KEY INEQUALITIES IN EMPLOYMENT
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1 Executive Summary

1.1 The Statement on Key Inequalities in Employment in Northern Ireland highlights our assessment of inequalities and differences in employment faced by equality groups across the Section 75 equality categories in Northern Ireland.

1.2 The Commission’s understanding of the importance of addressing inequalities relating to employment remains:

“It is generally accepted that improving access to, and progression within, employment is seen in public policy as a key driver of economic and social wellbeing and presents a key route to improved social mobility and inclusion as well as a route out of poverty.”

1.3 In compiling this Statement, the Commission has drawn on a wide range of sources including: research reports from government departments; the community and voluntary sectors; academic research and the Commission’s own research archive. In addition, the Commission undertook a detailed analysis of the Labour Force Survey by each equality ground. The Commission also contracted independent research and associated stakeholder engagement has played a key role.

1.4 The Commission also sought the views of Departmental representatives, S75 representatives and community and voluntary sector representatives on its identified key inequalities and data gaps through a series of meetings and a seminar event. In addition, the Commission held a public consultation on its findings. The Statement in its current form, therefore, reflects feedback received following an extensive consultation process with stakeholders.

1.5 Alongside a number of differences and wider inequalities, fourteen key inequalities have been identified for participation and sustainability of employment, from data spanning 2007-2016. These are presented below along with short explanations.

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3 There are opportunities to participate in employment, including economic inactivity and activity, and whether in full-time or part-time employment; and there are few cultural barriers to participating in employment. In addition, the employment is sustainable concerning monetary rewards, is not temporary or precarious in relation to contracted hours; offers opportunity for training and personal development; offers career progression and there are few cultural or other barriers to continuing in/progressing in employment.
1.6 An important caveat is that there remain significant and specific data gaps across a number of themes in relation to a number of equality groups, specifically: gender identity and sexual orientation. In addition, there is a lack of data disaggregation in relation to disability; ethnicity; and, dependency status. These shortfalls limit the Commission’s ability to draw robust conclusions about inequalities, and/or progress in addressing the same across the full range of equality categories and groups.
There is a persistent employment gap between people with and without disabilities.

Women experience a lower employment rate and a higher economic inactivity rate when they have dependents.

Lone parents with dependents experience barriers to their participation in employment.

Carers experience barriers to participating in employment.

Irish Travellers are less likely to be in employment than all other ethnic groups.

Those aged 18-24 years old have higher unemployment rates than those aged 25 years and older.

Those aged 50-64 years old are less likely to be in employment and more likely to be economically inactive than those aged 25-49 years old.

Women, lone parents with dependents and carers who provide less than 49 hours of care are more likely to be in part-time employment.

Women experience industrial segregation in employment.

Women and lone parents experience occupational segregation in employment.

Migrant workers, particularly those from Eastern European countries are subject to industrial and occupational segregation.

Migrant workers and refugees face multiple barriers to employment in Northern Ireland.

Migrant workers are vulnerable to exploitation.

Prejudicial attitudes both within and outside the workplace are experienced by people with disabilities, women, Trans people, lesbian, gay and bisexual people, people from minority ethnic groups, migrant workers and those of different religious beliefs.
1.7 People with a disability are more likely to be not working and not actively looking for work (economically inactive) than people without disabilities\textsuperscript{4, 5}; consequently, they are much less likely to be in employment than people without disabilities. In addition, the gap in the employment rate between people with and without disabilities is persistent, having shown little change between 2006 and 2016.

1.8 For people with disabilities, gaps in educational attainment may partially account for the large employment gap between people with and without disabilities\textsuperscript{6}. However, even when attainment is accounted for, participation in employment is still lower for people with disabilities than non-disabled people with equivalent qualifications\textsuperscript{7}.

1.9 People with disabilities, however, face wider barriers such as access to transport, the physical environment and limited support in employment, all of which can impact on their ability to participate in employment\textsuperscript{8}.

1.10 Among people with disabilities, people with mental health issues and/or a learning disability are less likely to be employed\textsuperscript{9} compared to people with hidden disabilities, progressive or other disabilities, physical disabilities and / or sensory disabilities.

\textsuperscript{5} In addition, 75.5% of those without a disability were employed in Q1 2012 compared to 35.2% of those with a disability; and, 78.5% of those without a disability were employed in Q1 2016 compared to 35.1% of those with a disability in Q1 2016.
\textsuperscript{9} In Q1 2016 32.6% of those with mental health and/or learning disabilities were in employment, compared to: 40.4% of those with physical and sensory disabilities; 45.7% of those with progressive or other disabilities and 55.1% of those with hidden disabilities.
Women experience a lower employment rate and a higher economic inactivity rate when they have dependents.

1.11 Women experience a lower employment rate and a higher economic inactivity rate when they have dependents.

1.12 Factors explaining this are likely to be linked to the disproportionate share of caregiving by women, with gender stereotypes relating to the role of the mother as primary caregiver and father as the earner that may result in higher rates of economic inactivity among women.

1.13 Barriers may also be attributed to the cost and availability of childcare, with Northern Ireland having one of the lowest levels of available childcare and being one of the most expensive regions for childcare in the UK. For women, paid work may not be considered worthwhile if a significant proportion of female-generated income is being spent on childcare.

1.14 In addition, qualifications and confidence are an issue for women from disadvantaged backgrounds; low-skilled and low-paid jobs often do not allow women to afford paid childcare and may offer lower levels of flexibility to accommodate caregiving. In addition, the current social welfare system may inhibit labour market participation, as women are unsure if work-based income would exceed benefits-

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10 See Raeside, R., McQuaid, R., Canduela, J., Graham, H., Chen, T., Egdell, V. and Pearson, M. (2014) Employment Inequalities in Northern Ireland. ECNI: Belfast. The Commission found the rate of employment for men to be 71.5% in Q1 2012 and 75.1% in Q1 2016. In comparison, the rates for women were 63.8% in Q1 2012 and 63.6% in Q1 2016.

11 In April - June 2016 the difference between economic inactivity rates for men and women was 11.8 percentage points. NISRA (2016) Quarterly Supplement to the Labour Market Report April – June 2016 Data Tables. Table QS4.1 Economically inactive.


14 Employers for Childcare (2010) Sizing up: A comparative study of childcare policies within the four regions of the UK. Employers for Childcare: Belfast


based income, particularly when the cost of childcare and risk of losing housing benefits is taken into account. 

### Key Inequality

**Lone parents with dependents experience barriers to their participation in employment**

1.15 Lone parents with dependents experience a lower employment rate and a higher economic inactivity rate, particularly for women who constitute the majority of lone parents. Factors explaining this are similar to that experienced by women with dependents but further compounded for lone parents with dependents who have sole responsibility for the care of their child(ren).

### Key Inequality

**Carers experience barriers to participating in employment.**

1.16 Barriers for carers increase with the volume of care provided. Carers who provide more than 20 hours of care per week are less likely to be in employment and more likely to be economically inactive than those who do not provide care.

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20 The Commission found that, at each time point between 2012-2016, lone parent women had the lowest rates of employment of all genders and dependency groups, with just over half (51.2%) of lone parent women in employment in Q1 2016.
21 See Raeside, R., McQuaid, R., Canduela, J., Graham, H., Chen, T., Egdell, V. and Pearson, M. (2014) Employment Inequalities in Northern Ireland. ECNI: Belfast. The Commission found that between 2012 and 2016 economic inactivity rates were around twice (e.g. 43.4% in Q1, 2016) of those who were married or cohabiting with dependent children (e.g. 22.7%, Q1, 2016) and those who had no dependent children (e.g. 24.9%, Q1, 2016).
23 The Commission’s analysis of Census 2011 data revealed that those who provided more than 20 hours of unpaid care were less likely to be in employment (54.8%, 20-49 hours of care provided; 36.8%, > 50 hours of care provided) than those who did not provide unpaid care (68.2%).
24 The Commission’s analysis of Census 2011 data revealed that carers are more likely to be economically inactive (4.1%, 1-19 hours of care provided; 13.9%, 20-49 hours of care provided; 21.7%, > 50 hours of care provided) than those who did not provide unpaid care (3.4%).
For carers, a lack of flexibility in the workplace to enable them to manage caring responsibilities\textsuperscript{25} and a lack of suitable care services are major barriers to participation\textsuperscript{26}. However, attitudinal barriers to carers from employers and work colleagues also represent a barrier to employment\textsuperscript{27}.

These factors result in some carers giving up work, the consequence of which is negative impacts on their finances, health and wellbeing\textsuperscript{28}.

\begin{figure}[h]
\centering
\includegraphics[width=\textwidth]{key_inequality}
\caption{Key Inequality}
\end{figure}

\textbf{Irish Travellers are less likely to be in employment than all other ethnic groups.}

Irish Travellers are less likely to be in employment\textsuperscript{29} and more likely to be economically inactive\textsuperscript{30} than other ethnic groups. Traveller women, in particular, are less likely to participate in employment and are more likely to be economically inactive\textsuperscript{31} than women from all other ethnic groups.

Low educational attainment\textsuperscript{32} may partially account for the large employment gap between Irish Travellers and other ethnic groups. Another major barrier is prejudice and discrimination both in society and in the workplace with discriminatory attitudes preventing them from participating in employment\textsuperscript{33}. In addition, a greater traditional emphasis on family and home, as well as cultural resistance to the

\textsuperscript{29} The Commission’s analysis of Census 2011 data revealed that 20.0% of Irish Travellers were employed compared to: 57.6% of White; 64.0% of Asian; 56.7% of Black; 54.4% of Mixed; and, 58.5% of Other ethnic groups.
\textsuperscript{30} The Commission’s analysis of Census 2011 data revealed that 69.0% of Travellers were economically inactive compared to 33.9% of White; 27.8% of Asian; 26.3% of Black; 29.8% of Mixed; and, 28.3% of Other ethnic groups.
\textsuperscript{31} The Commission’s analysis of Census 2011 data revealed that, among women, 77.9% of Irish Travellers were economically inactive compared to 38.7% for White; 33.2% for Asian; 32.2% for Black; 30.7% for Mixed; and, 35.6% for Other ethnic groups.
use of formal childcare present further barriers to the participation of Irish Travellers in employment.\(^{34}\)

**Key Inequality**

Those aged 18-24 years old have higher unemployment rates than those aged 25 years and older.

1.21 Those aged 18-24 years old have higher unemployment\(^{35}\) rates than those aged 25 years and older\(^{36}\). Youth employment was identified as a key inequality in our previous 2007 Statement on Key Inequalities\(^{37}\). Youth unemployment is associated with lifelong problems, such as worklessness, poverty, limited employment opportunities, low wages, lower average life satisfaction and ill health\(^{38}\).

**Key Inequality**

Those aged 50-64 years old are less likely to be in employment and more likely to be economically inactive than those aged 25-49 years old.

1.22 Older people, aged 50-64 years also experience age-related inequalities in relation to *participation in employment*, with this age


\(^{35}\) The LFS uses the ILO definition of unemployment, which covers people who are: out of work, want a job, have actively sought work in the previous four weeks and are available to start work within the next fortnight; or out of work and have accepted a job that they are waiting to start in the next fortnight. The LFS definition of unemployment may include those who are in full-time education and training if they are actively seeking work, however, many people who are in full-time education and training may not be actively seeking work and will therefore be counted as economically inactive.

\(^{36}\) See Raeside, R., McQuaid, R., Canduela, J., Graham, H., Chen, T., Egdell, V. and Pearson, M. (2014) Employment Inequalities in Northern Ireland. ECNI: Belfast. The Commission also found that in Q1, 2016 18-24 year olds were more likely to be unemployed (12.4%) than 25-49 year olds (3.8%) and 50-64 year olds (3.8%).


group less likely to be in employment and more likely to be economically inactive than those aged 25-49 years old.

1.23 For older people, the main work-related barriers were viewed to be: ‘difficulty in getting a job’; ‘being made redundant’; and, ‘job insecurity’. However, increases in economic inactivity among this age group may be linked to long-term sickness, rising retirement age and the provision of informal care, such as for children as well as older and/or disabled relatives.

### Key Inequality

**Women, lone parents with dependents, and carers who provide less than 49 hours of care, are more likely to be in part-time employment.**

1.24 Women are more likely to be in part-time employment than men. Lone parents with dependent children are more likely to be in employment on a part-time basis. In addition, carers who provide less than 49 hours of unpaid care are more likely to work part-time.

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39 The Commission found that in Q1, 2016, 64.0% of those aged 50-64 years were in employment compared to 79.5% of 25-49 years, an employment gap of 15.5 percentage points. This gap persisted in the period between 2012 and 2016.

40 See Raeside, R., McQuaid, R., Canduela, J., Graham, H., Chen, T., Egdell, V. and Pearson, M. (2014) Employment Inequalities in Northern Ireland. ECNI: Belfast. The Commission also found that in Q1, 2016, 33.2% of those aged 50-64 years were economically inactive compared to 16.7% of 25-49 year olds, a gap of 16.5 percentage points. This gap persisted in the period between 2012 and 2016.

41 The respective percentages were: 46.9% ‘difficulty in getting a job’; 24.0% ‘being made redundant’; and, 18.5% ‘job insecurity’.


44 See Raeside, R., McQuaid, R., Canduela, J., Graham, H., Chen, T., Egdell, V. and Pearson, M. (2014) Employment Inequalities in Northern Ireland. ECNI: Belfast. The Commission also found that between 2012 and 2016 the rate of part-time employment was a little under 40% (e.g. 39.3% in Q1, 2016) for women compared to a little under 10% (e.g. 9.5% in Q1, 2016) for men.

45 See Raeside, R., McQuaid, R., Canduela, J., Graham, H., Chen, T., Egdell, V. and Pearson, M. (2014) Employment Inequalities in Northern Ireland. ECNI: Belfast. The Commission also found that between 2012 and 2016, lone parents had the highest rate of part-time employment compared to other dependency groups. For example in Q1, 2016, 63.3% of lone parents with dependent children were in part-time employment compared to 24.1 of those who were married or cohabiting with dependent children; and 17.1% of those with no dependents.

46 The Commission’s analysis of Census 2011 data revealed that 18.3% of those who provided 1-19 hours of care and 15.3% providing 20-49 hours of care worked part-time compared to 12.6% of those who provided no care. Carers who provided over 50 hours per week of unpaid care were proportionately less likely to work full-time and part-time (18.1% and 12.2%) compared to those who were not carers (36.0% and 12.6% respectively). See Census 2011: Table DC3302NI: Economic Activity by General Health by Provision of Unpaid Care by Sex.
1.25 While part-time working is one of a number of means by which women, lone parents, and carers balance employment with caring responsibilities, it can negatively influence progression in employment\(^{47}\), with women, lone parents and carers sometimes perceived negatively for asking for flexible working\(^{48}\). Women, lone parents and carers working part-time are also at risk of low pay and precarious employment, as many part-time jobs are typically associated with the minimum wage and atypical contracts\(^{49}\).

**Key Inequality**

Women experience industrial segregation in employment.

1.26 Women are under-represented in industries associated with Science, Technology, Engineering and Mathematics (STEM) such as Manufacturing, Transport and Communication, Energy and Water and Construction\(^{50}\).

1.27 Stereotyping and bias within our culture and particularly within male-dominated engineering and technology sectors, has been cited as one factor presenting barriers for women within these industries\(^{51}\).

1.28 In addition, young women are less likely to choose to study STEM subjects at further and higher education compared to young men\(^{52}\) thus decreasing their availability for high-level STEM jobs, where men outnumber women by nearly three to one\(^{53}\).

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\(^{47}\) See Employers for Childcare (2015) Striking the Balance: the impact becoming a parent has on employment, working life and career. Employers for Childcare: Belfast.


\(^{50}\) The Commission found that between 2012 and 2016, women were under-represented in these industries, while there was a overrepresentation of men within these industries. For example, in Q1, 2016 men represented 81.9% of people employed in the ‘Manufacturing’ sector and 75.0% of those employed in the ‘Transport and Communication’ sector.


Women and lone parents experience occupational segregation in employment.

1.29 Women are under-represented in the highest paid and highest status occupations such as ‘Managers and Senior Officials’ and are over-represented in occupations that are more likely to be lower status and lower paid, such as ‘Administrative and Secretarial’, ‘Personal Service’ and ‘Sales and Customer Service’. Moreover, women are more likely to report underemployment in their chosen occupation compared to men.

1.30 Lone parents also experience occupational segregation in employment, with lone parents with dependent children mostly employed in ‘Personal Service’ and ‘Elementary’ occupations.

1.31 Caregiving has been identified as one factor influencing occupational segregation with women and lone parents choosing occupations allowing sufficient flexibility to balance the demands of caregiving. This may have a potential impact on the sustainability of employment, with women and lone parents having to consider pay and career progression with flexibility in employment.

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55 The Commission found that in Q1, 2016, women represented 73.4% of those in ‘Administrative and Secretarial’, 77.5% of those in ‘Personal Service’ and 59.6% of those in ‘Sales and Customer Service’ occupations.


58 The Commission found that 17.1% of lone parents were employed in personal service occupations and 15.0% in Elementary occupations. According to Census 2011, lone parents account for 5.9% of those an employment. In all other sectors, representation of lone parents is too low to report.


60 Stennett, A. and Murphy, E. (2017) Research Matters. How big is the gender pay gap in NI's public and private sectors?
Migrant workers, particularly those from Eastern European countries, are subject to industrial and occupational segregation.

1.32 Migrant workers, particularly Eastern Europeans are over-represented in low-paid, low status jobs\(^{61}\) such as ‘Process, Plant and Machine Operatives’ and ‘Elementary’ occupations\(^{62}\) and in low paid-industry sectors\(^{63}\) such as the ‘Manufacturing’ industry sector\(^{64}\) and the ‘Distribution, Hotels and Restaurants’ industry sector\(^{65}\).

1.33 While migrant workers tended to be working in higher-level occupations in their home country, it has been posited\(^{66}\) that gaining a lower level job in Northern Ireland is treated as a step toward gaining higher-level employment in the future.

Migrant workers and refugees face multiple barriers to employment in Northern Ireland.

1.34 Migrant workers and refugees face numerous barriers to participating in and sustaining employment in Northern Ireland. Recognition of qualifications is an issue for migrant workers and refugees.

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\(^{62}\) In 2016, 15.2% of those employed in the ‘Process, Plant and machine Operatives’ occupation and 14.2% of those employed in ‘Elementary’ occupations were Eastern European. According to Census 2011, their representation in the population is approximately 2.1% of those 18 years and over.


\(^{64}\) In 2015, 15.2% of those employed in ‘Manufacturing’ industry sector were from Eastern Europe. According to Census 2011, their representation in the population is approximately 2.1% of those 18 years and over.

\(^{65}\) In 2016, 6.1% of those employed in the ‘Distribution, Hotels and Restaurants’ sector were from Eastern Europe. According to Census 2011, their representation in the population is approximately 2.1% of those 18 years and over.

progressing in employment\textsuperscript{67, 68}. In addition, inadequate language proficiency is a major barrier for migrant workers and refugees qualifying for and participating in employment\textsuperscript{69}, particularly where the standard of English proficiency for particular professions is set very high\textsuperscript{70}.

1.35 Uncertainty among employers about an employee’s ‘right to work” may create perceived legislative barriers for foreign nationals accessing and sustaining employment in Northern Ireland\textsuperscript{71}. In addition, the long transition period between seeking and being granted asylum, represents a long time out of employment, which can deskill refugees\textsuperscript{72}. This can create a lack of confidence and may require them to retrain or gain new skills prior to seeking employment.

**Key Inequality**

Migrant workers are vulnerable to exploitation

1.36 Many migrant workers who are agency workers are confined to temporary and irregular work, including zero hour contracts\textsuperscript{73}. Many face poorer terms and conditions than local workers and are vulnerable to poor employment practices, including a lack of written contracts, long-working hours, non-payment of wages and problems accessing statutory entitlements such as leave\textsuperscript{74, 75}.

1.37 In addition, human trafficking is an issue in Northern Ireland, with evidence of practices that constitute forced labour of migrant


\textsuperscript{71} Highlighted in the Law Centre response to the Commission’s draft Statement on Key Inequalities in Employment in Northern Ireland.


\textsuperscript{73} ECNI (2010) The Role of the Recruitment Sector in the Employment of Migrant Workers. ECNI: Belfast

\textsuperscript{74} ECNI (2010) The Role of the Recruitment Sector in the Employment of Migrant Workers. ECNI: Belfast

workers\textsuperscript{76}. Common means of forcing people to work include withholding personal documents and forcing migrant workers to pay off debt incurred from 'borrowing' money to secure employment\textsuperscript{77}. In addition, migrant workers in tied accommodation are also vulnerable to exploitation\textsuperscript{78}.

1.38 Factors associated with exploitation include an individual’s legal status, a lack of language skills, limited access to social networks and a lack of local knowledge\textsuperscript{79}.

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82 Between April 2014 and March 2015, the Commission received 1380 legal enquiries on the grounds of disability (excluding SENDO). Enquiries on the grounds of disability represented 40.4\% of total enquiries (n=3413) received during this period and the highest number of enquiries received on any of the equality grounds.
1.40 Women experience prejudice, discrimination and harassment in the workplace; including discrimination due to pregnancy and maternity. Women have reported negative employment experiences such as: failure to consider the risks to health and safety of pregnant employees; being overlooked for promotion or otherwise side-lined; dilution of work responsibilities; being denied training; actions which impact negatively on earnings such as, changes to working hours, non-payment or reduction of pay rise or bonus payments; and, being subjected to negative or inappropriate comments.

1.41 Trans people face prejudice and hostility in employment and are less likely to be open about their gender identity in the workplace. Ignorance of Trans issues from employers and work colleagues is a key issue in Trans people participating in and sustaining employment.

