employed 12-months a year)	Mean EUR 12,991 Median EUR 11,487	Mean EUR 19,559 Median EUR 16,190
Total income (with benefits; only those working a full 40 hours and employed 12-months a year) (2012-2020)	Mean EUR 14,644 Median EUR 13,249	Mean EUR 20,899 Median EUR 17,554
Gross wage (2010-2020)	Mean EUR 12,991 Median EUR 11,487	Mean EUR 19,559 Median EUR 16,190

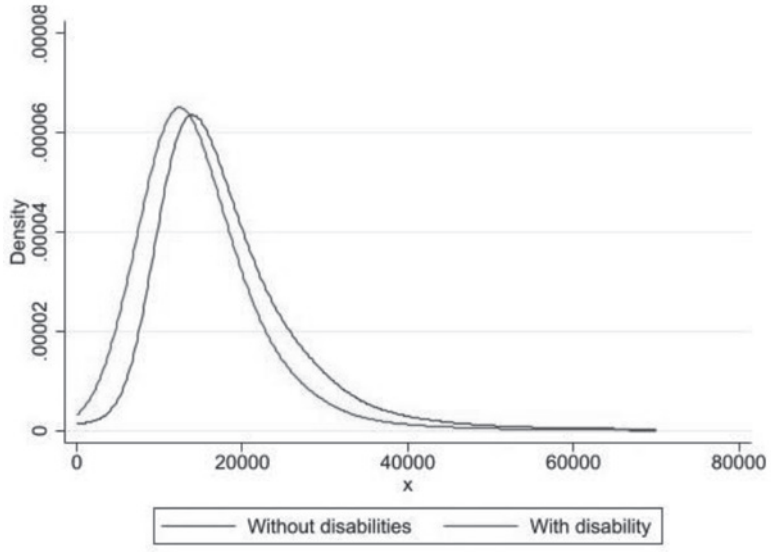
*Excluding observations with 1,000 days absence or more, in total roughly 0.03% of the observations.
Data: (Statistical Office of the Republic of Slovenia, 2021), own calculations.

There is also a significant difference in the structure of employment by company size and industry. Over 38% of people with disabilities were working in companies with 50 workers or more, compared to roughly 29% of those without a disability. People

with disabilities are also much more likely to work in manufacturing (NACE C, 34.5% over the entire period compared to 22.9% among those without a disability), Healthcare and social services (NACE Q, 12.01% compared to 7.1%) and Administrative and support service activities (NACE N, 7.3% compared to 3.8%).

Workers with a disability in comparison with those without a disability receive significantly lower gross wages, only EUR 12,900 per year compared to EUR 19,500 among those without a disability and total incomes, which include social benefits, are also significantly lower (Figure 4). If total income is considered (including benefits and other transfers), workers with disabilities receive around EUR 14,600 in comparison to EUR 20,900 received by persons without a disability.[4] Given that those with a disability on average have lower education and work in different occupational groups, the differences were tested by the ISCO group and by education (Table 3).

Figure 4
*Distribution of total incomes**



*Total income comprises wages and transfers, data for 2012–2020 (transfer data available only from 2012 on).
Data: (Statistical Office of the Republic of Slovenia, 2021), own calculations.

The data show that in all cases, even when considering workers with the same level of education or those working in the same occupation (and considering only those employed for a full 40 hours, 12 months a year), the differences in real gross wages are high and mostly also highly significant (Table 3). They are the lowest among workers with an occupational secondary education and the highest among those working in managerial positions (ISCO 1) where the wage of those without a disability is 30% higher.

[4] Some payments depend on family size, which cannot be controlled for due to the nature of data – data on family members and supported family members are not available.

Table 3
Difference in real gross wages (in EUR) by education and ISCO for the whole period 2010–2020

	Without a disability	With a disability	Difference	Std. err.	t	P>t	N without a disability	N with a disability
ISCO 1 group				by ISCO group				
0 Armed Forces Occupations	20,740.4	18,836.2	-1,904.3	758.6	-2.51	0.012	10,530	250
1 Managers	32,815.0	23,502.0	-9,313.0	163.1	-57.09	0.000	400,143	5,351
2 Professionals	27,464.8	20,802.9	-6,661.9	73.1	-91.11	0.000	1,449,918	26,771
3 Technicians and Associate Professionals	20,910.7	15,413.8	-5,496.9	61.6	-89.26	0.000	1,145,251	38,288
4 Clerical Support Workers	17,022.5	12,469.7	-4,552.8	67.9	-67.07	0.000	577,936	32,196
5 Service and Sales Workers	13,769.2	10,785.4	-2,983.8	61.2	-48.74	0.000	853,876	39,224
6 Skilled Agricultural, Forestry and Fishery Workers	13,591.3	11,031.9	-2,559.4	303.6	-8.43	0.000	29,116	1,609
7 Craft and Related Trades Workers	15,169.4	12,575.4	-2,594.0	58.6	-44.29	0.000	911,373	42,886
8 Plant and Machine Operators, and Assemblers	14,880.7	12,001.9	-2,878.7	64.9	-44.39	0.000	659,638	35,193
9 Elementary Occupations	12,058.1	9,613.8	-2,444.3	50.9	-48	0.000	621,034	59,365
Education				By education level				
Unfinished primary	12,765.49	10,096.22	-2,669.27	125.283	-21.31	0.000	57,101	10,320
Primary	12,777.06	10,333.7	-2,443.36	49.9756	-48.89	0.000	585,122	60,619
Lower secondary	13,264.83	11,810.65	-1,454.17	170.5663	-8.53	0.000	64891	5,085
Secondary occupational	14,206.44	11,807.24	-2,399.2	41.01088	-58.5	0.000	144,4096	86,450
Secondary general	17,046.44	13,286.5	-3,759.94	42.0488	-89.42	0.000	2,179,598	80,454
Post secondary, non-tertiary	22,758.27	17,644.47	-5,113.8	80.5539	-63.48	0.000	975,567	21,610
Tertiary	28,572.32	22,416.73	-6,155.59	98.93325	-62.22	0.000	1,131, 068	14,192
Master or PhD	40,555.37	29,918.27	-10,637.1	238.3687	-44.62	0.000	221,794	2,441

*Only those employed for 40 hours per week included in the estimation, and employed for 12 months a year.

Data: (Statistical Office of the Republic of Slovenia, 2021), own calculations.

Generally, there is greater mobility in the population without a disability. For example, while in the whole observed period 9.2% of those without a disability changed their employer, only 4.3% of those with a disability did. Interestingly, the share of those who changed the type of their contract is a mere 2.4% among those with a disability, compared to 6.01% of those without a disability. In both cases, the majority of those who changed contract type moved from a fixed-term to an open-ended contract. However, the share of those who already have a permanent contract among workers with disabilities is much larger in the group without a disability. There is also a big difference between both groups in the shares of those who changed occupation at level ISCO1 (4.5% vs. 3.5%), ISCO2 (5.4% vs. 4.3%) or ISCO4 level (6.9% vs. 5.2%), education level (2.1% vs. 1.1%). In every case, the shares of those with mobility are larger in the group without a disability than in the group with a disability. It is interesting that, despite the disability, the share of those who lowered the number of working hours in the observed period was smaller among those with a disability. It should be noted that also the share of those who were employed for less than 40 hours a week was smaller among those with a disability.

To sum up, on average differences in employment quality do exist, yet with regard to which group is better or worse several dimensions must be considered, or a trade-off should be noted. On one hand, significantly more of those with a disability are employed in an open-ended arrangement and working for larger companies. Moreover, mobility, which is an indicator of lower security, is certainly also significantly lower in all dimensions greater for those with a disability, again implying more employment stability. On the other hand, the income differences, considering the number of hours worked, are significant, even when only considering workers within the same occupation and educational level.

Disability and quality of employment as measured through wages

According to the literature, people with disabilities hold a disadvantaged position in the labour market in many aspects, primarily income, which may result from other types of differences between the groups (education, occupation, contract type, absences and others). These differences can also emerge from differences in opportunities in education, employment and others, enhancing the cumulative effect of a disability on individuals' employment quality. To control for possible effects of educational differences, occupation, work time, contract type and others, the technique of statistical matching was used. Matching is a statistical technique relied on to estimate the effect of a treatment intervention, or exposure on an outcome of interest – in this case, the effect of the disability on wage – while on the other hand attempting to provide a 'match' between the treated and untreated individuals in all other relevant variables; namely, to balance the distribution of the observed covariates between the treatment and control groups. The estimation is widely used in medicine but also applied in economics and social sciences (Benedetto et al., 2018; Damijan & Kostevc, 2015; Thoemmes & Kim, 2011; Wang, 2021). The two-step estimation first estimates the propensity score, defined as the conditional probability of receiving the treatment given a set of observed covariates. Matching is then performed based on the estimated propensity scores, pairing treated and control units (with and without a disability) with similar propensity scores. The treatment effect is estimated using the matched sample, often through methods such as difference-in-differences or regression analysis (Li, 2013; M&S Research Hub, 2019).