1.42 Lesbian, gay and bisexual employees are subject to prejudicial attitudes in the workplace. Lesbian, gay and bisexual people often face negative comments and bullying at work due to their sexuality, and may be reluctant to come out in the workplace due to fears of victimisation. Prejudicial attitudes may impact on the ability of lesbian, gay and bisexual people to participate in employment, sustain employment and progress in employment. Many of the barriers and challenges in employment faced by lesbian, gay,

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83 ECNI (2017) ‘Gender Equality: Policy Priorities and Recommendations.’ Equality Commission for Northern Ireland, Belfast. A recent investigation carried out by ECNI has highlighted experiences of unfair treatment of pregnant workers and mothers in the workplace. In particular, it found that a significant percentage (36%) of women participating in this investigation believed that they had been treated unfairly or disadvantaged at work as a result of their pregnancy or having taken maternity leave. See ECNI (2016) Expecting Equality-Summary Report A Formal Investigation into the treatment of pregnancy workers and mothers in Northern Ireland workplaces.


bisexual and Trans people can be linked back to negative experiences in education\(^{90}\).

1.43 People from minority ethnic groups and migrant workers are subject to prejudice and discrimination in employment. Prejudicial attitudes have been expressed toward Irish Travellers, migrant workers and minority ethnic groups\(^{91}\). Racial prejudice and discrimination can impact on the ability of minority ethnic groups and migrant workers to participate in employment, sustain employment and progress in employment. Racial prejudice has been identified in accessing employment\(^{92}\) and in experiences of racial harassment and intimidation in workplaces\(^{93}\).

1.44 Prejudicial attitudes and/or discrimination on the grounds of religious belief may impact on experiences within the workplace. Prejudicial attitudes toward those of different religious beliefs is present in Northern Ireland, particularly sectarianism\(^{94}\) and islamophobia\(^{95}\). Prejudicial attitudes, harassment and, intimidation can create a climate of fear which can impact on a person’s ability to sustain employment, particularly where individuals are reluctant to speak out due to fears of further victimisation.

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\(^{92}\) See Wood, C. and Wybron, I. (2015) Entry to, and progression in, work

\(^{93}\) Rogers, S. and Scullion, G. (2014) Voices for Change. Mapping the views of black and minority ethnic people on integration and their sense of belonging in Northern Ireland


2 Introduction

2.1 The Commission’s understanding of the importance of addressing inequalities relating to employment remains:

“It is generally accepted that improving access to, and progression within, employment is seen in public policy as a key driver of economic and social wellbeing and presents a key route to improved social mobility and inclusion as well as a route out of poverty.”

2.2 The Statement on Key Inequalities in Employment in Northern Ireland highlights the nature and extent of inequalities across the nine equality grounds covered by Section 75 of the Northern Ireland Act 1998: gender; racial group; disability status; sexual orientation; religious belief; political opinion; age; marital status; and dependency status. Where possible, inequalities experienced by members of a particular equality group due to multiple identities are also highlighted.

2.3 The Statement updates the employment component of the Commission’s previous Statement on Key Inequalities in Northern Ireland published in 2007. It is part of a larger series of Statements on Key Inequalities that highlight key inequalities in areas such as housing; participation in public life; and, education.

Focus

2.4 Participation in the labour market and the sustainability of employment will be experienced differently by individuals and this can depend upon a person’s characteristics or identities in equality terms. Accordingly, this report highlights inequalities and differences in employment outcomes across the equality grounds, for the period 2007 to 2016. Where barriers to equality of opportunity have been identified they are also considered and reported. It is hoped that a consideration, in tandem, of key outcome inequalities and/or differences and associated barriers, may help inform the further development of public policies and associated interventions. The identification of inequalities is

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97 Equality grounds are those specified above, equality groups are the categories within those grounds e.g. gender is an equality ground, males and females are the groups within that ground.

98 ECNI (2007) Statement on Key Inequalities in Northern Ireland. ECNI: Belfast
supported by a range of information sources (including literature and data), and is informed by stakeholder engagement.

2.5 The Commission, in this *Statement*, does not seek to consider or evaluate the effectiveness of Government strategies, policies or practices. Rather, the Commission seeks to draw attention to persistent and/or emergent inequalities so that actions can be developed, improved or re-affirmed to advance equality.

2.6 The *Statement* reports key differences and inequalities in the equality outcomes, and where possible the barriers, faced by equality groups in Northern Ireland.

2.7 It is intended that the consideration of differences, inequalities and barriers contained within this *Statement*, will be utilised to inform the ongoing development of policy positions and associated interventions across not only the relevant Departments, agencies and functions of government, but by all those organisations who have responsibilities for, or an interest in, employment in Northern Ireland.

**Approach and Methodology**

2.8 In compiling this *Statement*, the Commission has drawn, on a wide range of sources including research reports from Government departments; the community and voluntary sectors; academic research and the Commission’s own research archive. In addition, the Commission undertook a detailed analysis of the Labour Force Survey by each equality ground, from quarter one (Q1) 2012 to Q1 2016.

2.9 The Commission also contracted independent research from The Employment Research Institute, Edinburgh Napier University. The resultant research report ‘*Employment Inequalities in Northern Ireland*’ – Raeside *et al.* (2014)*99* and associated stakeholder engagement has played a key role in informing this statement.

2.10 Raeside *et al.* (2014)*100* analysed data from the Northern Ireland Labour Force Survey (LFS), the Northern Ireland Annual Survey of Hours and Earnings (ASHE) and the Northern Ireland Statistics and Research Agency (NISRA) over the period 2006/2007-2012,

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as well as the results of the Census 2011\textsuperscript{101, 102}. Raeside et al.’s research report also drew on attitudinal data from the *Northern Ireland Life and Times Survey* (NILTS)\textsuperscript{103}, as well as from the Commission’s *Equality Awareness Survey 2016*\textsuperscript{104}. The research also incorporated primary qualitative research in the form of focus groups, interviews and an expert seminar with key stakeholders.

2.11 Key Inequalities, inequalities and differences were identified from this analysis, using specific criteria. An *inequality* was identified where a difference in the labour market was found and this could be associated with identified barriers to employment for this equality grouping.

2.12 In deciding whether an inequality was ‘key’, identified inequalities were considered in relation to the following criteria:

- **Relevance**: The inequality is clearly aligned to the Commission’s statutory remit.

- **Persistence**: The problem is persistent or getting worse. Neither legislation nor other public policy intervention has influenced it substantially.

- **Scale and/or Severity**: The issue effects many people or impacts severely on a smaller group.

- **Societal Benefit**: It is in the public interest to reduce the inequality.

- **Opportunity for Intervention**: The issue is currently amenable to solution and measurement. There is a strong argument for progressing action now, including alignment to current policy priorities.

2.13 In addition, the report outlines areas where there are **key data gaps** that make inequalities and differences difficult or impossible to assess in a robust manner.

2.14 In compiling this Statement, the Commission sought the views of Departmental representatives, S75 representatives and

\begin{itemize}
\item \textsuperscript{101} Census 2011 for Northern Ireland, NISRA 2012A; 2013A; 2013B; 2013C
\item \textsuperscript{102} For definitions of terms used within this *Draft Statement* see Annex 1.
\item \textsuperscript{103} 2006, 2010 and 2012
\item \textsuperscript{104} ECNI (2018) *Equality Awareness Survey 2016*. ECNI: Belfast
\end{itemize}
community and voluntary sector representatives on its identified key inequalities and data gaps.

2.15 The Commission undertook a series of meetings to discuss the Statement with representatives from key government departments in November and December 2017. It also held a seminar event on 5 December 2017 to facilitate engagement with representatives of the categories covered by the statutory duties under Section 75 as well as representatives of the community and voluntary sector.

2.16 In addition, the Commission held a public consultation between 6 November 2017 and 5 January 2018 on its findings and facilitated meetings with stakeholders on request. In all eleven responses were received from interested stakeholders and two meetings were held to facilitate the stakeholder feedback.

2.17 Feedback from stakeholder engagement was considered, and where appropriate, incorporated into the report. The Statement in its current form, therefore, reflects feedback received following an extensive consultation process with stakeholders.

Challenges

2.18 The Commission is mindful that there are complex relationships between employment and other domains, such as labour markets, social security, health, immigration and public attitudes. Action to address inequalities will demand a co-ordinated approach, across not only a range of Departments, agencies and functions of government, but also by organisations who have responsibilities for or an interest in, employment in Northern Ireland, to develop long-term multi-faceted policy interventions.

2.19 The Statement highlights the fact that many inequalities remain persistent and hard to tackle. In addition, there are new and emerging inequalities that are impacting on individuals across the equality grounds.

2.20 Further, whilst socio-economic disadvantage is not a specified ground under the equality legislation, the barriers and inequalities experienced by equality groups can be exacerbated by poverty and social exclusion. The Commission continues to highlight the link between poverty and social exclusion, and the inequalities faced by individuals and groups protected under the equality legislation.
3 Overall Context of Employment in Northern Ireland

The Northern Ireland Economy

3.1 The Northern Ireland economy is characterised by a number of factors that influence the employment opportunities available to the population. Research\(^{105, 106}\) has highlighted the relative economic disadvantage of Northern Ireland with respect to other regions of the UK; with Northern Ireland associated with a weak economy, low productivity, low wages, low employment rates, a geography on the periphery of Europe and a lack of inward investment.

3.2 Northern Ireland also faces economic challenges associated with sectoral composition\(^{107}\), being characterised by a large public sector, a large proportion of small to medium-sized enterprises (SME) and fewer large firms or higher value-added sectors such as finance and business services\(^{108}\).

3.3 While Northern Ireland has its economic challenges, it also has its relative economic strengths including a relatively young population, competitive labour costs, excellent broadband coverage and a relatively low crime rate\(^{109}\).

3.4 In the coming years, the Northern Ireland economy will embrace the challenges and opportunities posed by the UK’s exit from the European Union (‘Brexit’), the economic impact of which is unclear.

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\(^{107}\) Irwin J, McAreavey R and Murphy N (2014). The economic and social mobility of ethnic minority communities in Northern Ireland. JRF: York


**Income**

3.5 The New Policy Institute (2016) reports that both Northern Ireland and Great Britain experienced a period of decreases in pay or pay freezes during the last decade\(^{110}\). However, whilst falls in pay have ceased ‘pay levels remain well behind where they were a decade ago once inflation is taken into account’\(^{111}\).

3.6 Between 2006 and 2015 the pay gap between Northern Ireland and Great Britain was consistent; with Northern Ireland having a lower rate in the region of £50 median weekly pay which dropped to £45 median weekly pay in 2015\(^{112}\)\(^{113}\).

3.7 With regard to those whose earnings are in the bottom quarter of the income distribution, the difference between Northern Ireland and Great Britain increased between 2009 and 2014\(^{114}\). Whereas the difference in average weekly pay was only £13 in 2009, this increased to £33 in 2014\(^{115}\).

**Households Below Average Income**

3.8 The Households Below Average Income (HBAI) measure provides a proxy for material living standards\(^{116}\). A HBAI analysis takes into account both Before Housing Costs (BHC) and After Housing Costs (AHC) incomes at the level of the individual, although only the AHC income allows comparability between Northern Ireland and the United Kingdom as a whole\(^{117}\),\(^{118}\).

3.9 The AHC data estimates that the United Kingdom and Northern Ireland experienced similar rates of decrease in median income per week between 2006/07 and 2014/15 at 2.0 and 1.8 percentage points, respectively\(^{119}\). However, at all time points the median household income per week for Northern Ireland was lower than that for the United Kingdom; the smallest gap between

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\(^{112}\) In 2015, the median weekly pay for NI was £382 compared to £427 for GB.


\(^{117}\) This is due to how water rates are considered.


the two was evidenced in 2008/09 at £7 per week and the largest in 2011/12 at £28 per week. In 2013/14 the gap stood at £24 per week\textsuperscript{120}.

**Income Poverty**

3.10 The New Policy Institute (2016) reports that, after housing costs around 20% of people in Northern Ireland were in poverty ‘in the two years to 2013/14’, a rate that matched that in Great Britain\textsuperscript{121}.

3.11 Furthermore, the Northern Ireland Statistics and Research Agency’s (2015) analysis of Family Resources Survey data found that the rate of absolute income poverty in both 2011/12 and 2013/14\textsuperscript{122}, was the highest recorded since the survey began in 2002/03; with the rate eight percentage points higher than that recorded in 2006/07\textsuperscript{123}.

**Rates of Employment, Unemployment and Inactivity**

3.12 The United Kingdom entered a period of recession in the third quarter of 2008, exiting it in the last quarter of 2009\textsuperscript{124}. Great Britain has since experienced ‘strong employment growth’. In contrast, growth in Northern Ireland has not been as strong: for example, the New Policy Institute reports that ‘in the four years to 2015, the working-age employment rate in GB has increased by 3.0 percentage points to 73 per cent, whereas in Northern Ireland it has risen by 0.6 percentage points to 68 per cent’\textsuperscript{125}.

3.13 Despite the recession, the Northern Ireland Labour Market Report reported that, between 2006 and 2016, Northern Ireland’s employment rate remained relatively stable\textsuperscript{126, 127}.

3.14 However, whilst the employment rate remained stable, at each time point between 2006 and 2016, the employment rate for

\textsuperscript{120} Tables S1 and S2. DSD (2016) *Households Below Average Income: An analysis of the income distribution in Northern Ireland 2014-15*.

\textsuperscript{121} New Policy Institute (2016) *Monitoring Poverty and Social Exclusion in Northern Ireland 2016*.

\textsuperscript{122} After housing costs were considered.

\textsuperscript{123} This research was commissioned by the DSD. DSD (2015) *Households Below Average Income: An analysis of the income distribution in Northern Ireland 2013-14*.


\textsuperscript{125} New Policy Institute (2016) *Monitoring Poverty and Social Exclusion in Northern Ireland 2016*.

\textsuperscript{126} The Northern Ireland Labour Market Report utilises LFS data. The LFS considers employment to be someone who is: an employee; self-employed; taking part in a government scheme; and, an unpaid family worker.

Northern Ireland was lower than that of the UK as a whole\textsuperscript{128}. The widest gap between the two was in the period February to April, 2009\textsuperscript{129} and the narrowest in the period November to January, 2012\textsuperscript{130, 131, 132}.

3.15 In contrast to a relatively steady employment rate, rates of unemployment have fluctuated between 2006 and 2016 with the highest rate of unemployment between November and January 2013\textsuperscript{133}. However, since 2013, unemployment rates have declined to levels similar to those experienced in 2006\textsuperscript{134, 135}.

3.16 Whilst UK unemployment rates were usually higher than those of Northern Ireland between 2006 and 2013, this pattern reversed in August-October of 2013 with Northern Ireland experiencing higher rates of unemployment than the UK\textsuperscript{136, 137}.

3.17 Northern Ireland retained a higher rate of claimants of unemployment-related benefits than the UK as a whole each month between August 2006 and August 2016\textsuperscript{138}. The gap increased from June 2006\textsuperscript{139} to reach its peak in each month of 2014\textsuperscript{140}, before the gap narrowed to a level of 1.7 percentage points in August 2016\textsuperscript{141}.

\begin{itemize}
\item \textsuperscript{128} NISRA (2016) \textit{Northern Ireland Labour Market Report September 2016}.
\item \textsuperscript{129} The rate of employment in Northern Ireland was 64.6\% compared to 71.4\% for the United Kingdom as a whole; resulting in a gap of 6.8 percentage points.
\item \textsuperscript{130} The rate of employment in Northern Ireland was 68.0\% compared to 70.3\% for the United Kingdom as a whole; resulting in a gap of 2.3 percentage points.
\item \textsuperscript{131} The Northern Ireland labour Market Report reports on the following periods: May-July; August-October; November-January; and, February-April.
\item \textsuperscript{132} NISRA (2016) \textit{Northern Ireland Labour Market Report September 2016}.
\item \textsuperscript{133} The unemployment rate in May-July of 2007 was 3.2\% compared to 8.3\% in November-January of 2013.
\item \textsuperscript{134} Rates of unemployment in May-July of 2006 were 4.4\% compared to 5.6\% in May-July of 2016; as reported in the Northern Ireland Labour Market Report.
\item \textsuperscript{135} NISRA (2016) \textit{Northern Ireland Labour Market Report September 2016}.
\item \textsuperscript{136} In May-July 2006 the UK had an unemployment rate that was 1.1 percentage points higher than Northern Ireland; in May-July 2016 Northern Ireland’s unemployment rate was 0.7 percentage points lower than that in the UK.
\item \textsuperscript{137} NISRA (2016) \textit{Northern Ireland Labour Market Report September 2016}.
\item \textsuperscript{138} The claimant rate for Northern Ireland was 3.9\% in August 2016 compared to 2.2\% for the UK as a whole.
\item \textsuperscript{139} The claimant rate for Northern Ireland was 3.2\% in August 2006 compared to 2.9\% for the UK as a whole. In June 2009 the rate for Northern Ireland was 5.6\% compared to 4.7\% for the UK as a whole.
\item \textsuperscript{140} In 2014 the gap in claimant rates between Northern Ireland and the UK as a whole differed by 3.0-3.1 percentage points each month.
\item \textsuperscript{141} NISRA (2016) \textit{Northern Ireland Labour Market Report September 2016}.
\end{itemize}
3.18 Economic inactivity remained relatively stable over the period 2006 to 2016, with the highest rates recorded in 2009\(^{142}\). A reduction in economic inactivity of 2.0 percentage points was evidenced between May - July 2006 and May - July 2016\(^{143}\). The rate of economic inactivity in the UK as a whole was consistently lower than that of Northern Ireland; the largest gap between the two was 8.1 percentage points in February-April 2009 and the smallest gap was in May-July and August–October 2011\(^{144}\).

**Employment at the Level of the Household**

3.19 Statistics on working and workless households provided by the Office for National Statistics’ (2015) show that, between 2006 and 2014, at a household level, Northern Ireland and Great Britain followed the same pattern of employment: most households were either working or mixed households; and, workless households made up the smallest proportion of households\(^{145}, 146\).

3.20 However, for each year between 2006 and 2014 the proportion of working households in Great Britain\(^{147}\) was consistently higher than that in Northern Ireland\(^{148}, 149\). Northern Ireland therefore retained a higher proportion of mixed and workless households compared to Great Britain between 2006 and 2014; with the greater differences in rates evidenced in workless households\(^{150}\).

3.21 The rate of workless households in Northern Ireland remained fairly stable each year between 2006 and 2014, at around a fifth of households. Mixed households made up a little under a third of households; and working households under a half\(^{151}\).

**Demographics**

3.22 Annex 1 to this *Statement on Key Inequalities in Employment in Northern Ireland* provides definitions of the terms used by the International Labour Organisation (ILO). In addition, the annex

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\(^{142}\) Economic inactivity rates in 2009 ranged from 30.0% to 31.3%.

\(^{143}\) The economic inactivity rate for Northern Ireland was 28.4% in May-July 2006 compared to 26.4% in May-July 2016.

\(^{144}\) The gap between Northern Ireland and the UK as a whole for economic inactivity was 3.8 percentage points in both May-July and August–October 2011, respectively.

\(^{145}\) Households included in the analysis were those that included at least one person aged 16 to 64 years old. Mixed households can contain both working and workless members.


\(^{147}\) Rates were in the range of 52.6% to 56.2%.

\(^{148}\) Rates were in the range of 44.4% to 48.8%.


also includes details on the population demographics of those in employment in Northern Ireland.
4 Disability Status

4.1 The Labour Force Survey (LFS) asks respondents to self-identify any disabilities they may have. Therefore, in the context of this analysis the LFS definition of disability is used\textsuperscript{152}. Respondents’ disabilities are recorded using seventeen categories. However, it is not possible to draw conclusions about the employment situation for each individual category since numbers in the LFS mean that any such analysis would be meaningless. Therefore, both Raeside \textit{et al.} (2014) and the Commission’s analysis of LFS data collapses categories into more manageable groups to facilitate analysis\textsuperscript{153}.

4.2 For the purposes of a broad analysis the groupings of disabled and not-disabled were utilised; this analysis was then gendered where possible to ascertain if there were any differences or inequalities due to disability and gender. Lastly, an analysis was undertaken using the following groups, where possible: physical and/or sensory disability; mental health and/or learning disability; hidden disability; and, a progressive or other disability\textsuperscript{154}. It should be noted that this does not necessarily imply that that these disabilities are associated with each other.

4.3 It is acknowledged that the need to collapse the seventeen LFS disability categories into manageable groups may hide the overall employment gap for each of these categories. However, the findings for many of these individual categories would not be robust or reliable given that the sample sizes in Northern Ireland are small and the associated confidence intervals are large.

Summary

4.4 There are inequalities for disabled people in relation to \textit{participation in employment}. \textbf{There is a persistent employment gap.}

\textsuperscript{152} The LFS definition reflects GSS Harmonisation Standards and covers people who report: - (current) physical or mental health condition(s) or illnesses lasting or expected to last 12 months or more; and - the condition(s) or illness(es) reduce their ability to carry out day-to-day activities. See NISRA (2017) Quarterly Supplement to the Labour Market Report April – June 2017.


\textsuperscript{154} Where possible refers to where numbers in the LFS meet the minimum threshold of 8,000 individuals advised by NISRA.
gap between people with and without disabilities. People with a disability are more likely to be not working and not actively looking for work (economically inactive) than people without disabilities; consequently, they are much less likely to be in employment than people without disabilities.

4.5 When considering the employment gap, the gap in educational attainment needs to be considered and addressed; people with disabilities are more likely to have no or fewer qualifications compared to people without disabilities, which may impact on their ability to gain employment in the first instance.

4.6 However, even when level of attainment is accounted for, disabled people are less likely to be working than non-disabled people with equivalent qualifications. People with disabilities, however, face wider barriers such as access to transport, the physical environment and limited support in employment, all of which can impact on their ability to participate in employment.

4.7 Among people with disabilities, people with mental health issues and/or a learning disability are less likely to be employed than people with hidden disabilities, progressive or other disabilities or physical and/or sensory disabilities.

4.8 People with disabilities are more likely to experience prejudice in employment than those without disabilities. Among people with disabilities, people with mental health issues are most likely to be viewed negatively as a work colleague or boss. This stigma and prejudice may impact on the sustainability of employment for people with disabilities. Disability-related discrimination complaints represent the highest number of enquiries, with respect to employment, to the Equality Commission’s Discrimination Advice Team.