We investigate the differences in wage W (modelled as either labour income or total income) for individual i, when i is without a disability (W_{0i}) or has some disability (W_{1i}). The effect of the disability on the wage can be expressed as (W_{0i}-W_{1i}). According to Li (2013), it is possible to estimate the individual-level treatment effect. Li (2013) adds that there are two treatment effects: (1) the ATE (average treatment effect, which is the average effect observed in all workers if everyone in both the treated and control groups received the treatment compared to the situation where nobody in the two groups received the treatment (in this case disability) (equation 1). (2) The ATT (average effect of treatment on the treated group) describes the average difference between two situations – everyone in the treated group receiving the treatment, compared to the situation where nobody in the treated group received the treatment (in this case had a disability) (equation 2).

$$ATE = E((W_{1i} | T_i = 1,0) - E((W_{0i} | T_i = 1,0) \quad (1)$$

$$ATT = E((W_{1i} | T_i = 1) - E((W_{0i} | T_i = 1) \quad (2)$$

The estimation was done in Stata using module psmatch2, which "*implements a variety of propensity score matching methods to adjust for pre-treatment observable differences between a group of treated and a group of untreated. Treatment status is identified by depvar==1 for the treated and depvar==0 for the untreated observations*" (Leuven & Sianesi, 2018). Two propensity scores were estimated using the following individual characteristics (variable description, Table A1 in the Appendix):

> *prob(Disability=1|Disability=0)=f(age, gender, education, occupation (ISCO1 or ISCO2), industry(NACE2), absence from work, activity status, type of contract, shift work, region, company size, foreigner, year, mobility between companies, occupational mobility, education change, contractual change).*

The regression results (Appendix 1) were highly significant for all specifications. Matching was conducted using the nearest neighbour method, with calliper 0.02, estimated based on the estimated propensity score deviations. Only workers who worked the whole year (12 months) for 40 hours per week were included.

The effect of disability was estimated by examining the treatment effect on labour income or total income. Table 4 presents the results. In the case of both the examination of the effect of disability on the labour income, as well as in the case of total income, the ATT and the ATE are negative, suggesting that even for matched pairs the effect of disability on the wage is negative.

The propensity score estimation reveals that those who are employed by other individuals (proprietors) or are self-proprietors have a temporary contract, while those who are older, women, foreigners, work shift work, have a higher education, are more mobile and work in services are more likely not disabled, while those who have only completely short-cycle secondary education, work predominantly in more physically demanding occupations (ISCO 3–9), are more often absent, and work in manufacturing are more likely to be disabled.

The descriptive analysis and matching estimation reveal the existence of significant differences between workers with a disability and those without a disability. Overall, workers with disabilities are older, work more often in manufacturing, are less educated, and work more often in less intellectually demanding occupations. Not surprisingly, they also record higher absences from work. Despite the policy support, their wage and total income, even after controlling for a number of factors from age, education, occupation, industry, absences and others, earn statistically significantly less than a 'comparable' worker who has no disability.

Table 4
*Matching results**

Sample	Treated	Controls	Difference	S.E.	T-stat	Assignment	Off support	On support	Total
Net wage in EUR (labour income only, without transfers)									
Unmatched	89,38.6	12,845.3	-3,906.7	14.9	-263.0	Untreated	5,127,936	227,798	5,355,734
ATT	8,949.6	11,650.1	-2,700.4	10.1	-267.7	Treated	1,312	227,015	228,327
ATU	11,440.4	8,943.1	-2,497.3						
ATE			-2,598.7			Total	5,129,248	454,813	5,584,061
Total income in EUR (wage and transfers)									
Unmatched	14,982.2	21,399.6	-6,417.4	31.7	-202.7	Untreated	5,187,286	230,791	5,418,077
ATT	15,001.0	18,797.6	-3,796.6	19.1	-199.0	Treated	1,244	230,055	231,299
ATU	18,543.9	14,989.8	-3,554.1						
ATE			-3,675.2			Total	5,188,530	460,846	5,649,376

Data: (Statistical Office of the Republic of Slovenia, 2021), own calculations.

DISCUSSION WITH POLICY IMPLICATIONS AND CHALLENGES FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

Discussion

The paper focuses on the position of workers with disabilities in the labour market. The results highlight that workers with disabilities are in a comparatively worse position in the labour market, but not from every perspective. If the quality of employment is assessed from two main perspectives, stability and payment, for which detailed population-wide statistics are also available, people with a disability in Slovenia are more often than those without a disability employed for a full 40-hour week and the majority of these under a more stable open-ended contract. This implies that in Slovenia those with disabilities are more protected than those without them. It is also important to see that the vast majority work a full 40-hour week, meaning that they are also socially insured for 40-hour weeks, which is especially important in terms of their pension and ability to retire. Protection can be a step that only allows a worker to re-enter as a 'standard, non-protected' worker after some time or workers can, depending on the disability, be continuously protected as their employment is also financially supported by the state.

Generally, according to the International Labour Organization (2016), disability is also one of the key causes of workers working part-time, which exacerbates their comparative position in society. In Slovenia, stable and full-time employment amounts to more protection for this vulnerable group. Another measure of social security is that if workers with disabilities work part-time due to their reduced working capacity, they are fully covered by social insurance under the Pension and Disability Insurance Act.

The comparative analysis of the financial outcomes for those with and without a disability in fact shows that workers without a disability have higher real wages, which is consistent with the literature that stresses the disability-wage-gap is persistent, ranging for example from 8% in India (Mitra & Sambamoorthi, 2009) to 15%–20% in the UK, where it even grew widener in 2020 (TUC, 2020) or even over 30% in the USA (American Institutes for Research, 2015). After a decomposition into worker and job characteristics and other characteristics and the application of statistical matching that allows the treatment effect to be estimated, the gap remains persistent and high, as evident from both the wage/income distribution as well as the negative ATT and ATE from matching, stretching from EUR 2,000 to EUR 3,000, depending on the estimation specification. According to the literature, while this gap is partly explained by the health-related lower productivity of workers with a disability, part of it is also interpreted as discrimination (Longhi et al., 2010).

In addition, the results point to a difference in mobility between those without and with a disability. A change to an open-ended contract is generally a sign of stability and also the desire of the company to invest systematically in the development of the worker and their career (Felstead et al., 2010) and also leads to higher pay (Domadenik et al., 2019; Redek et al., 2021). Our results reveal that mobility among those with a disability is typically very low, notably when it comes to changing one's employer and type of contract.

The results carry important implications for policymakers who should focus on the causes – individual, objective and subjective – as well as potential legal causes of the different positions of those with a work disability in the labour market. Understanding the causalities and the transmission mechanisms that lead from the work disability (or may lead to it) to the differences in occupation, education, mobility, type of contractual agreement, industry etc. to their

career perspectives, including payment, is vital for addressing the wage gap efficiently.

Contributions

This paper makes several contributions to the literature. First, it is one of the few detailed population-wide, registry-data-based studies on the position of workers with a disability in the labour market with a focus on their employment quality. As such, it complements the existing findings and also adds to them by including the most recent period, up to 2020 (Doyle, 2021; OECD, 2022), and represents the first such study on the position of workers with a disability in the broader Central European region and Slovenia. Importantly, the paper holds several implications and opens several new research challenges in the literature.

Limitations with challenges for future research

This paper relies on extensive registry datasets to evaluate the relative position of workers with disabilities in the labour market. The results are indicative of the position of these workers as a whole. Still, workers with disabilities are a heterogeneous group and it is important to understand these differences in view of their specific medical condition as well, which implies the need to decompose the wage differentials also based on disability type.

In addition, this paper only studies several dimensions of job quality, principally employment type, part- or full-time employment and wages. To fully understand the job quality of workers with a disability, other dimensions should also be studied, primarily by additionally considering their general socio-economic situation (as well as the household as a whole). The safety-nets that exist within the family might also impact the behaviour of individuals with a disability in the labour market.

A key result of the model is that there is a persistent disability wage gap. From the policy perspective, it is essential to understand the causality or the mechanism for this result. It is also important to understand the broader policy implications and how the state in this case can support those with a disability not only by minimising the negative wage impact.

CONCLUSION

This paper studies the relative position of workers with disabilities in the labour market. To the best of our knowledge, it is one of the first to provide such an in-depth analysis of the comparative position as well as an analysis of the impact of changes or mobility on the relative position held by workers with a disability. The results show that workers with disabilities constitute a small, yet stable share of the employed, are on average less educated and are more often found in certain sectors and occupations.

While compared to those without a disability they enjoy more stable employment (open-ended), they also suffer significant wage gaps regardless of their occupation, education or length of the working week. Crucially, the results also stress that mobility benefits this group less or worsens their position when compared with employees without a disability.