**Key Inequalities**

### Key Inequality

There is a persistent employment gap between people with and without disabilities

4.9 Raeside et al.’s (2014) analysis of 2006 to 2012 Labour Force Survey (LFS) data showed that, between 2006 and 2012, those
without a disability consistently had higher rates of employment than those with a disability\textsuperscript{155, 156}.

4.10 The Commission, through its analysis of LFS data, found that this was also evident between 2012 and 2016. At each time point between 2012 and 2016, more than three quarters of those without a disability were in employment\textsuperscript{157}. In comparison, those with a disability were much less likely to be employed and retained employment rates of between 30-40\% between 2012 and 2016\textsuperscript{158}. This is a persistent inequality, given that similar findings where highlighted in our 2007 Statement on Key Inequalities in Northern Ireland, which noted that ‘the employment rate for those without disabilities is over twice that of people with disabilities’\textsuperscript{159}.

4.11 The 2011 Census showed that, at the time of the census, nearly a fifth of those aged 16 to 74 years old stated that they had a limiting long-term illness\textsuperscript{160, 161}. The Census 2011 also found low employment rates for those who had a limiting long-term illness; in 2011 just over a fifth stated that they were employed at the time of the census\textsuperscript{162}, accounting for only 6.1\% of those in employment in Northern Ireland at the time of the census\textsuperscript{163}. In comparison, 71.1\% of those with no limiting long-term illness were in employment at the time of the census; accounting for the remaining 93.9\% of those in employment\textsuperscript{164}.

\textsuperscript{155} Raeside reported the rate of employment for those without a disability to be 77.1\% in Q1 2006 and 76.5\% in Q1 2012. Compared to this the rate reported for those with a disability was 36.0\% in Q1 2006 and 38.5\% in Q1 2012.


\textsuperscript{157} For example, 75.5\% of those without a disability were employed in Q1 2012 and 78.5\% in Q1 2016.

\textsuperscript{158} For example, 35.2\% of those with a disability were employed in Q1 2012 and 35.1\% in Q1 2016.

\textsuperscript{159} ECNI (2007) \textit{Statement on Key Inequalities in Northern Ireland}. Page 12.

\textsuperscript{160} 17.1\% of those aged 16-64 years old reported that they had a limiting long-term illness.

\textsuperscript{161} Census Table T58: \textit{Theme table on economic activity}. This census table considers those aged 16 years old to pensionable age.

\textsuperscript{162} 22.3\% of those with a limiting long-term illness were employed at the time of the Census 2011.

\textsuperscript{163} Census Table T58: \textit{Theme table on economic activity}. This census table considers those aged 16 years old to pensionable age.

\textsuperscript{164} Census Table T58: \textit{Theme table on economic activity}. This census table considers those aged 16 years old to pensionable age.
4.12 In addition, in 2015-2016, employment rates for people with a disability\(^{165}\) were found to be lower in Northern Ireland (31%) compared to any other region of the UK\(^{166}\).

4.13 The Commission split LFS data into four disability groups: physical and/or sensory disability; mental health and/or learning disability; hidden disability; and, a progressive or other disability. It found that, in each year between 2012 and 2016 over half of those with hidden disabilities were in employment\(^{167}\), with slightly lower rates of employment found for those with progressive or other disabilities\(^{168}\) and those with physical and/or sensory disabilities\(^{169}\). The lowest rates of employment were found for those with a mental health and/or learning disability\(^{170}\).

4.14 In 2016, analysis of UK-based LFS data found that the average employment rate across the UK for those with progressive illnesses, mental illness, epilepsy and learning disabilities were lower than for all other disabilities\(^{171}\). However, those with learning disabilities had the lowest employment rate of all categories with only 24% of people with severe and specific learning disabilities in employment across the UK\(^{172}\).

4.15 When considering the employment gap, the gap in educational attainment needs to considered. Almost three times the proportion of people with disabilities have no qualifications compared to non-disabled persons. Overall, persons with a disability are less qualified than those without. In particular, only


\(^{167}\) In Q1 2012 56.6% of those with hidden disabilities were in employment, compared to: 57.7% in Q1 2013; 58.2% in Q1 2014; 59.0% in Q1 2015; and, 55.1% in Q1 2016.

\(^{168}\) In Q1 2012 53.0% of those with progressive or other disabilities were in employment, compared to: 50.6% in Q1 2013; 52.3% in Q1 2014; 47.8% in Q1 2015; and, 45.7% in Q1 2016.

\(^{169}\) In Q1 2012 41.8% of those with physical and/or sensory disabilities were in employment, compared to: 49.7% in Q1 2013; 48.6% in Q1 2014; 42.1% in Q1 2015; and, 40.4% in Q1 2016.

\(^{170}\) In Q1 2012 26.4% of those with mental health and/or learning disabilities were in employment, compared to: 22.4% in Q1 2013; 24.9% in Q1 2014; 22.9% in Q1 2015; and, 32.6% in Q1 2016.

\(^{171}\) Progressive illness e.g. cancer, multiple sclerosis, symptomatic HIV, Parkinson’s disease, muscular dystrophy (38%); any mental health condition (37%): Epilepsy (31%); Severe or specific learning disabilities (24%) in Table 2a Employment rates and proportions of disabled people by main health condition, people aged 16-64 years in DWP (2016) The Work, Health and Disability Green paper data pack. DWP: London.

\(^{172}\) Table 2a Employment rates and proportions of disabled people by main health condition, people aged 16-64 years in DWP (2016) The Work, Health and Disability Green paper data pack. DWP: London.
11% of those with a disability held a degree or equivalent, compared with 25% of people without a disability; 35% of those with a disability have no qualifications compared to 12% without. However, research has identified that even when the qualifications of people with and without disabilities is taken into account, people with disabilities were found to be more likely to be lacking but wanting work, and when working are more likely to be low paid than those without disabilities.

4.16 People with disabilities face additional barriers that may impact on their ability to participate in employment, such as access to transport and the accessibility of the physical environment. For example, Disability Action and The Detail found major shortfalls in disability access in relation to tourist, cultural and sporting venues. Moreover, accessibility audits of seven towns across Northern Ireland by the Inclusive Mobility Transport Committee (IMTAC) have highlighted the persistence of a number of unnecessary physical barriers. In addition, the Disabled People’s Voices NI report noted that while improvements have been made to public transport there is some way to go before disabled people can travel routinely by bus or train.

4.17 Moreover, limited access to support in employment can also act as a barrier to employment for those with disabilities. One major barrier identified to Supported Employment was the 16 hours per week minimum that both discrete and mainstream government programs required. However, it is disabled people who are unable to work 16 hours per week, that often require the most support in employment. The new phase of the government support program Workable (NI) has reduced this requirement to ten hours.

4.18 In 2016, a report by Disability Action on employment and disability revealed that the key challenges faced by people with disabilities

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at work included; access to reasonable adjustments, fears over sickness absence, pressure to work beyond their capacity, fear of losing their jobs, poor communication with employers and stress in the workplace. These barriers can impact on the ability of disabled people to participate in and sustain employment.

4.19 In addition, our stakeholder engagement pointed to inertia in the provision of reasonable adjustments, and when provided adjustments are often not regularly re-evaluated to ensure their fitness for purpose. This can impact on the ability to sustain and progress in employment.

4.20 Our stakeholder engagement also highlighted that, overall, there is limited research around progression in employment for people with disabilities in employment.

4.21 The lower employment rate of those with a disability is supported by the identification of a higher rate of economic inactivity for disabled people.

4.22 Both Raeside et al. (2014) and the Commission, found that between 2006 and 2016, those with a disability consistently had higher rates of economic inactivity than those without a disability.

4.23 The Commission’s analysis of LFS data over the period 2012 to 2016 showed that the economic inactivity rates for those with a disability remained stable in 2016 when compared to 2012. Over the time period some fluctuation in rates was apparent evidenced in a range of 54.0% to 61.4%.

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182 The economic inactivity rate for those with a disability was 60.2% in Q1 2012 and 60.0% in Q1 2016.
183 The economic inactivity rate for those with a disability was 54.0% in Q4 2012 and 61.4% in Q2 2015.
4.24 This was also evidenced in the Census 2011, which found that nearly three quarters (73.6%) of those with a limiting long-term illness were economically inactive at the time of the census, compared to a fifth (20.7%) of those who did not have a limiting long-term illness.

4.25 The Commission’s analysis of LFS data by four disability groupings showed that those with a mental health and/or learning disability retained the highest rates of economic inactivity of all disability groupings in each year between 2012 and 2016\textsuperscript{184}. Those with physical and/or sensory disabilities\textsuperscript{185} and those with hidden progressive or other disabilities\textsuperscript{186} maintained similar rates of economic inactivity to one another, whilst those with hidden disabilities retained the lowest rates of economic inactivity\textsuperscript{187}.

4.26 For the majority (68.7%) of those with a limiting long-term illness, the reason for being economically inactive at the time of the Census 2011 were due to being permanently sick/disabled. Around a tenth of those with a limiting long-term illness were economically inactive due to an ‘other’ reason (12.2%) or looking after the family/home (10.6%).

4.27 In contrast, the main reasons for those who did not have a limiting long-term illness were: looking after the family/home (39.3%); being a student (36.2%); and, due to an ‘other’ reason (16.0%)\textsuperscript{188}.

4.28 The Commission’s analysis of LFS data found similar reasons for those with a disability not being in employment. Data showed that, in both 2012 and 2016, the top three reasons that those with a disability did not seek work in the previous four weeks were due

\textsuperscript{184} In Q1 2012 68.5% of those with a mental health or learning disability were economically inactive, compared to: 67.2% in Q1 2013; 65.7% in Q1 2014; 66.6% in Q1 2015; and, 62.2% in Q1 2016.

\textsuperscript{185} In Q1 2012 54.2% of those with physical and/or sensory disabilities were economically inactive, compared to: 44.7% in Q1 2013; 44.3% in Q1 2014; 52.2% in Q1 2015; and, 54.7% in Q1 2016.

\textsuperscript{186} In Q1 2012 43.4% of those with progressive or other disabilities were economically inactive, compared to: 44.8% in Q1 2013; 44.5% in Q1 2014; 49.2% in Q1 2015; and, 51.9% in Q1 2016.

\textsuperscript{187} In Q1 2012 37.1% of those with hidden disabilities were economically inactive, compared to: 36.9% in Q1 2013; 38.1% in Q1 2014; 35.3% in Q1 2015; and, 37.4% in Q1 2016.

\textsuperscript{188} Census Table T58: Theme table on economic activity. This census table considers those aged 16 years old to pensionable age.
to: being long-term sick or disabled\textsuperscript{189}; looking after the family/home\textsuperscript{190}; and, being retired\textsuperscript{191}.

### Key Inequality

People with disabilities are more likely to experience prejudice in employment than those without disabilities.

4.29 Raeside et al. (2014) reported that 'many of the barriers to employment for disabled workers appear to come from the stigma and discrimination they experience in trying to obtain work'\textsuperscript{192}. There is evidence of prejudicial attitudes toward disabled people in Northern Ireland. It has been found that there is 'prejudice against disabled people as a potential work colleague', a finding, which was 'most notable with regard to people with mental ill health'\textsuperscript{193}.

4.30 This conclusion was based upon the findings of the Commission’s 2008\textsuperscript{194} and 2011\textsuperscript{195} Equality Awareness Surveys (EQAS), which asked respondents if they would mind ‘a little’ or ‘a lot’ having someone with a disability as a work colleague. The EQAS 2016 survey\textsuperscript{196} has shown, however, that attitudes in Northern Ireland toward those with a disability have become more positive compared to 2008 and 2011, with lower proportions of respondents in 2016 indicating that they would mind ‘a little’ or ‘a

\textsuperscript{189} In Q1 2012 61.9\% of those who had a disability did not seek work in the four weeks prior to the LFS data collection due to being long-term sick or disabled, this remained fairly stable at 62.2\% in Q1 2016.

\textsuperscript{190} In Q1 2012 12.2\% of those who had a disability did not seek work in the four weeks prior to the LFS data collection due to looking after the family/home, this increased to 15.1\% in Q1 2016.

\textsuperscript{191} In Q1 2012 11.1\% of those who had a disability did not seek work in the four weeks prior to the LFS data collection due to being retired, this decreased to 8.7\% in Q1 2016.


lot’ having someone with mental ill-health, learning or physical disability as a work colleague\textsuperscript{197, 198,199}.

4.31 The disability category, which attracted the most negative responses in 2008, 2011, and 2016 was mental ill-health. However, in 2016, only a tenth of respondents displayed negative attitudes toward potential work colleagues with mental ill-health compared to under a fifth in 2008 and a quarter in 2011\textsuperscript{200, 201, 202,203}.

4.32 The 2009 Northern Ireland Life and Times Survey contained a module that asked about attitudes to disability\textsuperscript{204}. It found that respondents indicated there was ‘a lot’ (over a tenth of respondents) or ‘a little’ (over a half of respondents) prejudice against people with disabilities\textsuperscript{205}.

4.33 When asked to consider if they would accept someone with a disability as their boss a third of respondents to the NILTS (2009) stated that they would feel either fairly or very uncomfortable if that person were to have a mental health condition\textsuperscript{206}. Discomfort was also reported with regard to having a boss who had a learning disability although to a lesser extent at around a fifth of respondents\textsuperscript{207, 208}.

4.34 Stigma and prejudice may impact on the ability of people with disabilities to participate in and sustain employment. Various research reports have estimated that between 20% and 50% of

\textsuperscript{200} In 2016, 9.6% of respondents would mind ‘a little’ or ‘a lot’ having a potential colleague with mental ill-health, compared to 17.1% in 2008 and 25.8% in 2011.
\textsuperscript{204} ARK. Northern Ireland Life and Times Survey, 2009.ARK \texttt{www.ark.ac.uk/nilt} June 2010.
\textsuperscript{205} 16\% of respondents felt that there was ‘a lot’ of prejudice against people with disabilities, 57\% thought there was ‘a little’ prejudice against people with disabilities.
\textsuperscript{206} 25\% of respondents felt ‘fairly uncomfortable’ with the idea of their boss having a mental health condition and 7\% felt ‘very uncomfortable’ with this scenario.
\textsuperscript{207} 15\% of respondents felt ‘fairly uncomfortable’ with the idea of their boss having a learning disability and 6\% felt ‘very uncomfortable’ with this scenario.
\textsuperscript{208} ARK. Northern Ireland Life and Times Survey, 2009 ARK \texttt{www.ark.ac.uk/nilt} June 2010.
people with a disability feel that they faced discrimination in employment\textsuperscript{209}.

4.35 Moreover, disability-related discrimination complaints represent the highest number of enquiries, with respect to employment, to the Equality Commission’s Discrimination Advice Team\textsuperscript{210}.

4.36 Research, which has focused on the experiences of people with disabilities in employment, has revealed that employer prejudicial attitudes and a lack of awareness among employers are key barriers to disabled people progressing in employment\textsuperscript{211}.

4.37 For example, people with hearing loss in employment have reported that they felt they were treated differently to their hearing colleagues and were not given equal opportunity to development and promotion opportunities in their career\textsuperscript{212}. Further, disabled people in the public sector have reported being passed over for development and promotion opportunities and being unfairly assessed in terms of their performance\textsuperscript{213}. Moreover, a UK-based survey of people with a fluctuating health condition, Inflammatory Bowel Disease (IBD), revealed that just over a quarter (26\%) of respondents worried about being discriminated against in the workplace due to their condition\textsuperscript{214}.

\textsuperscript{210} Between April 2015 and March 2016, the Commission received 1380 legal enquiries on the grounds of disability (excluding SENDO). Enquiries on the grounds of disability represented 40.4\% of total enquiries (n=3413) received during this period and the highest number of enquiries received on any of the equality grounds.
Inequalities and Differences

4.38 In the UK, research has associated part-time work with low pay\textsuperscript{215}, the low wage economy, fragmented and unsocial hours\textsuperscript{216} and a higher risk of poverty\textsuperscript{217}.

4.39 Raeside et al. (2014) found that, at each time point between 2006 and 2012, rates of part-time employment for those with a disability were higher than for those without a disability\textsuperscript{218}.

4.40 The Commission’s analysis of LFS data over the period 2012 to 2016 found that rates of part-time employment for those with and those without a disability experienced some convergence between 2012 and 2013. However, in the last quarter of 2013 the gap between part-time rates of employment for those with a disability compared to those without a disability widened\textsuperscript{219}. This led to a difference in part-time employment rates that was sustained until 2016; those with a disability had higher rates of part-time employment during this time\textsuperscript{220}.

4.41 When broken down into the four disability groups, the Commission found that, at most time points between 2012 and 2016, the part-time employment rates for those with a mental health and/or learning disability were too low to be considered\textsuperscript{221}.

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\textsuperscript{219} The gap between those with a disability and those without a disability widened to 8.7 percentage points in Q4 2013; compared to 3.5 percentage points in Q3 2013.

\textsuperscript{220} In Q4 2013 those with a disability had a part time employment rate of 32.7% compared to a rate of 23.8% for those without a disability. In Q1 2016 the gap between the two groups was 7.2 percentage points: those with a disability had a part time employment rate of 30.5% compared to a rate of 23.3% for those without a disability.

\textsuperscript{221} They did not meet the minimum threshold of 8,000 individuals for reporting advised by NISRA.
For the other groups, those with progressive or other disabilities\textsuperscript{222} were the most likely to work part-time, followed by those with physical and/or sensory disabilities\textsuperscript{223} and those with hidden disabilities\textsuperscript{224}.

\textsuperscript{222} In Q1 2012 36.3\% of those with progressive or other disabilities worked part time compared to: 43.8\% in Q1 2013; 40.1\% in Q1 2014; and, 41.8\% in Q1 2016. Q1 2015 had too few respondents to report upon i.e. it did not meet the 8,000 threshold for reporting advised by NISRA.

\textsuperscript{223} In Q1 2012 31.4\% of those with physical and/or sensory disabilities worked part time compared to: 31.6\% in Q1 2013; 25.8\% in Q1 2014; 21.5\% in Q1 2015; and, 29.9\% in Q1 2016.

\textsuperscript{224} In Q1 2012 16.0\% of those with hidden disabilities worked part time compared to: 18.9\% in Q1 2013; 28.6\% in Q1 2014; 20.0\% in Q1 2015; and, 25.8\% in Q1 2016.
5 Gender

5.1 In discussing gender differences and inequalities within the Northern Ireland labour market, it is not possible to view findings solely through a gender lens. This is most often the case when reasons for the inequalities and differences are explored; here, it is most often dependency status that comes into play, where women are more constrained in the labour market due to caring responsibilities.

Summary

5.2 There are inequalities in women’s participation in employment, which are linked to a women’s dependency status. In particular, women experience a lower employment rate and a higher economic inactivity rate when they have dependents. Factors explaining this are likely to be linked to the disproportionate share of caregiving by women, while the cost and availability of childcare is another factor influencing the participation of women in the work place.

5.3 In addition, women experience inequalities in participation in employment in some industries and occupations that may also impact on sustainability of employment. Women experience industrial and occupational segregation in employment. Women are under-represented in industries associated with Science, Technology, Engineering and Mathematics (STEM) such as Manufacturing, Transport and Communication, Energy and Water and Construction.

5.4 Women are also under-represented in the highest paid and highest status occupations such as ‘Managers and Senior Officials’ and are over-represented in occupations that are more likely to be lower status and lower paid, such as ‘Personal Service’ and ‘Sales and Customer Service’. Moreover, women are more likely to report underemployment in their chosen occupation compared to men.

5.5 Caregiving has been suggested as one factor influencing occupational segregation with women choosing occupations allowing sufficient flexibility to balance the demands of caregiving. This may have a potential impact on the sustainability of women’s employment, with women having to consider pay and career progression with flexibility in employment.
5.6 Linked to this there are inequalities in the *sustainability of women’s employment*, associated with part-time working. **Women are more likely to be in part-time employment than men.** While this is one of a number of means by which women balance employment with childcare, it can negatively impact on progression in employment, with women sometimes being perceived negatively for asking for flexible working. Women working part-time working are also at risk of low pay and precarious employment, as many part-time jobs are typically associated with the minimum wage and atypical contracts.

5.7 Women experience prejudice, discrimination and harassment in the workplace; including discrimination due to pregnancy and maternity. Women have reported negative employment experiences such as: failure to consider the risks to health and safety of pregnant employees; being overlooked for promotion or otherwise side-lined; dilution of work responsibilities; being denied training; actions which impact negatively on earnings such as, changes to working hours, non-payment or reduction of pay rise or bonus payments; and, being subjected to negative or inappropriate comments.

5.8 **Trans people face prejudice and hostility in the workplace** with ignorance of Trans issues from employers and work colleagues a key issue in sustaining employment.

5.9 There is also a data gap in relation to gender identity and the labour market in Northern Ireland with **employment data related to Trans people severely lacking**. Therefore, knowledge on the nature and severity of inequalities in the labour market for Trans people in Northern Ireland is not known.

**Key Inequalities**

5.10 As evidenced in this section, the participation of women in the Northern Ireland labour market is more limited than that of men. Women face a number of inequalities in, and barriers to, the labour market that men do not face and whilst some improvement has been made over time many of these inequalities and barriers remain persistent.

5.11 Whilst this section presents the differences, inequalities and barriers faced by women in Northern Ireland with regard to the labour market it is important to note that each is not freestanding, but rather are interlinked with one another. In other words, the
experiences of women in the labour market do not exist in a vacuum; many factors interact to produce the outcomes observed.

**Key Inequality**

**Women experience a lower employment rate and a higher economic inactivity rate when they have dependents.**

5.12 Raeside *et al.*’s (2014) analysis of 2006 to 2012 Labour Force Survey (LFS) data showed that, between 2006 and 2012, men consistently had higher rates of employment than women. The Commission, through its analysis of LFS data, found that this was also evident between 2012 and 2016.

5.13 Between 2006 and the 2009 the gender gap in employment rates decreased from between 12.8 and 13.9 percentage points in the years 2006 to 2008, to 9.9 percentage points in 2009. LFS data shows that the narrowing of the gender gap in employment during the recession was due to a fall in employment rates for men; a fall which was twice that experienced by women.

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225 Employment is if someone worked at least one hour in the survey’s reference week. See Annex 1 for a fuller definition.