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Appendix

Table A1
Propensity score estimation

	Net wage				Total income			
	Coefficient	**Std. err.**	**z**	**P>z**	**Coefficient**	**Std. err.**	**z**	**P>z**
gender								
Female	-0.030	0.003	-10.620	0.000	-0.029	0.003	-10.530	0.000
activity status								
12	-0.130	0.007	-19.890	0.000	-0.130	0.007	-19.940	0.000
21	-0.655	0.276	-2.370	0.018	-0.057	0.013	-4.330	0.000
22	0.000	(empty)			-0.252	0.038	-6.660	0.000
del_razm								
2	-0.119	0.004	-29.040	0.000	-0.120	0.004	-29.360	0.000
3	0.289	0.070	4.150	0.000	0.286	0.070	4.110	0.000
4	-0.275	0.142	-1.940	0.052	-0.283	0.141	-2.000	0.045
age								
Years	0.048	0.000	334.990	0.000	0.048	0.000	335.890	0.000
Education level								
2	-0.035	0.008	-4.200	0.000	-0.031	0.008	-3.770	0.000
3	0.048	0.012	4.050	0.000	0.053	0.012	4.540	0.000
4	-0.120	0.008	-14.560	0.000	-0.117	0.008	-14.170	0.000
5	-0.296	0.008	-35.010	0.000	-0.291	0.008	-34.510	0.000
6	-0.480	0.009	-51.570	0.000	-0.476	0.009	-51.360	0.000
7	-0.653	0.010	-65.570	0.000	-0.650	0.010	-65.620	0.000
8	-0.844	0.013	-64.530	0.000	-0.837	0.013	-64.490	0.000
ISCO Level 2 code								
12	0.064	0.023	2.820	0.005	0.073	0.023	3.230	0.001
13	0.046	0.022	2.130	0.033	0.058	0.022	2.670	0.008
14	0.143	0.025	5.760	0.000	0.142	0.024	5.790	0.000
21	0.214	0.021	10.390	0.000	0.217	0.021	10.530	0.000
22	0.425	0.021	20.070	0.000	0.420	0.021	19.860	0.000
23	0.336	0.021	16.000	0.000	0.332	0.021	15.830	0.000
24	0.270	0.021	12.870	0.000	0.271	0.021	12.930	0.000
25	0.193	0.024	7.990	0.000	0.197	0.024	8.220	0.000
26	0.286	0.021	13.360	0.000	0.293	0.021	13.730	0.000
31	0.252	0.020	12.350	0.000	0.251	0.020	12.350	0.000
32	0.562	0.021	26.460	0.000	0.561	0.021	26.460	0.000
33	0.273	0.020	13.670	0.000	0.273	0.020	13.650	0.000
34	0.362	0.024	14.970	0.000	0.359	0.024	15.020	0.000
35	0.211	0.025	8.280	0.000	0.211	0.025	8.300	0.000
41	0.509	0.020	24.950	0.000	0.507	0.020	24.890	0.000
42	0.763	0.022	35.330	0.000	0.759	0.022	35.220	0.000
43	0.432	0.020	21.150	0.000	0.431	0.020	21.110	0.000
44	0.584	0.023	25.510	0.000	0.583	0.023	25.550	0.000
51	0.403	0.021	19.340	0.000	0.403	0.021	19.350	0.000

	Net wage				Total income			
	Coefficient	Std. err.	z	P>z	Coefficient	Std. err.	z	P>z
52	0.393	0.021	18.880	0.000	0.391	0.021	18.870	0.000
53	0.456	0.022	20.530	0.000	0.457	0.022	20.610	0.000
54	0.528	0.022	24.220	0.000	0.527	0.022	24.220	0.000
61	0.449	0.028	16.300	0.000	0.448	0.027	16.420	0.000
62	0.138	0.039	3.520	0.000	0.143	0.039	3.690	0.000
71	0.274	0.021	12.840	0.000	0.273	0.021	12.840	0.000
72	0.263	0.020	12.890	0.000	0.263	0.020	12.910	0.000
73	0.423	0.024	17.650	0.000	0.416	0.024	17.470	0.000
74	0.280	0.022	12.830	0.000	0.279	0.022	12.840	0.000
75	0.427	0.021	20.410	0.000	0.423	0.021	20.290	0.000
81	0.442	0.021	21.470	0.000	0.441	0.021	21.420	0.000
82	0.633	0.021	29.940	0.000	0.632	0.021	29.910	0.000
83	0.005	0.021	0.240	0.812	0.011	0.021	0.510	0.610
91	0.447	0.021	21.560	0.000	0.447	0.021	21.570	0.000
92	0.652	0.032	20.400	0.000	0.654	0.032	20.490	0.000
93	0.610	0.020	29.850	0.000	0.610	0.020	29.920	0.000
94	0.534	0.023	23.080	0.000	0.536	0.023	23.220	0.000
95	1.078	0.098	10.980	0.000	1.078	0.098	10.990	0.000
96	0.734	0.021	35.210	0.000	0.734	0.021	35.270	0.000
Absence due to illness by categories								
1	0.055	0.005	10.890	0.000	0.051	0.005	10.040	0.000
2	0.067	0.004	15.330	0.000	0.063	0.004	14.500	0.000
3	0.219	0.004	56.090	0.000	0.216	0.004	55.330	0.000
4	0.381	0.004	90.780	0.000	0.377	0.004	90.430	0.000
5	0.578	0.006	94.210	0.000	0.571	0.006	94.080	0.000
6	1.011	0.005	192.190	0.000	0.997	0.005	192.980	0.000
Foreigner (1=Yes)								
Foreigner (1=Yes)	-0.419	0.007	-61.790	0.000	-0.419	0.007	-62.090	0.000
Shift work								
2	-0.012	0.003	-3.850	0.000	-0.012	0.003	-3.810	0.000
3	-0.170	0.005	-34.680	0.000	-0.168	0.005	-34.390	0.000
4	-0.270	0.009	-31.280	0.000	-0.270	0.009	-31.270	0.000
5	-0.244	0.008	-29.520	0.000	-0.243	0.008	-29.440	0.000
Change of employer (company)								
Made a change	-0.074	0.006	-11.710	0.000	-0.075	0.006	-12.070	0.000
Change in contract type								
1	-0.203	0.007	-29.130	0.000	-0.205	0.007	-29.440	0.000
2	-0.107	0.016	-6.700	0.000	-0.108	0.016	-6.770	0.000
Change in education level								
Yes	0.270	0.011	23.730	0.000	0.279	0.011	24.880	0.000

	Net wage				Total income			
	Coefficient	Std. err.	z	P>z	Coefficient	Std. err.	z	P>z
Occupational change								
Change (ISCO1)	-0.016	0.002	-6.520	0.000	-0.016	0.002	-6.460	0.000
Industry code (NACE Level 2)								
2	0.123	0.032	3.870	0.000	0.127	0.031	4.040	0.000
3	-0.147	0.103	-1.430	0.154	-0.139	0.098	-1.420	0.156
5	-0.368	0.039	-9.510	0.000	-0.364	0.039	-9.420	0.000
7	0.000	(empty)			0.000	(empty)		
8	-0.071	0.034	-2.120	0.034	-0.071	0.033	-2.130	0.033
9	0.346	0.102	3.400	0.001	0.348	0.102	3.430	0.001
10	0.070	0.019	3.730	0.000	0.075	0.019	4.030	0.000
11	-0.029	0.026	-1.090	0.274	-0.022	0.026	-0.820	0.410
12	0.000	(empty)			0.000	(empty)		
13	0.094	0.023	4.180	0.000	0.099	0.022	4.400	0.000
14	0.012	0.023	0.540	0.592	0.015	0.023	0.670	0.502
15	-0.204	0.023	-9.030	0.000	-0.198	0.022	-8.830	0.000
16	0.136	0.020	6.920	0.000	0.138	0.019	7.100	0.000
17	0.051	0.021	2.420	0.015	0.054	0.021	2.580	0.010
18	0.039	0.024	1.670	0.094	0.046	0.023	1.960	0.050
19	0.000	(empty)			0.000	(empty)		
20	0.016	0.020	0.780	0.435	0.020	0.020	0.990	0.322
21	0.009	0.021	0.440	0.659	0.014	0.021	0.660	0.512
22	0.003	0.019	0.140	0.892	0.005	0.019	0.280	0.778
23	0.116	0.020	5.880	0.000	0.122	0.020	6.200	0.000
24	0.167	0.020	8.510	0.000	0.169	0.019	8.690	0.000
25	0.087	0.018	4.740	0.000	0.092	0.018	5.050	0.000
26	-0.174	0.021	-8.420	0.000	-0.168	0.021	-8.180	0.000
27	0.041	0.019	2.220	0.026	0.047	0.019	2.530	0.011
28	0.017	0.019	0.870	0.382	0.021	0.019	1.110	0.266
29	-0.059	0.019	-3.110	0.002	-0.054	0.019	-2.870	0.004
30	-0.015	0.042	-0.350	0.726	-0.013	0.042	-0.310	0.756
31	0.015	0.022	0.700	0.483	0.018	0.021	0.850	0.395
32	0.002	0.023	0.090	0.929	0.006	0.023	0.280	0.781
33	0.399	0.020	20.250	0.000	0.393	0.020	20.070	0.000
35	0.044	0.020	2.220	0.027	0.050	0.020	2.500	0.012
36	-0.163	0.022	-7.460	0.000	-0.158	0.022	-7.290	0.000
37	-0.033	0.043	-0.780	0.436	-0.031	0.043	-0.720	0.470
38	-0.064	0.021	-3.080	0.002	-0.059	0.021	-2.830	0.005
39	-0.179	0.056	-3.190	0.001	-0.174	0.056	-3.120	0.002
41	0.028	0.021	1.330	0.182	0.032	0.020	1.580	0.115
42	-0.003	0.021	-0.120	0.902	0.001	0.021	0.070	0.945
43	-0.038	0.019	-1.980	0.048	-0.042	0.019	-2.210	0.027
45	-0.180	0.021	-8.790	0.000	-0.161	0.020	-7.940	0.000