226 Raeside reported the rate of employment for men to be 74.1% in Q1 2006 and 71.6% in Q1 2012. Compared to this the rate reported for women was 64.6% in Q1 2006 and 67.3% in Q1 2012.

227 Raeside *et al.*’s (2014) analysis considered men aged 16-64 years old and women aged 16-59 years old.


229 The Commission found the rate of employment for men to be 71.5% in Q1 2012 and 75.1% in Q1 2016. In comparison the rates for women were 63.8% in Q1 2012 and 63.6% in Q1 2016.

230 The Commission’s analysis considered men and women aged 16-64 years old. Therefore, the proportions for women differ from Raeside et al (2014). In addition, slight difference in employment rates for men may be due to rounding.


232 The decrease in employment rates for men was 6.3 percentage points, from 75.2% in April-June 2008 to 68.9% in April-June 2009. This was compared to a decrease of 3.2 percentage points in employment rates for women, from 62.2% in April-June 2008 to 59.0% in April-June 2009.

5.14 The Commission’s analysis found that, between 2009 and 2016, the gender gap in employment remained fairly stable, ranging from 8.3 to 9.9 percentage points\textsuperscript{234, 235}.

5.15 The 2011 Census showed that, if employment patterns in Northern Ireland were to be reflective of the population, women would account for a 50.6% share of those in employment and men a 49.4% share\textsuperscript{236}. This was also shown to the case for NISRA’s 2015 population estimates, which reported that females continued to account for around half of the Northern Ireland population in 2015\textsuperscript{237, 238}.

5.16 The Commission’s analysis of LFS data over the period 2012 to 2016, which considered the Census 2011 and NISRA’s 2015 population estimates, found that, at all-time points between 2012 and 2016, women were underrepresented in employment compared to men\textsuperscript{239, 240, 241}. In addition, those women who were not in employment between 2006 and 2016 were most often economically inactive.

5.17 For a woman, the decision not to participate in the labour market due to family and/or home commitments is not a simple concept, with many different barriers and choices, both cultural, economic and personal underlying it.

5.18 These barriers discussed include: gender stereotypes; the social welfare system; qualifications and confidence; and, the affordability and accessibility of childcare.

5.19 McQuaid \textit{et al.} (2013) found that attitudes towards the role of the mother as the primary caregiver prevail in Northern Ireland and may lead to the higher rates of economic inactivity experienced

\textsuperscript{234} The average percentage point difference between rates of employment for men and women during the period April–June 2009 and April–June 2016 was 9.0 percentage points.
\textsuperscript{235} NISRA (2016) Quarterly Supplement to the Labour Market Report April – June 2016 Data Tables. Table QS2.1 Employment by sex, 16-64.
\textsuperscript{236} The Census 2011 showed that 50.6% and 49.4% of the working age population (16-64 years old) were women and men, respectively. Census Table CT0180NI: \textit{Usual residents in households aged 16 and over by age by sex}.
\textsuperscript{237} The Commission’s calculations utilising the mid-year data found that the resident working age (16-64 years old) population was comprised of 50.5% women and 49.5% men.
\textsuperscript{238} NISRA (2016) \textit{2015 Mid-year Population Estimates for Areas within Northern Ireland}.
\textsuperscript{239} The female share of employment in Northern Ireland ranged from 46.0% to 48.2% with an average of 47.3%.
\textsuperscript{240} Census Table CT0180NI: \textit{Usual residents in households aged 16 and over by age by sex}.
\textsuperscript{241} NISRA (2016) \textit{2015 Mid-year Population Estimates for Areas within Northern Ireland}.
by women. For example, ‘the division of paid work and care in the household is often gendered, with mothers assuming greater responsibility for care work and fathers for earning’. Whilst McQuaid et al. (2013) noted that some change has been made with regard to attitudes and practice ‘a stark asymmetry remains’.  

5.20 The Committee on Women’s Rights and Gender Equality, also reported gender stereotypes as a barrier to the employment of women where ‘traditional gender roles and stereotypes continue to have a strong influence on the division of roles between men and women in the home, in the workplace and in society at large, with women depicted as running the house and caring for children while men are depicted as wage-earners and protectors’.  

5.21 McQuaid et al. (2013) caution that fathers may be hindered from taking on a caring role due to gender stereotypes and its interaction with ‘current unbalanced and poorly compensated parental leave arrangements’.  

5.22 The Northern Ireland Executive (2016) cites that the ‘current social welfare system is a major structural barrier inhibiting labour market participation whereby the financial implications of work, even part-time work, can ‘make entering the labour market financially unattractive’. This was also noted in our 2007 Statement on Key Inequalities in Northern Ireland where we stated that ‘women are more likely to be reliant on means tested benefits’.  

5.23 In addition, McQuaid et al. (2013) caution that ‘women on benefits are unsure that work-based income would exceed their benefit-based incomes’, as benefits can be viewed as more secure.

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than work, avoiding the costs of childcare and the risk of potentially losing housing benefits²⁴⁹.

5.24 Qualifications and confidence are also cited by McQuaid et al. (2013) as an issue for mothers from disadvantaged backgrounds where ‘low-skilled and low-paid jobs do not allow them to afford paid childcare and may offer low levels of flexibility to accommodate their caring responsibilities’²⁵⁰.

5.25 Our 2007 Statement on Key Inequalities noted ‘difficulties in accessing affordable, quality childcare [which] further exacerbates the difficulties experienced by those (predominantly women) who wish to re-enter the labour market’²⁵¹.

5.26 The House of Commons (2016) more recently reported that ‘Childcare has an impact on women’s job opportunities, [whereby] women are more likely than men to consider these responsibilities before taking on a new job’²⁵².

5.27 McQuaid et al. (2013) also cite childcare as a barrier to employment for women in Northern Ireland and highlights that, in Northern Ireland, there is ‘a lack of good quality, affordable childcare’²⁵³.

5.28 In addition, McQuaid et al. (2013) note that, ‘if a significant portion of female-generated income is being spent on childcare, paid work is not worthwhile’²⁵⁴. This is especially an issue in Northern Ireland, where it is reported that the ‘average weekly (childcare) costs consume 43% of the median net weekly earning’²⁵⁵ and after housing costs is ‘the largest monthly outgoing for families, exceeding grocery bills, heating, transport and other household costs’²⁵⁶. Horgan and Monteith (2009) found

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that not only is childcare in Northern Ireland scarce, but it is also the most expensive in the UK, except for in London\textsuperscript{257}.

5.29 Employers for Childcare (2010) also reported the lack of childcare in Northern Ireland. They found that, compared to other regions in the United Kingdom, Northern Ireland had one of the lowest levels of available childcare\textsuperscript{258}.

5.30 There is also a further geographical element to access to childcare. In 2016, the Employers for Childcare Survey (2016) found that there was a continuing trend for parents in more westerly counties such as Fermanagh, Tyrone and Derry/Londonderry to report that there was insufficient childcare in their area\textsuperscript{259}.

5.31 McQuaid \textit{et al.} (2013) reported that availability of childcare is ‘particularly poor in rural areas, with rural parents reporting much more difficulty in finding childcare’\textsuperscript{260}. This can increase the logistical burden of getting to work, as rural parents may have to use a childcare facility that is some distance from home or work, which can make the journey longer and more complicated\textsuperscript{261}.

5.32 Lack of suitable, affordable and good quality childcare is a major issue when a child has a disability. Parents of children with a disability, including a learning disability, experience particular barriers to employment concerning the lack of suitable childcare. McQuaid \textit{et al.} (2013)\textsuperscript{262} reported that most parents with children with disabilities cite childcare responsibilities as the main barrier for employment for them. Many parents may not be able to find a childcare setting that is willing and able to take on their child.

5.33 McQuaid \textit{et al.} (2013) reported that mainstream settings often do not have a sufficient understanding of the child’s condition, may

\textsuperscript{258} Employers for Childcare (2010) \textit{Sizing up: A comparative study of childcare policies within the four regions of the UK}.
\textsuperscript{260} McQuaid, R., Graham, H. and Shapira, M (2013) \textit{Child Care: Maximising the Participation of Women}, Page 43.
\textsuperscript{261} McQuaid, R., Graham, H. and Shapira, M (2013) \textit{Child Care: Maximising the Participation of Women}, Page 42-43.
\textsuperscript{262} McQuaid, R., Graham, H. and Shapira, M (2013) \textit{Child Care: Maximising the Participation of Women}. 
not be suitably adapted to the child’s needs or may not have the ability to manage it²⁶³.

5.34 Our stakeholder engagement also highlighted that mainstream early years settings may not have the specific training and qualifications relating to the needs of children with learning disabilities. In addition, a higher staff ratio is needed in mainstream childcare provision to appropriately support the development of children with a disability, and so they can partake in activities with other children.

5.35 The type of childcare may also differ according to socio-economic background. McQuaid et al. (2013) found that families that are more affluent are more likely to use private childcare whilst those from a more disadvantaged background are more reliant on state or voluntary sector childcare²⁶⁴.

5.36 Many parents use informal childcare²⁶⁵ and this is typically provided by grandparents. In 2016, the Employers for Childcare survey found that grandparents provided 81% of all informal childcare used. Over half (52%) of all grandparents providing care were aged between 60-69 years old²⁶⁶. However, our stakeholder engagement expressed concern about the sustainability of relying on grandparents as a source of childcare given rising pension age.

²⁶⁵ In 2016, 43% of respondents used a mix of formal and informal childcare, while 8% used informal childcare only. See McMenemy R (2016) Northern Ireland Childcare Cost Survey. Employers for Childcare: Belfast Page 36.
5.37 The lower employment rate for women is supported by the identification of a higher rate of economic inactivity for women.

5.38 The Commission’s analysis of LFS data over the period 2006 to 2016 found that, women retained consistently higher rates of economic inactivity than men at each time point. However, between 2006 and 2016 the gender gap in rates of economic inactivity decreased from 15.1 percentage points in 2006 to 11.8 percentage points in 2016.

5.39 Comparing the economic inactivity rates for 2006 against those for 2016, the Commission found that the narrowing of the gender gap was related to a decrease, over time, in the proportion of women who were economically inactive, since economic inactivity rates for men in 2016 were comparable to those of 2006.

5.40 Research by the Northern Ireland Executive has found that "economic activity rates are lower amongst working age females the more dependent children they have." Therefore, it is likely that economic inactivity and dependency status interact.

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267 The gender gap in April-June 2008 was 15.3 percentage points, this decreased by 3.5 percentage points to 11.8 percentage points in April-June 2016.
268 NISRA (2016) Quarterly Supplement to the Labour Market Report April – June 2016 Data Tables. Table QS4.1 Economically inactive.
269 In April - June 2006 the difference between economic inactivity rates for men and women was 15.1 percentage points; in April-June 2009 it was 13.4 percentage points; and, in April-June 2016, this had reduced to 11.8 percentage points.
271 The economic inactivity rate for men in April-June 2006 was 21.3% compared to 20.6% in April-June 2016; a decrease of 0.7 percentage points. In comparison the economic inactivity rate for women fell 4.0 percentage points, from 36.4% in April-June 2006 to 32.4% in April-June 2016.
5.41 Barriers arising from caregiving may also explain why NISRA (2016) reported that the majority of women who were economically inactive did not want to work\textsuperscript{274, 275}. Our 2007 Statement on Key Inequalities in Northern Ireland\textsuperscript{276}, NISRA (2016), the 2011 Census, and Raeside \textit{et al.} (2014) highlighted that, for women, the main reason for not seeking work was due to family and/or home commitments\textsuperscript{277, 278, 279}. In contrast, the main reason given by men for economic inactivity was being sick or disabled and being a student\textsuperscript{280}; with the Census 2011 showing that under a tenth (6.9%) of men were economically inactive due to family and/or home commitments\textsuperscript{281}.

\begin{quote}
\textbf{Key Inequality}

Women are more likely to be in part-time employment than men.
\end{quote}

5.42 It is not just a lack of childcare that is a barrier to women participating in employment. Finding employment, which ties in with the hours of childcare availability, is also an issue\textsuperscript{282} since the opening hours of childcare facilities and working times may not match\textsuperscript{283}. ‘\textit{Therefore low costs of childcare, or even free childcare, are not sufficient if mothers cannot adjust their working hours}’.

\textsuperscript{274} 82\% of economically inactive women did not want to work compared to 80\% of men, respectively.
\textsuperscript{275} NISRA (2016) \textit{Women in Northern Ireland 2016}.
\textsuperscript{276} ECNI (2007) \textit{Statement on Key Inequalities in Northern Ireland}.
\textsuperscript{277} Cited as 32\% of working age economically inactive women in NISRA (2016) \textit{Women in Northern Ireland 2016}.
\textsuperscript{278} Cited as 40.5\% of women in the 2011 Census Table T58: \textit{Theme table on economic activity}. This census table considers those aged 16 years old to pensionable age.
\textsuperscript{280} 37\% NISRA (2016) \textit{Women in Northern Ireland 2016}; and, 42.1\% in the 2011 Census Table T58: \textit{Theme table on economic activity}. This census table considers those aged 16 years old to pensionable age.
\textsuperscript{281} Census Table T58: \textit{Theme table on economic activity}. This census table considers those aged 16 years old to pensionable age.
\textsuperscript{282} McQuaid, R., Graham, H. and Shapira, M (2013) \textit{Child Care: Maximising the Participation of Women}.
hours in a way that allows them to carry out their caring responsibilities\textsuperscript{284}.

5.43 One of a number of means by which women balance employment with childcare is through part-time employment. In 2016, the Northern Ireland Childcare Costs Survey reported that 55\% of female respondents had reduced their hours due to the cost of childcare\textsuperscript{285}.

5.44 However, women working part-time are at risk of low pay and precarious employment\textsuperscript{286}, as part-time employment is typically associated with low pay\textsuperscript{287},\textsuperscript{288} atypical contracts\textsuperscript{289}, the low wage economy, fragmented and unsocial hours\textsuperscript{290} and a higher risk of poverty\textsuperscript{291}. For example, precarious employment such as zero hour contracts, tends to be found in the hospitality and health and social care sectors\textsuperscript{292}, where a high proportion of women work. It has been reported that zero hours contracts are associated with lower gross-weekly pay, fewer hours of work on average and may contribute to rates of under-employment\textsuperscript{293}.

5.45 Raeside et al. (2014) found that rates of part-time employment for men and women remained fairly constant between 2006 and 2012\textsuperscript{294}. At each time point, Raeside et al. (2014) found that women were much more likely than men to work in part-time

\textsuperscript{284} McQuaid, R., Graham, H. and Shapira, M (2013) Child Care: Maximising the Participation of Women. Page 16.
\textsuperscript{287} A report (2016) by the House of Commons Women and Equalities Committee in Great Britain highlighted that women working part-time hold 41\% of minimum wage jobs, almost twice as high as their share of all jobs. HC Women and Equalities Committee (2016) Gender Pay Gap 2\textsuperscript{nd} report of session 2015-2016.
employment\textsuperscript{295}. For example, in 2012 women were four times more likely to work in part-time employment than men\textsuperscript{296}.

5.46 The Commission’s analysis of LFS data over the period 2012 to 2016 mirrored Raeside et al.’s (2014) finding from 2012\textsuperscript{297}. The Commission’s analysis found that women were in excess of three to four times more likely to work in part-time employment than men between 2012 and 2016. For example, at each time point, the proportion of women who worked part-time was a little under 40\% compared to a little under 10\% of men\textsuperscript{298}. This inequality is persistent, having been previously identified by the Commission in 2007\textsuperscript{299}.

5.47 The Northern Ireland Statistics and Research Agency (NISRA) (2016), reported that over three quarters of those who were in part-time employment in Northern Ireland were women; comparable to the rate in Great Britain (GB)\textsuperscript{300}.

5.48 Working part-time is, for many, a choice; evidenced by NISRA’s (2016) finding that nearly three quarters of women who worked part-time did not want a full-time job; also comparable to GB\textsuperscript{301}. However, the reasons for not wanting a part-time job may be due to the barriers to participation in the labour market that women face, particularly in relation to caregiving.

5.49 McQuaid et al. (2013) caution that the same barriers that prevent women from becoming economically active may also encourage women to choose part-time employment\textsuperscript{302}. For example, women may work part-time to facilitate caring arrangements. In addition, traditional cultural attitudes that women should take ownership

\textsuperscript{296} In Q1 2012 the part time employment rate for women (aged 16-59 years old in Raeside et al.’s (2014) research) was 38.5\% compared to 9.2\% for men (aged 16-64 years old in Raeside et al.’s (2014) research); the rate for women was 4.1 times that of men.
\textsuperscript{298} The rates of part time employment for women were: 39.3\% in Q1 2012; 39.8\% in Q1 2013; 38.3\% in Q1 2014; 36.7\% in Q1 2015; and, 39.3\% in Q1 2016. This was compared to rates of: 9.2\% in Q1 2012; 10.8\% in Q1 2013; 10.8\% in Q1 2014; 9.4\% in Q1 2015; and, 9.5\% in Q1 2016 for men. In Q1 2016 the percentage point difference was 29.8 percentage points.
\textsuperscript{299} ECNI (2007) \textit{Statement on Key Inequalities in Northern Ireland}
\textsuperscript{300} 79\% and 77\%, respectively. NISRA (2016) \textit{Women in Northern Ireland 2016}.
\textsuperscript{301} 73\% and 76\%, respectively. NISRA (2016) \textit{Women in Northern Ireland 2016}.
\textsuperscript{302} McQuaid, R., Graham, H. and Shapira, M (2013) \textit{Child Care: Maximising the Participation of Women}.
and responsibility for caring for the home and children may be at play\textsuperscript{303}.

5.50 Bashir \textit{et al.}'s (2011) research, for the Department for Work and Pensions, also found that, given their caring responsibilities, many women were ‘\textit{only interested in part-time work}’\textsuperscript{304} and reported a lack of appropriate employment with limited financial gains\textsuperscript{305}. In addition, Bashir et al. (2011) also noted ‘\textit{a widespread reluctance to use childcare}’\textsuperscript{306} among some women.

5.51 Working part-time, however, can impact on a women’s progression in employment. In 2015, an Employers for Childcare survey\textsuperscript{307} reported that some working mothers, who have asked for flexible working such as part-time hours, have experienced a negative workplace culture, including being perceived as less committed, being viewed as not interested in career progression and being side-lined as a result.

\begin{center}
\textbf{Key Inequality}
\end{center}

\begin{center}
Women experience industrial segregation
\end{center}

5.52 Raeside \textit{et al.} (2014) noted that women and men were over-represented in some industries and under-represented in others between 2006 and 2012\textsuperscript{308}. The Commission noted that there was little change in the period between 2012 and 2016. This is a persistent inequality.

5.53 Both Raeside \textit{et al.} (2014) and the Commission found that women were mainly employed in two of the nine industry sectors.

\textsuperscript{303} McQuaid, R., Graham, H. and Shapira, M (2013) \textit{Child Care: Maximising the Participation of Women.}
\textsuperscript{305} Bashir, N., Crisp, R., Gore, T., Reeve, K. and Robinson, D. (2011) \textit{Families and work: Revisiting barriers to employment.}
\textsuperscript{307} Employers for Childcare (2015) \textit{Striking the Balance: The impact becoming a parent has on employment, working life and career. Employers for Childcare: belfast}
at all time points considered: 309 ‘Public, Administration, Education and Health’ 310, and ‘Distribution, Hotels and Restaurants’ 311. The sectors in which women were least likely to work were: ‘Agriculture and Fishing’; ‘Energy and Water’; and, ‘Construction’ 312.

5.54 The 2011 Census shows that, if employment patterns in Northern Ireland were to be reflective of the population, women would account for 50.6% of those in employment and men 49.4% 313. This was also shown to the case for NISRA’s (2016) 2015 population estimates, which reported that women continued to account for around half of the Northern Ireland population in 2015 314, 315.

5.55 The Commission found that between 2012 and 2016, there was only a slightly higher representation of female employees compared to males in the ‘Distribution, Hotels and Restaurants’ 316 and ‘Other Services’ 317, 318 sectors compared to their proportionate share of the population 319. However, in the ‘Public, Administration, Education and Health’ sector there was a disproportionately high representation of female employees at each time point 320.

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309 The Commission compared LFS data for industry and occupation sectors for: Q1 2012; Q1 2013; Q1 2014; Q1 2015; and, Q1 2016 in its analysis.
310 Between 2012 and 2016, the following proportion of women worked in the ‘Public, Administration, Education and Health’ sector: 51.3% in Q1 2012; 51.1% in Q1 2013; 49.6% in Q1 2014; 51.9% in Q1 2015; and, 47.2% in Q1 2016, respectively.
311 Between 2012 and 2016, the following proportion of women worked in the ‘Distribution, Hotels and Restaurants’ sector: 22.3% in Q1 2012; 22.5% in Q1 2013; 20.0% in Q1 2014; 20.8% in Q1 2015; and, 23.0% in Q1 2016, respectively.
312 The representation of women was so low in these three industries that their numbers could not be reported as they did not meet the minimum level for reporting set by NISRA.
313 The Census 2011 showed that 50.6% and 49.4% of the working age population (16-64 years old) were female and male, respectively. Census Table CT0180NI: Usual residents in households aged 16 and over by age by sex.
314 The Census 2011 showed that 50.6% and 49.4% of the working age population (16-64 years old) were female and male, respectively. Census Table CT0180NI: Usual residents in households aged 16 and over by age by sex.
316 The ‘Distribution, Hotels and Restaurants’ sector employed the following proportions of women: 54.4% in Q1 2012; 51.9% in Q1 2013; 51.7% in Q1 2014; 53.2% in Q1 2015; and, 51.7% in Q1 2016.
317 The ‘Other Services’ sector employed the following proportions of women: 48.7% in Q1 2012; 60.7% in Q1 2013; 64.5% in Q1 2014; 52.2% in Q1 2015; and, 53.0% in Q1 2016.
318 Except for Q1 2013 and Q1 2014 when women accounted for a much higher proportion of the employees than men.
320 The ‘Public, Administration, Education and Health’ sector employed the following proportions of women: 69.5% in Q1 2012; 71.9% in Q1 2013; 68.4% in Q1 2014; 70.1% in Q1 2015; and, 69.7% in Q1 2016.
5.56 Such high representation resulted in smaller proportions in the remaining industry sectors; again this was more keenly expressed in the ‘Agriculture and Fishing’; ‘Energy and Water’; and, ‘Construction’ sectors where few women were employed\textsuperscript{321}.

5.57 In comparison, men were highly overrepresented in two of the nine industry sectors: ‘Manufacturing’\textsuperscript{322}; and, ‘Transport and Communication’\textsuperscript{323}. This high level of overrepresentation for men led to a corresponding underrepresentation of women in these same three sectors.

5.58 A comparison was not possible for three industry sectors due to the low number of women represented in the LFS data: ‘Agriculture and Fishing’; ‘Energy and Water’; and, ‘Construction’.

5.59 Many of the industries and sectors in which women are under-represented are within Science, Technology, Engineering and Mathematics-based (STEM) industries.

5.60 The Science, Technology and Engineering Business Group (2013) cite that ‘in the Northern Ireland economy, high level STEM posts currently constitute over 11% of the workforce, with men outnumbering women by nearly 3 to 1’ (authors emphasis)\textsuperscript{324}.

5.61 Further, men are more likely to enter into apprenticeships and there is a gender balance in certain types of apprenticeships: for example, women are under-represented in apprenticeships in STEM related areas\textsuperscript{325}.

5.62 In addition, the Committee for Employment and Learning’s inquiry into careers advice and guidance (2013) were informed that only

\textsuperscript{321} The representation of women was so low in these three industries that their numbers could not be reported as they did not meet the minimum level of 8,000 for reporting set by NISRA.

\textsuperscript{322} The ‘Manufacturing’ sector employed the following proportions of men: 77.3% in Q1 2012; 79.0% in Q1 2013; 74.5% in Q1 2014; 78.4% in Q1 2015; and, 81.9% in Q1 2016.

\textsuperscript{323} The ‘Transport and Communication’ sector employed the following proportions of men: 79.1% in Q1 2012; 82.0% in Q1 2013; 79.6% in Q1 2014; 74.9% in Q1 2015; and, 75.0% in Q1 2016.

\textsuperscript{324} STEM Business Group (2013) \textit{Addressing Gender Balance – Reaping the Gender Dividend in Science, Technology, Engineering and Mathematics (STEM)}. Page 1.

\textsuperscript{325} STEM Business Group (2013) \textit{Addressing Gender Balance – Reaping the Gender Dividend in Science, Technology, Engineering and Mathematics (STEM)} DEL: Belfast and DEL Statistics 2015.
4% of Technicians and 6% of Engineers in Northern Ireland were women\textsuperscript{326}.

5.63 Stereotyping and bias within our culture and particularly within male-dominated engineering and technology sectors, has been cited as one factor in the under-representation of women within these industries\textsuperscript{327}.

5.64 In addition, young women are less likely to choose to study STEM subjects at further and higher education compared to young men\textsuperscript{328} thus decreasing their availability for high-level STEM jobs, where men outnumber women by nearly three to one\textsuperscript{329}.

5.65 The Commission’s Statement on Key Inequalities in Education highlighted that in higher education, women represented a lower share of enrolees in the defined STEM subject group of ‘Maths, IT, Engineering and Technology’ compared to their share of the population\textsuperscript{330}.

5.66 Moreover, in the Commission’s analyses using the slightly wider ‘Narrow STEM’\textsuperscript{331} subject grouping and the ‘Broad STEM’\textsuperscript{332} subject groupings, the findings show that although women are under-represented in the ‘Narrow STEM’ areas, “as the STEM subject group is widened, to firstly include biological and physical sciences (‘Narrow STEM’) and then medicine, dentistry and veterinary sciences (‘Broad Stem’), the female share increases to comparability with the male share\textsuperscript{333}.

\begin{itemize}
\item \textsuperscript{327} DEL (2013) Addressing Gender Balance – Reaping the Gender Dividend in Science, Technology, Engineering and Mathematics, p11. DEL: Belfast.
\item \textsuperscript{329} STEM Business Group (2013) Addressing Gender Balance – Reaping the Gender Dividend in Science, Technology, Engineering and Mathematics (STEM), p1. DEL: Belfast.
\item \textsuperscript{330} ECNI (2017) Key Inequalities in Education: Statement October 2017. ECNI: Belfast. Available at: \url{http://www.equalityni.org/KeyInequalities-Education}.
\item \textsuperscript{331} Narrow STEM is a subset of Broad STEM and includes the following subject areas: Biological Sciences, Physical Sciences, Mathematical Sciences, Computer Science, Engineering & Technology.
\item \textsuperscript{332} Broad STEM includes the following subject areas: Medicine & Dentistry, Subjects allied to Medicine, Biological Sciences, Veterinary Sciences, Agriculture & related subjects, Physical Sciences, Mathematical Sciences, Computer Science, Engineering & Technology and Architecture, Building & Planning.
\item \textsuperscript{333} ECNI (2017) Key Inequalities in Education: Statement October 2017. ECNI: Belfast. Available at: \url{http://www.equalityni.org/KeyInequalities-Education}.
\end{itemize}
However, it is understood that gender differences in subject choice emerge at an earlier stage of education; with gender differences in STEM subject choice reported at A-level\textsuperscript{334} and, GCSE-level\textsuperscript{335}.

Gender stereotyped perceptions of STEM jobs as being traditionally “male” may influence the willingness of girls to pursue these courses and careers. For example, in 2014 the Girls Attitudes Survey\textsuperscript{336} asked girls and young women between 11-21 years why more girls than boys drop STEM (Science, technology, engineering and maths) subjects despite being as competent as their male peers. Over half of the girls and young women surveyed (56%) felt that STEM subjects have the image of being more for boys, while 42% felt that girls do not enjoy these subjects as much or perceive there to be too few female role models in these roles in education (42%) and the work environment (40%)\textsuperscript{337}. Moreover, a third said that girls who are interested in these subjects are teased (33%), while 22% felt that teachers and careers advisors show gender bias in their advice and encouragement on subject choice\textsuperscript{338}.

In addition, a UK-based report from Ofsted found that from “an early age, the girls surveyed had held conventionally stereotypical views about jobs for men and women. They retained those views throughout their schooling despite being taught about equality of opportunity and knowing their rights to access any kind of future career”\textsuperscript{339}.

Our stakeholder engagement reported a lack of careers guidance in relation to STEM in schools. In 2013, an inquiry into Careers Education, Information, Advice and Guidance in Northern Ireland also noted inconsistencies in the provision of careers guidance in school, with 35% of pupils surveyed in Grammar schools compared to 50% of pupils in Secondary schools reporting that


\textsuperscript{335} See STEM Business Group (2013) \textit{Addressing Gender Balance – Reaping the Gender Dividend in Science, Technology, Engineering and Mathematics (STEM)}, DEL: Belfast


\textsuperscript{337} Ibid


\textsuperscript{339} OFSTED (2011) Girls’s Career Aspirations
their careers guidance was ‘extremely helpful’ or ‘very helpful’. In addition, only 19% of both college students and university students said that their careers guidance in school was ‘extremely helpful’ or ‘very helpful’.

5.71 Contributors to the enquiry noted the need to encourage the participation of women in STEM subjects. They also highlighted that early intervention should be undertaken at primary school as “young people’s educational intentions are fixed early and that what they say at the age of 11 is highly predictive of their actual behaviour at 16” and this includes “beginning to dismiss a large range of occupations for being the wrong ‘sex-type’”. Our stakeholder engagement highlighted that there was a need for role models or STEM ambassadors to encourage women into STEM industries.

5.72 Some community projects have developed models to encourage women into non-traditional industries and occupations. Potter (2014) suggested that, while many approaches have been successful, some have assumed that women are a problem that needs transforming to fit a “male” work environment. Instead, these workplaces need to be transformed to be more receptive to all identities.

5.73 In addition to being more likely to experience industrial segregation, Raeside et al. (2014) noted that women were also

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Ibid
subject to occupational segregation between 2006 and 2012. The Commission’s analysis of LFS data over the period 2012 to 2016 found that this was a persistent inequality.

5.74 Both Raeside et al. (2014) and the Commission drew the same conclusions, that women were mainly employed in four of the nine occupation sectors at all time points considered: ‘Professional’; ‘Administrative and Secretarial’; ‘Personal Service’; and, ‘Sales and Customer Service’ occupations.

5.75 Only a small proportion of the female workforce were employed at the top occupational level of ‘Managers and Senior Officials’; with the proportion of women within these occupations decreasing between 2012 and 2016.

5.76 The occupation sectors in which women were less likely to work were: ‘Skilled Trades Occupations’ and ‘Process, Plant and Machine Operatives’.

5.77 The 2011 Census shows that, if employment patterns in Northern Ireland were to be reflective of the population, women would

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348 Occupational segregation was also noted in the monitored workforce within our 2007 Statement on Key Inequalities. ECNI (2007) Statement on Key Inequalities in Northern Ireland.


350 The following proportions of women were employed in ‘Professional Occupations’ between 2012 and 2016: 19.4% in Q1 2012; 21.0% in Q1 2013; 22.0% in Q1 2014; 22.6% in Q1 2015; and, 20.1% in Q1 2016, respectively.

351 The following proportions of women were employed in ‘Administrative and Secretarial’ occupations between 2012 and 2016: 21.3% in Q1 2012; 20.2% in Q1 2013; 19.4% in Q1 2014; 18.8% in Q1 2015; and, 16.8% in Q1 2016, respectively.

352 The following proportions of women were employed in ‘Personal Service’ occupations between 2012 and 2016: 16.5% in Q1 2012; 17.5% in Q1 2013; 19.0% in Q1 2014; 17.3% in Q1 2015; and, 16.7% in Q1 2016, respectively.

353 The following proportions of women were employed in ‘Sales and Customer Service’ occupations between 2012 and 2016: 11.8% in Q1 2012; 12.4% in Q1 2013; 10.6% in Q1 2014; 12.0% in Q1 2015; and, 14.7% in Q1 2016, respectively.

354 The following proportions of women were employed in ‘Managers and Senior Officials’ occupations between 2012 and 2016: 6.9% in Q1 2012; 6.2% in Q1 2013; 5.8% in Q1 2014; 5.2% in Q1 2015; and, 5.8% in Q1 2016, respectively.

355 The following proportions of women were employed in ‘Skilled Trades Occupations’ between 2012 and 2016: 2.3% in Q1 2012; 2.5% in Q1 2013; 2.4% in Q1 2014; 1.8% in Q1 2015; and, 2.6% in Q1 2016, respectively.

356 The representation of women was so low in ‘Process, Plant and Machine Operatives’ that their numbers could not be reported as they did not meet the minimum level for reporting set by NISRA.
account for 50.6% of those in employment and men 49.4%.\textsuperscript{357} This was also shown to the case for NISRA’s (2016) 2015 population estimates, which reported that women continued to account for around half of the Northern Ireland population in 2015.\textsuperscript{358, 359}

5.78 The Commission found that, in each year between 2012 and 2016, compared to their proportionate share of the population\textsuperscript{360}, women were slightly overrepresented in ‘Professional’ occupations\textsuperscript{361}. Women were highly overrepresented in three occupations: ‘Personal Service’\textsuperscript{362}, ‘Administrative and Secretarial’\textsuperscript{363}; and, ‘Sales and Customer Service’\textsuperscript{364} occupations.

5.79 In contrast, men were overrepresented in four out of the nine occupation sectors; this included the top level of ‘Managers and Senior Officials’. For example, in this occupation sector six tenths of its 2016 workforce were men.\textsuperscript{365} The other sectors where men were overrepresented in 2016 were: ‘Skilled Trades Occupations’\textsuperscript{366}, ‘Elementary’\textsuperscript{367}; and, ‘Associate, Professional and Technical’\textsuperscript{368} occupation sectors.

5.80 Raeside et al. (2014) state that ‘there is no definitive answer as to why occupational segregation exists, and the extent to which it is

\textsuperscript{357} The Census 2011 showed that 50.6% and 49.4% of the working age population (16-64 years old) were women and men, respectively. Census Table CT0180NI: Usual residents in households aged 16 and over by age by sex.

\textsuperscript{358} The Commission’s calculations utilising the mid-year data found that the resident working age (16-64 years old) population was comprised of 50.5% women and 49.5% men.

\textsuperscript{359} NISRA (2016) 2015 Mid-year Population Estimates for Areas within Northern Ireland.

\textsuperscript{360} NISRA (2016) 2015 Mid-year Population Estimates for Areas within Northern Ireland.

\textsuperscript{361} The ‘Professional Occupations’ sector was made up of the following proportions of women: 49.6% in Q1 2012; 54.1% in Q1 2013; 54.0% in Q1 2014; 56.1% in Q1 2015; and, 53.0% in Q1 2016.

\textsuperscript{362} The ‘Personal Service’ occupations sector was made up of the following proportions of women: 84.9% in Q1 2012; 84.2% in Q1 2013; 87.2% in Q1 2014; 84.4% in Q1 2015; and, 77.5% in Q1 2016.

\textsuperscript{363} The ‘Administrative and Secretarial’ occupations sector was made up of the following proportions of women: 78.0% in Q1 2012; 78.6% in Q1 2013; 75.0% in Q1 2014; 70.9% in Q1 2015; and, 73.4% in Q1 2016.

\textsuperscript{364} The ‘Sales and Customer Service’ occupations sector was made up of the following proportions of women: 70.2% in Q1 2012; 68.7% in Q1 2013; 67.8% in Q1 2014; 67.5% in Q1 2015; and, 59.6% in Q1 2016.

\textsuperscript{365} The ‘Managers and Senior Officials’ occupations sector was made up of the following proportions of men: 62.2% in Q1 2012; 68.2% in Q1 2013; 57.5% in Q1 2014; 62.5% in Q1 2015; and, 61.6% in Q1 2016.

\textsuperscript{366} The ‘Skilled Trades Occupations’ sector was made up of the following proportions of men: 92.1% in Q1 2012; 90.6% in Q1 2013; 92.4% in Q1 2014; 93.7% in Q1 2015; and, 91.9% in Q1 2016.

\textsuperscript{367} The ‘Elementary’ occupations sector was made up of the following proportions of men: 59.7% in Q1 2012; 53.6% in Q1 2013; 56.7% in Q1 2014; 56.3% in Q1 2015; and, 55.2% in Q1 2016.

\textsuperscript{368} The ‘Associate Professional and Technical’ occupations sector was made up of the following proportions of men: 55.0% in Q1 2012; 56.3% in Q1 2013; 57.4% in Q1 2014; 57.7% in Q1 2015; and, 54.5% in Q1 2016.
the product of choice’. A possible explanation that relates to the highest occupational level of ‘Managers and Senior Officials’ is that over half of female employees are in the ‘Public, Administration, Education and Health’ sector, which ‘protects employees from downward occupation mobility, but restricts their upward mobility’\textsuperscript{369}; Schroeder et al. (2008) posit that managerial roles are found more often in the private sector\textsuperscript{370}.

5.81 Indeed, many people in employment in Northern Ireland consider themselves under-employed\textsuperscript{371}; with slightly more women workers under-employed compared with men\textsuperscript{372}.

5.82 The Women and Work Commission (2009) found that, due to taking time out of the labour market due to childcare or other caring roles, women often lack the confidence to work altogether or perhaps believe that their skills are so out of date that they opt to take a job that is below their skills level\textsuperscript{373}.

5.83 The House of Commons (2017) reports that ‘women are … still penalised for taking time out of work to have and raise children and are having to trade pay and career progression for flexibility’\textsuperscript{374}.

5.84 The reasons outlined above and the barriers to employment for women outlined in an earlier section may explain why Stennett and Murphy (2017) found that ‘a higher proportion of women choose occupations that offer less financial reward’ and are ‘less likely to progress up the career ladder into high paying senior roles’\textsuperscript{375}.


\textsuperscript{371} An under-employed person is defined as “a person, who is in employment, working less than 48 hours per week, would like to work more hours and is available to start in the next fortnight”. In 2015, in NI there were 53,000 underemployed workers or around 6.5% of all workers. See NISRA (2015) Underemployment in Northern Ireland. NISRA: Belfast.

\textsuperscript{372} In 2015, 7% of workers who were women were underemployed compared with 6% of men. See NISRA (2015) Underemployment in Northern Ireland. NISRA: Belfast.


\textsuperscript{375} Stennett A. and Murphy, E. (2017) Research Matters. How big is the gender pay gap in NI’s public and private sectors?
The Commission (2017)\textsuperscript{376} reported that, ‘Women frequently experience sex discrimination and harassment in the workplace, including discrimination due to pregnancy and maternity, and as regards unequal pay’\textsuperscript{377}.

The Commission (2016) undertook a formal investigation into the treatment of pregnant workers and mothers in Northern Ireland workplaces. Thirty-six percent (36\%) of women participating in this investigation believed that they have been treated unfairly or disadvantaged at work as a result of their pregnancy or having taken maternity leave. These women reported negative employment experiences such as: failure to consider the risks to health and safety of pregnant employees; being overlooked for promotion or otherwise side-lined; dilution of work responsibilities; being denied training; actions which impact negatively on earnings such as, changes to working hours, non-payment or reduction of pay rise or bonus payments; and, being subjected to negative or inappropriate comments.\textsuperscript{378}

The Commission further highlighted that, ‘The majority of the discrimination cases brought to tribunals in Northern Ireland in the area of employment are on the ground of sex discrimination’\textsuperscript{379}.


\textsuperscript{377} A recent investigation carried out by ECNI has highlighted experiences of unfair treatment of pregnant workers and mothers in the workplace. In particular, it found that a significant percentage (36\%) of women participating in this investigation believed that they had been treated unfairly or disadvantaged at work as a result of their pregnancy or having taken maternity leave. See ECNI (2016) Expecting Equality-Summary Report A Formal Investigation into the treatment of pregnancy workers and mothers in Northern Ireland workplaces.


\textsuperscript{379} 351 sex discrimination complaints and 70 equal pay complaints were registered with OITFET in 2012-2013 2012 -2013 (OITFET Annual Report) compared to 354 in 2010-2011 and 375 in 2011-2012. This compares to 213 disability discrimination, 197 age discrimination and 24 sexual orientation discrimination complaints in 2012-2013.
The Commission itself receives a high number of enquiries / applications for assistance from individuals who believed they had been discriminated against on the grounds of their sex. For example, over a quarter of discrimination enquiries (26.2%) made to the Commission in 2015/16 related to sex discrimination. The vast majority of these relate to the area of employment; particularly in the area of pregnancy and maternity.380

**Inequalities and Differences**

**Inequality**

Women are less likely to be self-employed than men.

5.88 Raeside et al. (2014) reported that ‘males are much more likely than females to be self-employed in Northern Ireland by around 10 percentage points’381. The Commission found that, between 2012 and 2016, a gap between the self-employment rates of men and women remained; women were consistently less likely to be self-employed than men382.

5.89 A recent Commission report383, has noted that while there has been a rise in the number of self-employed women, the top three occupations for self-employed women are in the low paid areas of cleaning, childminding and hairdressing. Also, women remain the largest under-represented group in entrepreneurship in Northern Ireland.

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380 In particular, in 2015/16 over a quarter (26.2% (930)) of ECNI discrimination enquiries related to sex discrimination. 92% of these enquiries related to employment. Almost 20% (185) related to pregnancy and maternity. **ECNI Discrimination Enquiries Statistics 2015-2016.** Statistics relate to discrimination enquiries received by ECNI between 1 April 2015 and 31 March 2016. The CEDAW Committee has also highlighted the need to address the persistent discrimination against pregnant women in employment. **CEDAW Committee (2013) Concluding Observations on UK, CEDAW Committee.**


382 The self-employment rates for men were: 18.9% in Q1 2012; 19.4% in Q1 2013; 21.5% in Q1 2014; 18.4% in Q1 2015; and, 16.9% in Q1 2016. This was compared to the following rates for women: 6.6% in Q1 2012; 5.5% in Q1 2013; 8.3% in Q1 2014; 4.8% in Q1 2015; and, 8.6% in Q1 2016.

In April 2016, the Commission’s analysis of ASHE data identified that the median hourly earnings of women excluding over-time for full-time employees were 103.2% of the earnings of men in Northern Ireland\(^\text{384}\), compared with 90.5% in the UK\(^\text{385}\).

Department of the Economy data has revealed that, in Northern Ireland, median hourly earnings for women excluding over-time for full-time employees first became equal with the earnings of men in 2010. Since 2010, earnings for men and women have been similar; and, in 2013, median hourly earnings for women exceeded that of men for the first time\(^\text{386}\).

In 2016, the Commission’s analysis of ASHE data for part-time employees, found a gender pay gap in favour of women, with median hourly earnings (excluding over-time) of women 6.8% more than that of men. Between 2012 and 2016, this gender pay gap persisted; with part-time hourly pay for women excluding overtime greater than that for men at each time point\(^\text{387}\).

While the gender pay gap for full-time and part-time employees was slightly in favour of women, the overall median hourly pay excluding over-time\(^\text{388}\) was found to be in favour of men. In 2012, Raeside et al.’s (2014) analysis of the median gross hourly pay excluding overtime found there to be a 9.4% gender pay in favour of men.

\(^{384}\) No median full-time hourly pay gap excluding overtime was found in 2012, little difference was found in the following years: 1.5% in 2013; 1.1% in 2014; 1.5% in 2015; and, 3.2% in 2016 in favour of women.

\(^{385}\) No median full-time hourly pay gap excluding overtime was found in 2012, little difference was found in the following years: 1.5% in 2013; 1.1% in 2014; 1.5% in 2015; and, 3.2% in 2016.


\(^{387}\) In 2012 the gender pay gap in part-time gross hourly pay excluding overtime was 10.8%. The gender pay gap for the following years was: 9.1% in 2013; 5.5% in 2014; 3.3% in 2015; and, 6.8% in 2016.

\(^{388}\) i.e. including full-time and part-time employees.
In addition, the Commission, through its analysis of ASHE data between 2012 and 2016 also found this to be the case. In 2016, a 9.1% pay gap in median hourly pay excluding overtime was identified with women (both full-time and part-time) earning 90.9% of the median hourly pay (excluding overtime) of men (both full-time and part-time).