	Net wage				Total income			
	Coefficient	Std. err.	z	P>z	Coefficient	Std. err.	z	P>z
46	-0.120	0.019	-6.460	0.000	-0.112	0.018	-6.110	0.000
47	-0.116	0.018	-6.290	0.000	-0.108	0.018	-5.900	0.000
49	-0.037	0.019	-1.960	0.050	-0.034	0.019	-1.800	0.071
50	-0.285	0.100	-2.850	0.004	-0.286	0.100	-2.870	0.004
51	-0.182	0.062	-2.940	0.003	-0.178	0.062	-2.880	0.004
52	-0.016	0.020	-0.780	0.436	-0.007	0.020	-0.360	0.718
53	-0.244	0.021	-11.480	0.000	-0.237	0.021	-11.220	0.000
55	-0.062	0.020	-3.130	0.002	-0.056	0.020	-2.850	0.004
56	-0.094	0.020	-4.660	0.000	-0.090	0.020	-4.520	0.000
58	-0.038	0.027	-1.420	0.154	-0.038	0.027	-1.420	0.155
59	-0.413	0.065	-6.360	0.000	-0.407	0.063	-6.420	0.000
60	-0.234	0.028	-8.500	0.000	-0.230	0.027	-8.390	0.000
61	-0.109	0.024	-4.480	0.000	-0.107	0.024	-4.420	0.000
62	-0.101	0.024	-4.220	0.000	-0.098	0.024	-4.110	0.000
63	0.044	0.033	1.310	0.191	0.050	0.033	1.520	0.128
64	-0.327	0.020	-16.080	0.000	-0.321	0.020	-15.870	0.000
65	-0.127	0.022	-5.810	0.000	-0.122	0.022	-5.630	0.000
66	-0.063	0.033	-1.880	0.060	-0.025	0.032	-0.790	0.431
68	0.090	0.021	4.250	0.000	0.091	0.021	4.300	0.000
69	0.088	0.023	3.870	0.000	0.101	0.022	4.540	0.000
70	-0.032	0.022	-1.440	0.151	-0.024	0.022	-1.070	0.284
71	-0.167	0.021	-7.840	0.000	-0.156	0.021	-7.390	0.000
72	-0.083	0.023	-3.530	0.000	-0.080	0.023	-3.420	0.001
73	-0.148	0.040	-3.730	0.000	-0.139	0.039	-3.610	0.000
74	0.150	0.029	5.240	0.000	0.144	0.028	5.140	0.000
75	0.037	0.038	0.990	0.322	0.043	0.037	1.140	0.253
77	-0.107	0.056	-1.910	0.057	-0.069	0.054	-1.290	0.197
78	-0.051	0.021	-2.490	0.013	-0.048	0.021	-2.340	0.019
79	-0.209	0.041	-5.080	0.000	-0.191	0.040	-4.740	0.000
80	0.531	0.020	26.320	0.000	0.535	0.020	26.680	0.000
81	0.189	0.020	9.400	0.000	0.196	0.020	9.860	0.000
82	0.965	0.022	44.860	0.000	0.960	0.021	44.950	0.000
84	-0.095	0.018	-5.250	0.000	-0.090	0.018	-4.970	0.000
85	-0.168	0.019	-9.050	0.000	-0.159	0.018	-8.600	0.000
86	0.104	0.018	5.630	0.000	0.109	0.018	5.960	0.000
87	0.148	0.019	7.800	0.000	0.154	0.019	8.150	0.000
88	0.220	0.022	10.150	0.000	0.226	0.022	10.470	0.000
90	-0.168	0.027	-6.280	0.000	-0.143	0.026	-5.510	0.000
91	-0.186	0.025	-7.450	0.000	-0.181	0.025	-7.270	0.000
92	-0.183	0.028	-6.490	0.000	-0.177	0.028	-6.280	0.000
93	-0.128	0.030	-4.240	0.000	-0.130	0.030	-4.340	0.000
94	0.056	0.026	2.140	0.032	0.061	0.026	2.340	0.019
95	0.001	0.042	0.020	0.982	0.070	0.038	1.840	0.066