This overall gender pay gap in median hourly pay (excluding overtime) in favour of men is a reflection of the part-time pay penalty. The Commission’s analysis of ASHE data found that while there is little difference between the median hourly pay (excluding overtime) of men and women there is a large pay gap between the median hourly pay (excluding overtime) of part-time and full-time workers. In 2016, the part-time pay penalty was 32%; with part-time workers earning a median of 68% of that of full-time workers (excluding over-time). This impacts disproportionality on women because, as identified previously in this section, women are three or four times more likely to work part-time than men.

It is generally accepted that it is women who are at the detrimental end of the gender pay gap; a pay gap which is largely ‘down to women’s concentration in part-time work,’ their ‘disproportionate responsibility for unpaid caring’ and the reality that ‘many of the sectors women work in, like retail and care, offer predominantly low-paid, part-time work.’

However, the House of Commons (2016) also reports that other, much broader contributors, lead to the gender pay gap; such as: education, career choices and segregation in the labour market. For example, given that women are less likely to work at the higher occupational levels ‘occupational segregation is widely acknowledged to be a key factor in the gender pay gap.’
Men are more likely to be unemployed than women.

5.98 Whilst men were less likely than women to be economically inactive, Raeside et al. (2014) and the Commission’s analysis of LFS data from 2006 to 2016 found that men were more likely to be ILO unemployed\(^{395}\) than women. This is an emergent inequality\(^{396, 397}\).

5.99 The Commission notes that whilst the rate of unemployment for both men and women increased between 2006 and 2016, men consistently experienced higher rates of unemployment than women at each time point between 2006 and 2016\(^{398, 399}\).

5.100 McQuaid et al. (2010) notes that, often in a recession, it is men who are most affected with regard to unemployment rates since the impacts of the recession on male-dominated industry and occupation sectors may provide a barrier to men re-entering the labour market\(^{400}\).

5.101 The Commission’s analysis of LFS data over the period 2006 to 2016 shows that McQuaid et al.’s (2010) assertion was evident with regard to the 2009 recession\(^{401, 402}\). The LFS data shows that an increase in rates of unemployment was experienced for both men and women in 2009 compared to 2008. However, whilst this

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\(^{395}\) International Labour Organisation unemployment refers to those without work but who are actively seeking working in the past four weeks; they are therefore economically active. For a fuller definition see Annex 1.

\(^{396}\) This inequality is considered to be emergent since it was not noted in the 2007 Statement on Key Inequalities in Northern Ireland.


\(^{398}\) The unemployment rate for men increased from 5.1% in April-June 2006 to 7.2% in April-June 2016; an increase of 2.1 percentage points. In comparison the unemployment rate for women increased from 2.8% in April-June 2006 to 4.2% in April-June 2016; an increase of 1.4 percentage points.

\(^{399}\) NISRA (2016) Quarterly Supplement to the Labour Market Report April – June 2016 Data Tables. Table QS1.1 Unemployment by sex, 16+.

\(^{400}\) McQuaid et al. (2010) Employment Inequalities in an Economic Downturn.


\(^{402}\) NISRA (2016) Quarterly Supplement to the Labour Market Report April – June 2016 Data Tables. Table QS1.1 Unemployment by sex, 16+. 
increase was the largest experienced over the period by both men and women, it was greater for men than for women\textsuperscript{403, 404}.

5.102 In addition, the LFS data shows that unemployment rates for men and women in Northern Ireland have not yet returned to pre-recession levels\textsuperscript{405}.

\begin{center}
\textbf{Difference}
\end{center}

Women are less likely than men to work in the private sector.

5.103 Both Raeside \textit{et al.} (2014) and the Commission found that, between 2006 and 2016, women were consistently less likely to work in the private sector than men\textsuperscript{406, 407}. LFS data shows that the proportion of men who worked in the private sector was higher than the proportion of women for each quarter of the years 2006 to 2016\textsuperscript{408}.

\textsuperscript{403} Data shows that the rate of unemployment increased by 3.2 percentage points for men in April-June 2009 compared to April-June 2008. For women, the increase was 2.0 percentage points between April-June 2008 and April-June 2009.
\textsuperscript{404} NISRA (2016) Quarterly Supplement to the Labour Market Report April – June 2016 Data Tables. \textit{Table QS1.1 Unemployment by sex, 16+}.
\textsuperscript{405} NISRA (2016) Quarterly Supplement to the Labour Market Report April – June 2016 Data Tables. \textit{Table QS1.1 Unemployment by sex, 16+}.
\textsuperscript{407} The Commission’s analysis of LFS data by Quartercommencing in Q1 2012 and ending in Q1 2016.
\textsuperscript{408} In Q1 2006 the private sector employment rate for men was 77.8% compared to 60.7% for women. The private sector employment rate for men in Q1 2016 was 82.0% compared to 61.6% for women.
5.104 The consortium of lesbian, gay, bisexual and transgendered voluntary and community organisations (2016) note that ‘robust research into trans populations needs to be commissioned’ due to a lack of estimates available for the Trans population⁴₀⁹.

5.105 However, it is not just the size of the Trans population that is unknown. Given that data collected does not take into account any gender other than male or female, employment data relating to Trans people is severely lacking. The Commission was unable to find data relating to the employment of Trans people in Northern Ireland. Therefore, it was not possible to identify inequalities with regard to the same.

5.106 Research on the experiences of Trans people in employment is limited in Northern Ireland and subject to very small sample sizes. However, limited research from Northern Ireland, Ireland and across the UK indicates that Trans people face negative attitudes, prejudice and discrimination in the workplace.

5.107 In 2016, an online survey of 410 Lesbian, Gay, Bisexual and Trans (LGBT) people by the Rainbow Project highlighted that “Trans respondents were most likely to report having heard negative comments about LGB&T people from people within the

workplace, most commonly from clients/customers (47.4%) and colleagues (47.4%)”.

In 2013, an Irish survey of 210 Trans people by Transgender Equality Network Ireland (TENI), revealed that the majority of Trans respondents to a survey question on workplace experiences (N=103) reported no negative experience at work (57%). However, “43% of respondents reported experiencing problems in work due to being trans or having a trans history”. Fourteen percent of respondents reported they had “experienced workplace harassment or discrimination”; 9% had “been unfairly fired, dismissed or laid off”; while, a further 9% had “left a job due to harassment or discrimination with no other work to go to”.

The TENI study in the Republic of Ireland was based on a larger-scale UK-based online survey of 889 Trans people across England, Scotland, Wales and Northern Ireland in 2012. The Trans Mental Health Study (2012) found that over half (52%) of Trans respondents to a survey question on workplace experiences (N=557) had negative experiences at work due to their gender identity. For example, 19% of UK respondents had experienced harassment or discrimination at work and 7% had left a job due to harassment or discrimination even though they had no other job to go to.

McNeil et al. (2013) highlighted that experiences of discrimination and prejudice may be a potential contributing factor to the high

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410 O’Doherty J (2016). OUTstanding in your field: Exploring the needs of LGB&T people in rural Northern Ireland. The Rainbow project: Belfast, Page 66
rates of unemployment and low earnings relative to qualifications among Irish survey respondents.

5.111 Both the Trans Mental Health Study (2012) and TENI (2013) study reported that fears of discrimination and harassment presented a barrier to employment. For example, McNeil et al. (2013) reported that 14% of Irish respondents had been “unfairly turned down for a job” and 8% had “not applied for certain jobs due to fears of workplace harassment or discrimination”. Further, 7% of respondents had “not provided references from a previous job because of gender history” and 3% had “declined a job offer due to fears of workplace harassment of discrimination”.

5.112 Similarly, in the UK, McNeil et al. (2012) reported that 18% of respondents believed they had been unfairly turned down for a job; 16% did not apply for a job due to fears of harassment and discrimination and 9% of respondents had “not provided references from a previous job because of gender history”.

5.113 Fears of discrimination and harassment may impact on how open Trans people are about their gender identity at work. McNeil et al. (2012, 2013) found that only 39% of UK respondents said they were open about being Trans at work, while under a quarter (23%) of Irish respondents were open at work.

5.114 The Government Equalities Office (GEO) (2011) conclude from their United Kingdom based transgender survey that the biggest challenge faced by Trans people with regard to employment is ignorance. Additionally, over a third of respondents to the

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424 88% of the surveys 2,100 respondents believed ignorance was a challenge in employment. Gender Equalities Office (2011) Transgender survey #3.
GEO’s survey (2011) felt that ‘ignorance was the biggest problem amongst colleagues and other employees in their organisation’\(^{425}\).

5.115 Research conducted with employers by Metcalf and Rolfe (2011) report that ‘in general, there is substantial ignorance about transgender and hostility towards transgender people’ and that employers are often at a loss as to how to proceed with trans issues in the workplace\(^{426}\).

5.116 Most respondents to the GEO’s survey (2011) cited a lack of gender focused help or assistance to find work, and that they faced a barrier to employment where employers were fearful of how their customers or clients would react toward a Trans employee\(^{427}\). Of those respondents who were in employment, half cited being the victim of harassment or discrimination in their current or previous employment\(^{428}\). In addition, over half of respondents stated that their current or previous workplace did not have a Trans focused employment policy in place\(^{429}\).

5.117 Prejudice and discrimination in relation to career progression may also be an issue for some Trans people. When asked about the impact of being open about their gender identity and/or sexual orientation on career development, most respondents in O’Doherty’s (2016) study did not feel that their gender identity and/or sexual orientation would have an impact on their progression at work. However, “Trans respondents were most likely to report believing that being open about their sexual orientation and/or gender identity would have a negative impact on their workplace progression” (37\%)\(^{430}\).

5.118 Many of the barriers and challenges in employment faced by Trans people can be linked back to negative experiences in education. In 2016, O’Doherty reported that “negative educational experiences for young LGB&T (lesbian, gay, bisexual and transgender) people can have long-reaching

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\(^{427}\) 96\% and 86\%, respectively. Gender Equalities Office (2011) Transgender survey #3.

\(^{428}\) Gender Equalities Office (2011) Transgender survey #3.

\(^{429}\) Gender Equalities Office (2011) Transgender survey #3.

impacts on their mental health, self-esteem and potential employment opportunities.\(^{431}\)

5.119 In 2017, a survey of 270 LGB&T children and young people highlighted that over two thirds (68%) of respondents reported being bullied in school as a result of their sexual orientation and/or gender identity.\(^{432}\) Moreover, O’Doherty (2016) highlighted that the majority of Trans respondents (85.7%) had heard homophobic/transphobic language in school/college with nearly two thirds (60.7%) having heard homophobic/transphobic language “most days” or “every day” (60.7%).\(^{433}\)

5.120 Negative educational experiences can also influence employment opportunities, through its impact on attendance and educational attainment. For example, in 2017, over a third (36%) of LGB&T children and young people report achieving lower exam results, nearly a quarter (25%) reported truancy, 12% had dropped out of school and 11% had changed school as a result of sexual and/or gender identity.\(^{434}\)


# Dependency Status

6.1 In considering dependency status, the draft Statement specifically considers those who are lone parents and those who are Carers.\(^{435}\)

6.2 As reported in our *Statement on Key Inequalities in Housing and Communities*, Russell (2013) notes that both the 2001 and 2011 censuses show that, in Northern Ireland, ‘lone parents are overwhelmingly female’\(^{436, 437}\).

6.3 This gender differential highlights prominently that it is impossible to separate the findings in the gender chapter from the findings presented here. Specifically, that the same barriers to the participation of women in the Northern Ireland labour market are applicable to lone parent women.

6.4 As stated by McQuaid et al. (2013) ‘lone parents experience amplified levels of the general barriers to childcare. Childcare is even less affordable on one income…. Similarly, the logistics of work and childcare are complicated enough with two parents, but when there is only one parent,… it is even harder to find an arrangement that works, especially with more than one child’\(^{438}\).

6.5 Similarly, those who are Carers and provide unpaid care to dependents that are not children are likely to face similar issues in employment to those with childcare responsibilities.

6.6 A total of 214,000 (12%) of people were providing care on Census Day 2011, with 2015 mid-year population estimates indicating that around 218,000 people are Carers; with women constituting a greater share (59%) of those providing unpaid care.

6.7 According to Census 2011, over half of Carers (57%) provide unpaid care for between 1-19 hours per week, 16.5% provide 20-

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\(^{435}\) Census 2011 notes that a “a person is a provider of unpaid care is they give any help or support to family members, friends, neighbours or other because of long-term physical health or disability, or problems related to old age”


\(^{437}\) ECNI (2017) *Statement on Key Inequalities in Housing and Communities in Northern Ireland.* Page 47. ECNI: Belfast

49 hours of unpaid care a week, while 26.3% of Carers provide 50 or more hours unpaid care per work. In addition, when the age profile of Carers is considered, the majority (81%) of Carers are of working age, between 18-64 years old.

**Summary**

6.8 There are inequalities in the participation of lone parents and carers in employment, which are similar to those identified for women in the section on gender. In particular, lone parents with dependents experience barriers to their participation in employment, with a lower employment rate and a higher economic inactivity rate, particularly for women who constitute the majority of lone parents.

6.9 The cost and availability of childcare is a factor influencing participation in the workplace, however, barriers are further compounded for lone parents who have sole responsibility for the financial and physical care of their child. Lone parents also face a psychological barrier to childcare given their responsibility as sole caregiver for the child.

6.10 In addition, carers experience barriers to participating in employment, which increase with the volume of care provided. Carers who provide more than 20 hours of care per week are less likely to be in employment and more likely to be economically active than those who do not provide care.

6.11 For carers, a lack of flexibility in the workplace to enable them to manage caring responsibilities and a lack of suitable care services are major barriers to participation. However, attitudinal barriers to carers from employers and work colleagues also represent a barrier to employment.

6.12 There are inequalities in the sustainability of employment for lone parents and carers in employment, which are similar to those identified for women in the section on gender. Lone parents experience occupational segregation in employment. Lone parents are over-represented in occupations that are lower status and lower paid, such as ‘Sales and Customer’ occupations (in 2006 and 2012) and ‘Personal Service’ occupations (in 2012-2016).

6.13 Similar to the experiences of women, caregiving has been identified as one factor influencing occupational segregation with
lone parents choosing occupations, which allow sufficient flexibility to balance the demands of caregiving. This may have a potential impact on the sustainability of a lone parent’s employment, with lone parents having to consider pay and career progression with flexibility in employment.

6.14 Similarly, there are also inequalities in the sustainability of a lone parent’s employment, associated with part-time working. Lone parents with dependents are more likely to be in employment on a part-time basis than those with no dependents or couples with dependents. This is another means by which lone parents can balance employment with childcare, however, as identified with women; it can negatively impact on progression in employment. As identified in the section on gender, working part-time may place a lone parent at risk of low pay and precarious employment, as many part-time jobs are typically associated with the minimum wage and atypical contracts.

6.15 There are inequalities in the sustainability of carer’s employment, associated with part-time working. Carers who provide less than 49 hours of unpaid care are more likely to work part-time than those who do not provide care. Similar to lone parents, this is a means by which carers can balance employment with caring responsibilities. However, it can negatively impact on career progression, with many carers taking a less qualified, lower paid job or turning down promotion to care.

6.16 Given that the structural barriers to employment faced by both women and/or lone parents, are often primarily due to their caregiving role, it should be noted that, addressing these barriers to labour market participation for women will also address those experienced by lone parents.

Key Inequalities – Lone Parents

Key Inequality

Lone parents with dependents experience barriers to their participation in employment.

6.17 Raeside et al. (2014) found that in 2006 and 2012 lone parents had the lowest rates of employment compared to each of the

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other dependency status groups considered. The gap between lone parents with dependent children and those who were married or co-habiting with dependent children increased slightly in 2012 compared to 2006, whereas the gap between lone parents with dependent children and those with no dependent children remained stable.

The Commission found that this trend continued between 2012 and 2016. LFS data over the period 2012 to 2016 evidenced consistently lower rates of employment for lone parents with dependent children than either those who were married or co-habiting with dependent children or those with no dependent children.

The gap between those who were married or co-habiting with dependent children and lone parents with dependent children decreased over the period but remained substantial at 24.4 percentage points in 2016. Likewise, the gap between those who had no dependent children and lone parents with dependent children decreased, to a lesser extent, between 2012 and 2016 but remained substantial at 19.5 percentage points in 2016.

As reported in our statement on Key Inequalities in Housing and Communities, Russell (2013) notes that both the 2001 and 2011 censuses show that, in Northern Ireland, ‘lone parents are overwhelmingly female’. This finding is also reflected in the LFS data as the Commission found that the number of lone parent men with dependent children were too low to analyse.

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440 Raeside et al. (2014) reported the rates of employment for those who were married or co-habiting with dependent children to be 70.4% in Q1 2006 and 74.3% in Q1 2012 compared to 45.4% and 41.7%, respectively for lone parents; resulting in a gap of 25.0 percentage points in 2006 and 32.6 percentage points in 2012.

441 Raeside et al. (2014) reported the rates of employment for those with no dependent children to be 72.6% in Q1 2006 and 70.9% in Q1 2012; a gap of 27.2 percentage points in Q1 2006 and 29.2 percentage points in Q1 2012 when compared to lone parents with dependent children.

442 Those who were married or co-habiting with dependent children maintained the following rates of employment: 74.3% in Q1 2012; 71.5% in Q1 2013; 72.5% in Q1 2014; 73.3% in Q1 2015; and, 74.4% in Q1 2016. This was compared to the following rates for lone parents with dependent children: 41.8% in Q1 2012; 49.2% in Q1 2013; 45.6% in Q1 2014; 46.7% in Q1 2015; and, 50.0% in Q1 2016.

443 Those with no dependent children maintained the following rates of employment: 67.1% in Q1 2012; 66.3% in Q1 2013; 68.7% in Q1 2014; 68.6% in Q1 2015; and, 69.5% in Q1 2016.


446 The number of lone parent men with dependent children did not meet the 8,000 threshold set by NISRA at most time points between 2012 and 2016.
Whilst the low numbers of lone parent men prohibited any analysis on this basis, the other marital status categories were well represented for each gender, including lone parent women. The Commission found that, at each time point between 2012 and 2016, lone parent women had the lowest rates of employment of all groups. Only around half of lone parent women\textsuperscript{447} were in employment between 2012 and 2016, compared to over three fifths (over 60\%) of women\textsuperscript{448} with no dependents, men\textsuperscript{449} with no dependents, and women who were married or co-habiting with dependents\textsuperscript{450}. In comparison, over three quarters (over 75\%) of men who were married or co-habiting with dependents were in employment\textsuperscript{451}.

\begin{inferencebox}
Lone parents with dependent children are more likely to be economically inactive.
\end{inferencebox}

The lower employment rate of lone parents with dependent children is supported by the identification of a higher rate of economic inactivity for lone parents.

Both Raeside \textit{et al.} (2014)\textsuperscript{452} and the Commission, through analysis of LFS data over the periods 2006 to 2012 and 2012 to 2016\textsuperscript{453} found that lone parents with dependent children have much higher rates of economic inactivity than those who have no dependents and those who are married or co-habiting with dependent children.

\textsuperscript{447} The rates of employment for lone parent women were: 47.8\% in Q1 2012; 51.0\% in Q1 2013; 49.0\% in Q1 2014; 49.2\% in Q1 2015; and, 51.2\% in Q1 2016.

\textsuperscript{448} The rates of employment for women with no dependent children were: 65.4\% in Q1 2012; 67.2\% in Q1 2013; 67.4\% in Q1 2014; 64.8\% in Q1 2015; and, 64.2\% in Q1 2016.

\textsuperscript{449} The rates of employment for men with no dependent children were: 68.6\% in Q1 2012; 65.4\% in Q1 2013; 69.8\% in Q1 2014; 72.0\% in Q1 2015; and, 74.2\% in Q1 2016.

\textsuperscript{450} The rates of employment for women who were married or co-habiting with dependent children were: 67.9\% in Q1 2012; 63.4\% in Q1 2013; 67.23\% in Q1 2014; 68.5\% in Q1 2015; and, 68.9\% in Q1 2016.

\textsuperscript{451} The rates of employment for men who were married or co-habiting with dependent children were: 80.3\% in Q1 2012; 78.9\% in Q1 2013; 77.3\% in Q1 2014; 77.6\% in Q1 2015; and, 79.1\% in Q1 2016.


\textsuperscript{453} Raeside \textit{et al.}'s (2014) analysis focused on data over the period 2006 to 2012 whilst the Commission's focused on data over the period 2012 to 2016.
6.24 Raeside et al. (2014) found that in 2006 and 2012 the economic inactivity rates for lone parents with dependent children\(^{454}\) were around twice that of those who were married or co-habiting with dependent children\(^{455}\) and those who had no dependent children\(^{456, 457}\).

6.25 Similarly, the Commission found that, between 2012 and 2016, economic inactivity rates for lone parents with dependent children\(^{458}\) were around twice that of those who were married or co-habiting with dependent children\(^{459}\) and those who had no dependent children\(^{460}\).

6.26 McQuaid et al. (2013) note that, in addition to the childcare barriers most notably experienced by women in the Northern Ireland labour market, lone parents also have ‘a psychological barrier to using childcare… [given their] sole responsibility for a child’\(^{461}\).

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**Key Inequality**

Lone parents with dependents are more likely to be in employment on a part-time basis

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6.27 Raeside et al. (2014) found that lone parents with dependent children were more likely to work part time than the other dependency groups\(^{462}\). For example, between 2006 and 2012, Raeside et al. (2014) reported that over half (51.1\%) of lone

\(^{454}\) 49.6\% of lone parents with dependent children were economically inactive in Q1 2006 compared to 51.1\% in Q1 2012.

\(^{455}\) 27.5\% of those who were married or co-habiting with dependent children were economically inactive in Q1 2006 compared to 22.7\% in Q1 2012.

\(^{456}\) 23.7\% of those who had no dependent children were economically inactive in Q1 2006 compared to 22.6\% in Q1 2012.


\(^{458}\) The rates for lone parents with dependent children were: 51.0\% in Q1 2012; 43.9\% in Q1 2013; 44.9\% in Q1 2014; 44.1\% in Q1 2015; and, 43.4\% in Q1 2016.

\(^{459}\) The rates for those who were married or co-habiting with dependent children were: 22.7\% in Q1 2012; 24.9\% in Q1 2013; 22.9\% in Q1 2014; 23.8\% in Q1 2015; and, 22.7\% in Q1 2016.

\(^{460}\) The rates for those had no dependent children were: 26.9\% in Q1 2012; 26.4\% in Q1 2013; 26.2\% in Q1 2014; 26.2\% in Q1 2015; and, 24.9\% in Q1 2016.


parents with dependent children were in part-time employment, compared to around a quarter (24.1%) of married or co-habiting parents with dependent children and 15.2% of those with no dependent children\textsuperscript{463}.

\textbf{Key Inequality}

\textbf{Lone parents with dependent children experience occupational segregation in employment}

6.28 The Commission’s analysis of LFS data over the period 2012 to 2016 also found that lone parents with dependent children had the highest rates of part-time employment. Between 2012 and 2016 around half to three fifths (50%-60%) of lone parents with dependent children were in part-time employment\textsuperscript{464} compared to around a quarter (25%) of those who were married or co-habiting with dependent children and a fifth (20%)\textsuperscript{465} for those who had no dependent children\textsuperscript{466}.

6.29 Raeside \textit{et al.} (2014) identified that lone parents with dependent children were more likely to be employed in the ‘Sales and Customer Service’ occupations in 2006 and the ‘Administrative and Secretarial’ occupations in 2012\textsuperscript{467}. The Commission however, found that, between 2012 and 2016 the representation of lone parents with dependent children was too low at many time points in these sectors to report upon.

6.30 The Commission did identify occupational segregation for lone parents with dependent children between 2012 and 2016, but the occupation sectors were different to those identified by Raeside \textit{et al.} (2014). Through its analysis of LFS data over the period 2012


\textsuperscript{464} For example, in Q1 2012 51.1% of lone parents with dependent children were in part-time employment, this was compared to: 53.2% in Q1 2013; 56.2% in Q1 2014; 53.4% in Q1 2015; and, 63.3% in Q1 2016.

\textsuperscript{465} For example, in Q1 2012 26.1% of those who were married or co-habiting with dependent children were in part-time employment, this was compared to: 26.3% in Q1 2013; 23.3% in Q1 2014; 22.8% in Q1 2015; and, 24.1% in Q1 2016.

\textsuperscript{466} For example, in Q1 2012 18.6% of those who had no dependent children were in part-time employment, this was compared to: 20.2% in Q1 2013; 21.0% in Q1 2014; 18.0% in Q1 2015; and, 17.1% in Q1 2016.

to 2016, the Commission found that lone parents with dependent children were mostly employed in two occupation sectors: ‘Personal Service Occupations’ and ‘Elementary Occupations’. In all other sectors, the representation of lone parents with dependent children in the LFS was too low to report upon.

6.31 The 2011 Census shows that, if employment patterns in Northern Ireland were to be reflective of the population, those in ‘lone couple families’ would account for 5.9% of those in employment. In comparison, those in a ‘couple family’ accounted for 79.5% of those in employment, whilst those ‘not in a family’ accounted for 14.6% of those in employment.

6.32 The Commission found that, in each year between 2012 and 2016, compared to their proportionate share of the employed population, lone parents with dependent children were overrepresented in ‘Personal Service Occupations’; a small overrepresentation was also possible in ‘Elementary Occupations’, however, the percentage point difference was not great enough to make any clear inferences.

Key Inequalities – Carers

Key Inequality

Carers experience barriers to participating in employment.

6.33 The Commission noted that Labour Force Statistics data does not include unpaid care as a variable. Therefore, no analysis of LFS data was possible with regard to carer status and employment.

468 In Q1 2012 23.2% of lone parent employees were employed in the ‘Personal Service Occupations’, this was compared to: 23.2% in Q1 2013; 22.5% in Q1 2014; 20.2% in Q1 2015; and, 17.1% in Q1 2016.
469 In Q1 2013 21.4% of lone parent employees were employed in the ‘Elementary Occupations’, this was compared to: 18.0% in Q1 2014; 18.6% in Q1 2015; and, 15.0% in Q1 2016.
470 Equated to lone parents with dependent children.
471 Equated to those who were married or co-habiting with dependent children.
472 That is, those with no dependent children.
473 Census Table T58: Theme table on economic activity. This census table considers those aged 16 years old to pensionable age.
474 In Q1 2012 lone parents with dependent children made up 13.9% of the workforce, this was compared to 15.2% in Q1 2013; 13.3% in Q1 2014; 12.7% in Q1 2015; and, 12.6% in Q1 2016.
However, the Commission considered Census 2011 data on employment and unpaid care.

6.34 The Commission’s analysis of Census 2011 data revealed that those who provide more than 20 hours of unpaid care were proportionately less likely to be in employment than those who did not provide unpaid care. On Census day 2011, 54.8% of carers who provided 20-49 hours per week of unpaid care and 36.8% of those who provided more than 50 hours per week of unpaid care were in employment compared to 68.2% of those who were not carers.\(^{475}\)

6.35 Evidence from the NILTS 2015 supports the finding that those who provided the greatest volumes of care in hours per week were less likely to be in employment. Devine and Gray (2016) found that “just under one half of carers taking part in the 2015 NILT survey were in work (46%) and they were less likely than other carers to provide care for at least 35 hours per week.”\(^{476}\)

6.36 UK-based research conducted by Carers UK (2016)\(^{477}\) has revealed that carers face considerable barriers to employment that impact on their ability to participate in employment. According to the State of Caring 2016 survey, ‘many working carers find they go months or even years without a real break’\(^{478}\). The majority (70%) of working carers in the survey had used their annual leave to care and almost half (48%) had used overtime to make up hours spent caring. In addition, many working carers face a lack of understanding from colleagues and managers.\(^{479}\) In addition, research by Jopling (2016) has highlighted that many carers want to remain in work for financial, health and wellbeing reasons. However, they faced barriers such as a lack of flexibility in the workplace and attitudinal barriers. These strains resulted in

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\(^{475}\)See Census 2011: Table DC3302NI: Economic Activity by General Health by Provision of Unpaid Care by Sex. Interestingly, carers who provided 1-19 hours per week of unpaid care were proportionately more likely to be in employment (73.4%) compared to those who were not Carers (68.2%).


some carers giving up work, resulting in negative impacts on their finances, health and wellbeing\textsuperscript{480}.

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**Inequality**

Carers who provide greater than 20 hours unpaid care are more likely to be economically inactive.

6.37 The lower employment rate of carers is supported by the identification of a higher rate of economic inactivity for carers.

6.38 The Commission’s analysis of Census 2011 data revealed those who provide more than 20 hours of unpaid care were proportionately more likely to be economically active than those who did not provide unpaid care. On Census day 2011, 40.0\% of carers who provided 20-49 hours per week of unpaid care and 60.1\% of those who provided more than 50 hours per week of unpaid care were economically inactive compared to 33.5\% of those who were not carers\textsuperscript{481}.

6.39 In addition, according to Census 2011, carers who provided 1-19 hours of care per week (4.1\%), 20-49 hours of care per week (13.9\%) and more than 50 hours of care per week (21.7\%) were more likely to say they were economically inactive due to family and home commitments compared to those who did not provide unpaid care (3.4\%)\textsuperscript{482}.

6.40 According to the State of Caring 2016 survey\textsuperscript{483}, half (49\%) of carers who responded to their survey had given up work due to care. Of those that gave up work, retired early or reduced working hours, 69\% said the stress of juggling work and care was a contributing factor, 31\% said it was because there was no suitable care services, 21\% said care services were too expensive, 16\% said that annual leave was insufficient to juggle


\textsuperscript{481} See Census 2011: Table DC3302NI: Economic Activity by General Health by Provision of Unpaid Care by Sex. Interestingly, carers who provided 1-19 hours per week of unpaid care were proportionately less likely to be economically inactive (23.0\%) compared to those who were not Carers (33.5\%).

\textsuperscript{482} See Census 2011: Table DC3302NI: Economic Activity by General Health by Provision of Unpaid Care by Sex.

caring and working and, 18% were unable to negotiate suitable working hours\textsuperscript{484}.

### Key Inequality

Carers who provide less than 49 hours of unpaid care are more likely to work part-time employment.

6.41 The Commission’s analysis of Census 2011 data revealed those who provide less than 49 hours of unpaid care were proportionately more likely to work part-time than those who did not provide unpaid care. On Census day 2011, 18.3% of those who provided 1-19 hours care per week and 15.3% of carers who provided 20-49 hours care per week worked part-time compared to 12.6% of those who were not carers\textsuperscript{485}.

6.42 The State of Caring 2016 survey found that among carers in paid work, half (50%) had reduced their hours to care, while 39% had taken a less qualified job or turned down a promotion\textsuperscript{486}. According to Carers UK ‘among those currently juggling work and care, many have already taken steps to reduce paid work and will have limited choices if their caring responsibilities increase\textsuperscript{487}.

\textsuperscript{485} See Census 2011: Table DC3302NI: Economic Activity by General Health by Provision of Unpaid Care by Sex. Carers who provided over 50 hours per week of unpaid care were proportionately less likely to work full-time and part-time (18.1% and 12.2%) compared to those who were not Carers (36.0% and 12.6% respectively).
\textsuperscript{486} See Census 2011: Table DC3302NI: Economic Activity by General Health by Provision of Unpaid Care by Sex.
7 Ethnicity

7.1 The Commission’s consideration of 2011 Census data found that the vast majority of those in Northern Ireland were White, with very small representations of: Irish Travellers; Asian; Black; Mixed; or, Other groups. In addition, migrant workers from the A2 and A8 European Union Accession countries represented 2.1% of population.

7.2 However, Irwin et al. (2014) caution that Census data, whilst ‘the most accurate dataset available on ethnic minorities in Northern Ireland … is still likely to be an underestimation of the numbers of ethnic minority population’.

7.3 For example, the Census 2011 cites the number of Irish Travellers in 2011 to be 1,301, 754 of whom were aged between 16 and 74 years old. However, estimates from the All Ireland Traveller Health Study (2010) cite the number to be 3,905 Irish Travellers, living in 1,562 families. Scullion and Rogers (2014) believe that the differences in estimates of the Irish Traveller population ‘arise from the Census only counting those who self-identified or those whom the methodology ascertained to be Travellers’. Regardless of the reasoning, it is fair to surmise that the true size of the Irish Traveller population in Northern Ireland is unknown.

7.4 Whilst the Labour Force Survey (LFS) includes data on different ethnic groups, the numbers of those in minority ethnic groups in Northern Ireland are at such a low level that an analysis may not be reliably undertaken at an individual group level. In addition,
the LFS does not include an ethnicity category of Irish Traveller. To this end, no LFS data could be analysed with regard to Irish Travellers.

7.5 As a consequence of low, or unknown numbers, little data is available on minority ethnic groups with regard to employment in Northern Ireland. As a result, this draft Statement attempts to draw conclusions from the Census 2011 data and research literature by utilising the following minority ethnic groupings: Irish Travellers; White; Asian; Black; Mixed; and, Other. With regard to LFS data, where possible, data will be analysed by the following minority ethnic groupings, which take account of country of origin/birth: UK and Ireland; Eastern European; and, Others.

Summary

7.6 Irish Travellers face considerable barriers to participation in employment. **Irish Travellers are less likely to be in employment than all other ethnic groups** and are more likely to be economically inactive than all other ethnic groups. Traveller women, in particular, are less likely to participate in employment and are more likely to be economically inactive than Traveller men and women from all other ethnic groups.

7.7 Low educational attainment, prejudice and discrimination in the labour market, a greater traditional emphasis on family and home, and cultural resistance to the use of formal childcare are all major barriers to the participation of Irish Travellers in employment.

7.8 Migrant workers face considerable barriers to sustaining employment and progressing in employment. **Migrant workers, particularly those from Eastern European countries, are subject to industrial and occupational segregation**, with migrant workers over-represented in low paid, low status jobs, and in low-paid industry sectors.

7.9 **Migrant workers are vulnerable to exploitation**, which can impact on their ability to sustain employment and progress in employment. Many migrant workers who are agency workers are confined to temporary and irregular work, including zero-hour contracts. Many face poorer terms and conditions than local workers and are vulnerable to poor employment practices. In addition, human trafficking is an issue in Northern Ireland, with evidence of practices that constitute forced labour of migrant workers.
7.10 Migrant workers and refugees face multiple barriers to employment in Northern Ireland. Recognition of qualifications is an issue for migrant workers and refugees progressing in employment. In addition, inadequate language proficiency is a major barrier for migrant workers qualifying for and participating in employment, particularly where the standard of English proficiency for particular professions is set very high.

7.11 Uncertainty among employers about an employee’s ‘right to work” may create perceived legislative barriers for foreign nationals accessing and sustaining employment in Northern Ireland. In addition, the long transition period between seeking and being granted asylum, represents a long time out of employment, which can deskill refugees. This can create a lack of confidence and may require them to retrain or gain new skills prior to seeking employment.

7.12 People from minority ethnic groups and migrant workers are subject to prejudice and discrimination both within and outside the workplace, with prejudicial attitudes expressed toward Irish Travellers, migrant workers and minority ethnic groups. Racial prejudice and discrimination can impact on the ability of minority ethnic groups and migrant workers to participate in employment, stay in employment and progress in employment. Racial prejudice has been identified in accessing employment and in experiences of racial harassment and intimidation in workplaces.

Key Inequalities

Key Inequality

Irish Travellers are less likely to be in employment than all other ethnic groups.

7.13 Raeside et al. (2014) reported that, whist empirical data is lacking, the ‘picture presented from the literature and interests groups is that Irish Travellers have much lower employment... rates than those classed in any other group.\(^496\)

7.14 The Commission undertook an analysis of Census 2011 data. This analysis showed that, at the time of the Census, Irish Travellers had the lowest employment rates of all minority ethnic groups considered\(^\text{497}\). The data showed that only a fifth of Irish Travellers counted in the Census were in employment compared to over half of all other minority ethnic groups\(^\text{498, 499}\).

7.15 When gender was considered, the Commission found that both Irish Traveller man and women experienced low employment rates, although Irish Traveller women had lower employment rates (16.0%) than Irish Traveller men (24.1%).

7.16 Irish Traveller men had lower employment rates than men in other minority ethnic groups; with the gap ranging from 30.4 to 45.1 percentage points\(^\text{500}\). Likewise, Irish Traveller women also had lower employment rates than women in other minority ethnic groups; the gap here ranged from 36.0 to 42.5 percentage points\(^\text{501}\).

7.17 Irwin et al. (2014) reported that one of the ‘key barriers experienced by Travellers were reported to be perceived discriminatory attitudes from employers, preventing them [from] gaining meaningful employment’\(^\text{502}\).

7.18 These discriminatory attitudes can be formed from an Irish Traveller’s ‘accent, address and name’\(^\text{503}\). For example, Cemlyn et al. (2009) reported that ‘evidence from across the UK indicates that Gypsies and Travellers who live on a site, or who are known to be members of local Gypsy or Traveller families, encounter discrimination when applying for paid work’\(^\text{504}\). Cemlyn et al.

\(^{497}\) Minority ethnic groups considered were: White; Irish Traveller; Asian; Black; Mixed; and, Other.

\(^{498}\) 20.0% of Irish Travellers were employed compared to: 57.6% of White; 64.0% of Asian; 56.7% of Black; 54.4% of Mixed; and, 58.5% of Other ethnic groups.

\(^{499}\) Census Table DC2601NI: Economic Activity by Ethnic Group by Age by Sex.

\(^{500}\) Men in each ethnic group had the following employment rates: 61.1% for White; 24.1% for Irish Travellers; 69.2% for Asian; 58.6% for Black; 54.5% for Mixed; and, 62.2% for Other ethnic groups.

\(^{501}\) Women in each ethnic group had the following employment rates: 54.2% for White; 16.0% for Irish Travellers; 58.5% for Asian; 53.9% for Black; 54.2% for Mixed; and, 52.0% for Other ethnic groups.


\(^{503}\) British-Irish Parliamentary Assembly (2014) Report from Committee D (Environmental and Social) on Travellers, Gypsies and Roma: access to public services and community relations. Page 4.

(2009) also note that ‘examples abound of people not being called for interviews or of jobs being mysteriously filled’

7.19 A further barrier highlighted by Irwin et al. (2014) was that nearly seven tenths of Irish Travellers captured in the Northern Ireland Census 2011 did not have any qualifications. Michael (2016) also believes that the low levels of employment for Irish Travellers may be partially explained by the lack of qualifications.

7.20 Cemlyn et al. (2009) posit that the reason many Irish Travellers do not have qualifications is due to ‘leaving school at a young age, and/or illiteracy or cultural resistance to secondary education’.

7.21 However, even when an Irish Traveller has the requisite qualifications for a job ‘biased attitudes from employers towards Travellers … block and deter Travellers from even applying’. Therefore, when one barrier has been overcome the other may still exist to a degree, which limits participation in the labour market.

7.22 Michael (2016) found that the low rate of employment among Irish Travellers is also partially due to a preference for self-employment. This is supported by an Irish study undertaken by Cooney (2009). Cooney (2009) found that ‘in the face of discrimination in accessing the waged labour market, many Travellers have turned to self-employment as a solution to achieving an income that will sustain themselves and their families’.

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506 67.8% of Irish Travellers in the Census 2011 did not have qualifications. Irwin, J., McAreavey, R. and Murphy, N. (2014) The economic and social mobility of ethnic minority communities in Northern Ireland.
Additionally, both Greenfields (2006) and Cemlyn et al. (2009) indicate that the little evidence that is available on Irish Travellers and employment, points toward a preference for self-employment. This is particularly prevalent amongst Irish Traveller men. Cemlyn et al. (2009) further state that this self-employment is ‘often associated with working in family groups and undertaking employment such as gardening, scrapping metal, building and market trading’.

However, as Cemlyn et al. (2009) reports, self-employment has its own barriers. Cemlyn et al. (2010) found Irish Travellers who are self-employed face a barrier in the form of obtaining official permits to work from the site on which they reside. They note that, whilst many site owners turn a blind eye or Irish Travellers may break the rules ‘unofficial arrangements means that individuals who breach tenancy agreements endanger themselves and their families’ security if site owners should choose to enforce the regulations’.

The lower employment rate of Irish Travellers is supported by the identification of a higher rate of economic inactivity for Travellers. Irish Travellers were more likely to be economically inactive and less likely to be in employment than: White; Asian; Black; Mixed; and, Other ethnic groups. In addition, Traveller women were more likely to be economically inactive than women from all other ethnic groups.

Raeside et al. (2014) reported that, compared to any other group Irish Travellers have the highest rates of economic

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The Commission’s analysis of the Census 2011 showed that, at the time of the Census, Irish Travellers had the highest economic inactivity rates of all minority ethnic groups considered.

7.27 Whilst 69.0% of Irish Travellers were considered economically inactive, only a third (33.9%) of White and less than a third of: Asian; Black; Mixed; or, Other\textsuperscript{519} ethnic groups were economically inactive at the time of the Census\textsuperscript{520}.

7.28 The reasons Irish Travellers gave for economic inactivity in order of prominence were: long-term sick or disabled; other; looking after the home or family; being retired; and, being a student\textsuperscript{521, 522}.

7.29 Irwin \textit{et al}. (2014) identified that for Irish Travellers ‘barriers to labour market participation were also present through lack of networks and unfamiliarity with formal recruitment application processes’\textsuperscript{523}.

Irish Traveller women are more likely to be economically inactive than women from: White; Asian; Black; Mixed; and, Other ethnic groups.

7.30 The Commission’s analysis of Census 2011 data found that, when women in each ethnic group were considered, Irish Traveller women had much higher rates of economic inactivity than women from the other ethnic groups considered.

7.31 At the time of the Census 2011, over three quarters (77.9%) of Irish Traveller women were economically inactive compared to


\textsuperscript{519} At the time of the Census 2011: 27.8\% of Asian; 26.3\% of Black; 29.8\% of Mixed; and, 28.3\% of Other ethnic groups were economically inactive.

\textsuperscript{520} Census Table DC2601NI: Economic Activity by Ethnic Group by Age by Sex.

\textsuperscript{521} 32.1\% were long-term sick or disabled; 27.7\% cited other reasons; 24.2\% cited looking after the home or family; 8.1\% cited being retired; and, 7.9\% cited being a student as the reason for being economically inactive at the time of the Census 2011.

\textsuperscript{522} Census Table DC2601NI: Economic Activity by Ethnic Group by Age by Sex.

around or just over a third of women in all other ethnic groups. The gap between rates of economic inactivity for Irish Traveller women and women in other ethnic groups ranged from 39.2 percentage points to 47.2 percentage points.

7.32 Cooney (2009) cites that a study by Daly (2007) highlights a cultural barrier faced by Irish Traveller women within their own community where they ‘may be ridiculed for stepping outside of their usual role’.

7.33 Cemlyn et al. (2009) found that, for Irish Traveller women, ‘family and home are at the centre of their value system’, which might explain why ‘a high percentage of women do not work outside the home, or may work only until they are married and children are born’. In this community, ‘men are primarily responsible for supporting their family financially and practically… and women take a cultural resistance to using childcare in Traveller… cultures, which had little tradition of using formal care and/or female employment’.

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524 Women in each ethnic group had the following economic inactivity rates: 38.7% for White; 77.9% for Irish Travellers; 33.2% for Asian; 32.2% for Black; 30.7% for Mixed; and, 35.6% for Other ethnic groups.

525 Gaps in economic activity rates between Travellers and other ethnic groups were: 39.2 percentage points for White; 44.7 percentage points for Asian; 45.7 percentage points for Black; 47.2 percentage points for Mixed; and 42.3 percentage points for Other ethnic groups.

526 Census Table DC2601NI: Economic Activity by Ethnic Group by Age by Sex.


Migrant workers, particularly those from Eastern European countries, are subject to industrial and occupational segregation.

7.35 Migrant workers, particularly those from Eastern European countries, are over-represented in lower paid industry sectors and/or in low paid occupations.

Inequality

Migrant workers, particularly those from Eastern European countries are over-represented in some industries and under-represented in others.