	Net wage				Total income			
	Coefficient	Std. err.	z	P>z	Coefficient	Std. err.	z	P>z
96	-0.034	0.025	-1.390	0.163	0.005	0.023	0.230	0.819
Statistical region								
2	0.017	0.006	3.040	0.002	0.017	0.006	3.040	0.002
3	0.146	0.007	20.390	0.000	0.146	0.007	20.550	0.000
4	0.153	0.006	26.820	0.000	0.153	0.006	26.930	0.000
5	0.136	0.009	15.490	0.000	0.138	0.009	15.760	0.000
6	0.086	0.008	10.870	0.000	0.089	0.008	11.390	0.000
7	0.086	0.006	13.600	0.000	0.086	0.006	13.650	0.000
8	0.012	0.005	2.200	0.028	0.012	0.005	2.350	0.019
9	-0.082	0.006	-12.880	0.000	-0.081	0.006	-12.850	0.000
10	-0.038	0.009	-4.250	0.000	-0.034	0.009	-3.850	0.000
11	-0.051	0.007	-7.370	0.000	-0.054	0.007	-7.880	0.000
12	-0.020	0.007	-2.900	0.004	-0.023	0.007	-3.230	0.001
Company (employer) size								
1	-0.010	0.015	-0.660	0.510	-0.008	0.013	-0.640	0.521
2	-0.146	0.015	-9.530	0.000	-0.144	0.014	-10.530	0.000
3	-0.231	0.015	-15.710	0.000	-0.230	0.013	-17.600	0.000
4	-0.236	0.014	-17.150	0.000	-0.235	0.012	-19.280	0.000
5	-0.207	0.014	-15.350	0.000	-0.205	0.012	-17.130	0.000
6	0.001	0.013	0.090	0.928	0.005	0.011	0.400	0.687
7	0.069	0.013	5.340	0.000	0.072	0.011	6.380	0.000
8	0.103	0.013	7.810	0.000	0.107	0.012	9.200	0.000
9	0.005	0.014	0.390	0.697	0.009	0.012	0.700	0.485
10	-0.065	0.014	-4.470	0.000	-0.060	0.013	-4.600	0.000
11	0.011	0.013	0.850	0.393	0.014	0.012	1.220	0.221
12	0.113	0.013	8.560	0.000	0.117	0.012	10.060	0.000
14	0.118	0.013	8.850	0.000	0.120	0.012	10.250	0.000
80	0.067	0.012	5.400	0.000	0.070	0.011	6.540	0.000
Year								
2013	-0.016	0.005	-3.380	0.001	-0.020	0.005	-4.140	0.000
2014	-0.019	0.005	-3.960	0.000	-0.020	0.005	-4.150	0.000
2015	-0.046	0.005	-9.750	0.000	-0.045	0.005	-9.620	0.000
2016	-0.055	0.005	-11.480	0.000	-0.052	0.005	-11.090	0.000
2017	-0.062	0.005	-13.220	0.000	-0.060	0.005	-12.800	0.000
2018	-0.078	0.005	-16.460	0.000	-0.076	0.005	-16.210	0.000
2019	0.082	0.005	17.060	0.000	0.080	0.005	16.770	0.000
2020	0.069	0.005	14.330	0.000	0.069	0.005	14.220	0.000
_cons	-4.159	0.032	-132.000	0.000	-4.151	0.031	-134.850	0.000

Data: (Statistical Office of the Republic of Slovenia, 2021), own calculations.

Sažetak

KOMPARATIVNA ANALIZA POLOŽAJA RADNIKA S INVALIDITETOM NA TRŽIŠTU RADA

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Osobe s invaliditetom čine 15% stanovništva EU, no tek je petina njih zaposlena. U radu se istražuje položaj osoba s invaliditetom na tržištu rada s naglaskom na kvalitetu i stabilnost njihova zaposlenja u odnosu na osobe bez invaliditeta. Rezultati analize mikropodataka za cijelu populaciju pokazuju da su osobe s invaliditetom u prosjeku manje obrazovane, koncentrirane na zanimanja s niskim kvalifikacijama i češće imaju ugovor na neodređeno vrijeme, međutim, proces usklađivanja također otkriva razliku u plaćama. Rezultati naglašavaju usporedni položaj osoba s invaliditetom na tržištu rada i kao takvi mogu imati relevantne političke implikacije.

Ključne riječi: osobe s invaliditetom, položaj na tržištu rada, kvaliteta posla, empirijska analiza.