7.36 Raeside et al. (2014) noted that, in both 2006 and 2012, the Eastern European workforce experienced industrial segregation. The Commission noted that this had changed little between 2012 and 2016.

7.37 Raeside et al. (2014) looked at data from two time points: 2006 and 2012, whilst the Commission’s LFS analysis, covered each year between 2012 and 2016. Raeside et al. (2014) found that Eastern European workers were mainly employed in the industry sector of ‘Manufacturing’ in both 2006 and 2012.

7.38 The Commission also found that Eastern European workers were mainly employed in one of two industry sectors in each year between 2012 and 2016. In both 2012 and 2015, Eastern

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533 Migrants from A8 and A2 EU countries
536 Raeside et al. (2014) compared LFS data for industry and occupation sectors for two time points – Q1 2012 and Q1 2016.
537 It should be noted that the Commission only looked at industry sectors which contained over 8,000 Eastern European employees, as found in Labour Force Survey statistics. This ensured that the 8,000 threshold for reporting as set by NISRA was adhered to.
539 Migrants from A8 and A2 EU countries
Europeans were mainly employed in the ‘Manufacturing’ industry sector. This changed in 2013 and 2016 to the ‘Distribution, Hotels and Restaurants’ industry sector. In all other industry sectors, between 2012 and 2016 the numbers of Eastern Europeans were too low to report.

7.39 The 2011 Census shows that, if employment patterns in Northern Ireland were to be reflective of the population, members of the European Union Accession countries from 2004 onwards would account for only 2.1% of those aged 18 years old or older in Northern Ireland, compared to 95.1% of those from the UK and Ireland.

7.40 The Commission found that, in both 2012 and 2015, those from Eastern Europe were overrepresented according to their share of the population in the ‘Manufacturing’ industry sector. This overrepresentation in ‘Manufacturing’ was at a level six to seven times that of their representation within the Northern Ireland population. In addition, in 2013 and 2016, Eastern European workers were overrepresented in the ‘Distribution, Hotels and Restaurants’ industry sector at a level of around three times that of their representation within the Northern Ireland population.

7.41 That Eastern European workers are often to be found in ‘lower paying sectors of employment’ is not a new finding. For example, Irwin et al. (2014) found that ‘lower and less skilled sectors of employment, e.g. [the] hospitality sector and meat/food

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540 In Q1 2012 51.0% of Eastern Europeans were employed in the ‘Manufacturing’ industry sector, this decreased to 45.5% in Q1 2015.
541 In Q1 2013 36.6% of Eastern Europeans were employed in the ‘Distribution, Hotels and Restaurants’ industry sector, this decreased to 28.0% in Q1 2015.
542 They did not meet the 8,000 threshold set by NISRA.
543 Whilst the LFS category is ‘Eastern Europe’ for country of birth the most comparable data from the Census 2011 is from EU Accession countries from 2004 onwards. However, this does not only include Eastern European countries but also Cyprus and Malta. Census Table CT0116NI: Country of Birth by Age by Sex.
544 i.e. over 2.1% of jobs in the ‘Manufacturing’ industry sector were undertaken by those from Eastern Europe.
545 In 2012 13.3% of those employed in the ‘Manufacturing’ industry sector were from Eastern Europe, this increased to 15.2% in 2015.
546 In 2013 6.1% of those employed in the ‘Distribution, Hotels and Restaurants’ industry sector were from Eastern Europe, this remained fairly constant at 5.8% in 2016.
processing, displayed high rates of employment of the Eastern European… communities.  

7.42 In addition, Bell et al. (2009) found that migrant worker respondents to their survey were most commonly employed in the ‘Manufacturing’ industry sector, ‘followed by accommodation and food services activities’.  

7.43 Irwin et al. (2014) posited that a possible causal factor for the employment of Eastern European workers in lower paid sectors is that ‘many migrants to Northern Ireland moved in the wake of labour market motability arising from globalisation’ and therefore took up jobs in sectors that needed employees.  

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**Inequality**

Migrant workers, particularly those from Eastern European countries are over-represented in some occupations and under-represented in others.

7.44 Raeside et al. (2014) noted that, in both 2006 and 2012, the Eastern European workforce experienced occupational segregation. The Commission noted, from its analysis of LFS data, that this changed little between 2012 and 2016.  

7.45 The Commission found that Eastern European workers were mainly employed in two industry sectors between 2012 and...
In 2012, Eastern European workers were most often employed in ‘Process, Plant and Machine Operatives’ occupations, this changed to ‘Elementary Occupations’ in 2013. In both 2015 and 2016 Eastern European workers were mainly employed in both ‘Process, Plant and Machine Operatives’ occupations and ‘Elementary Occupations’. In all other occupation sectors, between 2012 and 2016 the numbers of Eastern European represented in the LFS were too low to report upon.

The 2011 Census shows that, if employment patterns in Northern Ireland were to be reflective of the population, members of the European Union Accession countries from 2004 onwards would account for only 2.1% of those aged 18 years old or older in Northern Ireland, compared to 95.1% of those from the UK and Ireland.

The Commission found that, in 2012, 2015 and 2016, those from Eastern Europe were overrepresented according to their share of the population in the ‘Process, Plant and Machine Operatives’ occupation sector. This overrepresentation in ‘Process, Plant and Machine Operatives’ occupations was at a level seven to eight times that of their representation within the Northern Ireland population. In addition, in 2013, 2015 and 2016, Eastern European workers were overrepresented in the ‘Elementary Operations’ occupation sector.

7.46 The 2011 Census shows that, if employment patterns in Northern Ireland were to be reflective of the population, members of the European Union Accession countries from 2004 onwards would account for only 2.1% of those aged 18 years old or older in Northern Ireland, compared to 95.1% of those from the UK and Ireland.

7.47 The Commission found that, in 2012, 2015 and 2016, those from Eastern Europe were overrepresented according to their share of the population in the ‘Process, Plant and Machine Operatives’ occupation sector. This overrepresentation in ‘Process, Plant and Machine Operatives’ occupations was at a level seven to eight times that of their representation within the Northern Ireland population. In addition, in 2013, 2015 and 2016, Eastern European workers were overrepresented in the ‘Elementary Operations’ occupation sector.

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555 It was only in these two occupation sectors that Eastern European workers were consistently represented by over 8,000 in the LFS sample.
556 In 2012 35.7% of Eastern European workers were employed in ‘Process, Plant and Machine Operatives’ occupations.
557 In 2013 40.0% of Eastern European workers were employed in ‘Elementary Occupations’.
558 In 2014, the sample size was too small for each occupation sector i.e. it was below the 8,000 threshold set by NISRA.
559 In 2015 34.8% of Eastern European workers were employed in ‘Process, Plant and Machine Operatives’ occupations, this reduced to 24.6% in 2016.
560 In 2015 28.2% of Eastern European workers were employed in ‘Elementary Occupations’, this increased to 34.7% in 2016.
561 They did not meet the 8,000 threshold set by NISRA.
562 Whilst the LFS category is ‘Eastern Europe’ for country of birth the most comparable data from the Census 2011 is from EU Accession countries from 2004 onwards. However, this does not only include Eastern European countries but also Cyprus and Malta. Census Table CT0116NI: Country of Birth by Age by Sex.
563 i.e. over 2.1% of jobs in the ‘Process, Plant and Machine Operatives’ occupation sector were undertaken by those from Eastern Europe.
564 In 2012 17.7% of those employed in the ‘Process, Plant and Machine Operatives’ occupation sector were from Eastern Europe, this decreased to 15.4% in 2015 and 15.2% in 2016.
Occupations’ sector at a level of around five to seven times that of their representation within the Northern Ireland population\textsuperscript{565}.

7.48 Bell \textit{et al.} (2009) found that it was not only Eastern European workers, but migrant workers\textsuperscript{566} in general, who were often employed in the ‘Process, Plant and Machine Operatives’ and ‘Elementary Occupation’ sectors\textsuperscript{567, 568}.

7.49 Bell \textit{et al.} (2009) also found that ‘more people tended to be working in higher-level occupations in their home country’\textsuperscript{569} and that taking ‘a lower level job in Northern Ireland is treated as a step towards gaining better employment in the future’\textsuperscript{570}.

**Key Inequality**

Migrant workers and refugees face multiple barriers to employment in Northern Ireland.

7.50 Irwin \textit{et al.} (2014) report that barriers to participation in the labour market for migrant workers include ‘a lack of networks and unfamiliarity with formal recruitment application processes’\textsuperscript{571}. Rogers and Scullion (2014) also note that formal recruitment processes are a barrier to participation for this group\textsuperscript{572}.

\textsuperscript{565} In 2013 12.3\% of those employed in the ‘Elementary Occupations’ sector were from Eastern Europe, this remained fairly constant at 11.7\% in 2015 and increased to 14.2\% in 2016.

\textsuperscript{566} The Migrant Worker Strategy defines a migrant worker as ‘someone from outside the UK and Ireland who is here to seek or take up work’. DEL (2008) \textit{A Migrant Workers Strategy for Northern Ireland}. Paragraph number 4.5.

\textsuperscript{567} Bell’s large sample questionnaire was conducted between mid-September 2008 and January 2009. It found that 31\% of migrant worker respondents worked in the ‘Elementary Occupations’ sector and 23\% in the ‘Process, Plant and Machine Operatives’ occupation sector.


\textsuperscript{572} Rogers, S. and Scullion, G. (2014) \textit{Voices for Change. Mapping the views of black and minority ethnic people on integration and their sense of belonging in Northern Ireland}.
Irwin et al. (2014) report that migrant workers may also be faced with a lack of recognition for overseas qualifications. A consequence of this is that migrant workers ‘are more likely to have qualifications far beyond those required for their job’.

A ‘failure of employers to recognise the qualifications, skills, knowledge and experience of migrant workers and the potential they have to offer in the workplace’ has also been cited by Rogers and Scullion (2014) who believe that this further contributes to a ‘glass-ceiling’ for migrant workers who are in senior positions.

Recognition of qualifications, particularly in the absence of documentation, is also a barrier to the employment of refugees. Murphy and Vieten (2017) highlighted that refugees “who arrive with education but without proper documentation of such, the lack of recognition of their qualifications is frustrating”, particularly for those with particular professional qualifications. Murphy and Vieten (2017) reported that “a feeling of being undervalued or being unable to work in one’s professional area can undermine larger efforts of integration”.

Another barrier to employer is proficiency in the English language. Irwin et al. (2014) reported that migrant workers experience barriers to employment due to insufficient language proficiency.

Wood and Wybron (2015) also reported that language and cultural barriers exist in not only finding work but also in integrating into a workplace. Rogers and Scullion (2014) warn

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573 The Migrant Worker Strategy defines a migrant worker as ‘someone from outside the UK and Ireland who is here to seek or take up work’. DEL (2008) A Migrant Workers Strategy for Northern Ireland. Paragraph number 4.5.


577 Under Immigration Act 2016, asylum seekers are prohibited from working until their refugee status has been accepted.


579 Ibid.

580 The Migrant Worker Strategy defines a migrant worker as ‘someone from outside the UK and Ireland who is here to seek or take up work’. DEL (2008) A Migrant Workers Strategy for Northern Ireland. Paragraph number 4.5.


that, in Northern Ireland, ‘there is an urgent need to address the
dearth and quality of affordable and accessible English language
 tuition’\textsuperscript{583}.

7.56 Inadequate English language skills have been identified as a
major barrier to refugees qualifying for and participating in the
labour market\textsuperscript{584}. Murphy and Vieten (2017) reported that “while
there are many language classes available, asylum seekers and
refugees appear not to be fully aware of their existence or how
they can access them”\textsuperscript{585}. In addition, many English language
classes do not have childcare facilities, limiting their accessibility
to parents, particularly women who are refugees and asylum
seekers\textsuperscript{586}.

7.57 Our stakeholder engagement identified testing for language
proficiency as a particular issue. Concerns were raised about the
English language tests, such as the International English
Language Testing System (IELTS), required for certain
immigration visa applications that require English language
proficiency\textsuperscript{587}. It was felt that these tests were so difficult that
many locals or those who had English as their first language
would be unable to pass it. Difficulties with the IELTS test for
those who have English as their first language have been
highlighted in the media\textsuperscript{588}. In addition, research on the nursing
professions has highlighted that the high demands of IELTS has
had an impact on recruitment of highly skilled nurses from EEA
regions\textsuperscript{589}.

7.58 Language can also act as barrier to migrant workers accessing
childcare. For example, McQuaid \textit{et al.} (2013) reported the
language barrier as a key issue for migrants and minority ethnic
families in ‘accessing childcare that is compatible with working

\textsuperscript{584} Murphy F and Vieten U M (2017). \textit{Asylum Seekers and Refugees’ Experiences of Life in Northern Ireland}. QUB: Belfast.
\textsuperscript{585} Ibid, Page 84
\textsuperscript{586} Ibid
\textsuperscript{587} For more information see: \url{https://www.gov.uk/government/publications/guidance-on-applying-for-uk-visa-approved-english-language-tests}
atypical hours; [migrant and minority ethnic families]… are quite likely to be either low-paid shift workers, or healthcare workers with long and erratic hours\textsuperscript{590}.

7.59 Research has also identified access to childcare is an additional barrier to employment for migrant workers. For example, Rogers and Scullion (2014) reported that accessible and affordable childcare ‘that fits with the reality of workers’ atypical and shift work patterns’ is lacking in Northern Ireland\textsuperscript{591}.

7.60 There are also legislative barriers to employment for workers. Since 2002, there have been immigration restrictions on the employment of asylum seekers with asylum seekers not permitted to work. However, the Law Centre has highlighted that increasingly other categories of people have been affected by immigration restrictions due to perceived legislative barriers\textsuperscript{592}.

7.61 The Immigration Act 2016 widened the criminal offence of illegal working and increased the penalties for doing so. However, since the implementation of the Act, the Law Centre has received a number of calls from foreign national workers who have been suspended from employment while the employer checks their eligibility to work\textsuperscript{593}. Those contacting the Law Centre are entitled to work; however, their employer may opt to suspend them, if they are in doubt, for fear of falling foul of the new criminal penalties. Establishing a right to work can be complex in some situations, however, perceived legislative barriers may create difficulties for foreign national workers accessing and sustaining employment in Northern Ireland.

7.62 For refugees, the long transition period from seeking asylum and being granted asylum has also been highlighted as a barrier to employment. Some refugees who had spent a long time waiting for their refugee status reported feeling deskill ed and felt they needed to retrain and gain new skills. Murphy and Vieten (2017) reported that ‘waiting for employment or the right to work is a

\textsuperscript{590} McQuaid, R., Graham, H. and Shapira, M (2013) Child Care: Maximising the Participation of Women, Page 54.
\textsuperscript{592} Feedback received following the consultation with stakeholders on this Statement.
\textsuperscript{593} Highlighted in the Law Centre response to the Commission’s draft Statement on Key Inequalities in Employment in Northern Ireland.
waiting that deskills, demotivates and can be harmful to the well-being and mental health of asylum seekers and refugees.  

**Key Inequality**

Migrant workers are vulnerable to exploitation.

7.63 The Commission noted in 2010 that *‘the recruitment sector plays a considerable role in the recruitment and employment of migrant workers in Northern Ireland’*. Many migrant workers registered with recruitment agencies may have done so before coming to Northern Ireland; i.e. in their own country.

7.64 An investigation into the role of the recruitment sector in the employment of migrant workers (ECNI, 2010) found that, often agency workers are: confined to temporary and irregular work; non-guaranteed weekly hours; and being employed under poorer terms and conditions than expected. Further, migrant workers were found to be vulnerable to poor employment practices despite paying large amounts of money to recruitment agencies in their own country.

7.65 The investigation also found that agency workers’ were found to ‘experience additional stress through fearing that their work permit will not be renewed by their employer’. In addition, many were found to have had grievances about holiday and other statutory entitlements and over half of respondents experienced difficulties with pay (such as errors and delay).

7.66 Martynowicz (2014) found that migrant workers’ experience of employment in Northern Ireland is often characterised by the lack of written contracts, the prevalence of ‘casual or “zero-hour” contracts, long working hours, the non-payment of wages,

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598 60%
problems in accessing in-work entitlements such as leave and attending doctor's appointments.

7.67 In a consultation document, the Department for Business Innovation and Skills (2013) cited concerns around the use of exclusivity clauses in 'zero hour contracts'; as well as a lack of awareness amongst workers about being offered no work or zero hours, and people feeling penalised by their employer if they are not available for work when required.

7.68 Black Minority Ethnic (BME) parents have also highlighted the 'short notice period given to work as a particularly frustrating aspect of zero-hours contracts' and identified that the 'lack of ability to make suitable childcare arrangements at short notice was a barrier to accepting employment or gaining additional hours'.

7.69 Allamby et al. (2011) also noted that human trafficking is an issue in Northern Ireland. In their research, Allamby et al. (2011) found evidence for six of the ILO's forms of behaviour which define 'forced labour'. They identified that factors which made migrant workers vulnerable to forced labour were: an individual's legal status, English language proficiency, poor access to advice and information and a lack of support networks.

7.70 Allamby et al. (2011) also report that some migrant workers gain employment in Northern Ireland through gang masters based in their own country; the payment for [which] usually involves borrowing money that must be paid back no matter what the outcome. Therefore, many migrants who are drawn to Northern Ireland through false promises of employment, such as

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the type of job advertised or the benefits provided, find that they have no way out of the agreement once they arrive\textsuperscript{608}.

7.71 The research by Allamby et al. (2011) also cautions that ‘one common means of forcing people to work was by withholding their personal documents’\textsuperscript{609}. Another is to force migrant workers to pay off a debt incurred from ‘borrowing’ money to be furnished with employment in Northern Ireland. This debt is often high and migrant workers are forced to ‘work long and excessive hours to [pay this debt, leaving] … little or no money for themselves’\textsuperscript{610}.

7.72 As stated in the Commission’s Statement on Key Inequalities in Housing and Communities in Northern Ireland ‘migrant workers are also vulnerable to becoming subject to tied accommodation’\textsuperscript{611}, \textsuperscript{612} where ‘work and accommodation are often linked, [therefore,] many cannot leave their job as this would also render them homeless, creating a vicious circle of working long hours and living in poor conditions’\textsuperscript{613}.

7.73 Lastly, evidence suggests the exploitation is not linked to nationality, gender or age but instead is ‘associated with the vulnerability of the worker: a lack of English language skills, limited access to social networks, and a lack of local knowledge’\textsuperscript{614}.

\textsuperscript{611} Accommodation that is provided as a part of a person's continued employment.
\textsuperscript{612} ECNI (2017) Statement on Key Inequalities in Housing and Communities in Northern Ireland. Page 32. ECNI: Belfast
\textsuperscript{614} Jarman et al. (2011) \textit{Forced labour in Northern Ireland}. Page 1.
Many people in Northern Ireland hold prejudicial attitudes towards minority ethnic groups and migrant workers both inside and outside the workplace. In addition, people from minority ethnic groups and migrant workers were found to be at risk of racial prejudice, discrimination and harassment in employment.

Prejudicial attitudes in Northern Ireland are important because they can lead to a range of negative actions and behaviours including discrimination and harassment. However, it should be noted that while the root cause of discrimination is embedded in prejudicial attitudes, holding prejudicial attitudes does not necessarily result in discrimination.

Raeside et al. (2014) identified this inequality through analysis of the 2006 and 2007 Northern Ireland Life and Times Surveys (NILTS). In addition, data from the 2007, 2015 and 2016 NILTS was considered by the Commission to ascertain the level of prejudice toward Irish Travellers.

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7.77 The Commission found that, in 2016 compared to 2007, attitudes towards Irish Travellers had somewhat hardened over time, but had softened considerably since 2015\(^620, 621, 622\).

7.78 For example, in 2016, more than half (52%) of respondents would not willingly accept an Irish Traveller as a close friend. This represented a 7-percentage point increase from 45% in 2007, but a 13-percentage point decrease from 65% in 2015\(^623\).

7.79 Results were similar for acceptance of an Irish Traveller as a close relative through marriage: in 2016, over half (56%) of respondents were not accepting, a 9-percentage point increase from 47% in 2007, but a 14 percentage-point decrease from 70% in 2015. Lastly, in 2016, 39% would not accept an Irish Traveller as a work colleague, a 10-percentage point increase from 29% in 2007 but a 13-percentage point decrease from 52% in 2015\(^624\).

### Inequality

Negative attitudes toward Eastern Europeans are apparent in Northern Ireland.

7.80 Data from the 2007, 2015 and 2016 NILTS was considered by the Commission to ascertain the level of prejudice toward Eastern Europeans\(^625, 626\).

7.81 Between 2007 and 2016, there was a decrease in acceptance found when respondents to the NILTS were asked to consider if they would willingly accept Eastern Europeans as: a colleague at work; a close friend; or, "relative by way of marrying a close

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member of… [their] family627, 628. However, acceptance has increased since 2015629.

7.82 In 2016, nearly two thirds (63%) of respondents would willingly accept someone from the Eastern European community as a spouse of a close family member630. This represented an 8 percentage-point decrease in acceptance from 71% in 2007 but a 18-percentage-point increase in acceptance from 45% since 2015631, 632. Only slightly more respondents to the 2016 NILTS would willingly accept someone from an Eastern European community as a close friend (66%); this represented a decrease of 8 percentage-point decrease from around three quarters (74%) in 2007, but an increase in acceptance of 16 percentage points from 50% in 2015633, 634, 635.

7.83 A greater proportion of people were accepting of someone from an Eastern European community as a work colleague than as a close friend or relative by way of marriage. However, acceptance had also decreased compared to 2007, but increased since 2015. In 2016, over three quarter (76%) of respondents would accept someone from an Eastern European community as a work colleague636. This represented a 11 percentage-point decrease in

acceptance from 87% in 2007 and a 14 percentage-point increase from less than two thirds (62%) in 2015.\(^637, 638, 639\)

7.84 The Commission also considered the number and proportion of race hate crimes that were committed against people in Northern Ireland who were from Eastern European countries\(^640\). It found that, between 2007/08 and 2015/16, 1,992 crimes were recorded against people from the Eastern European community; this accounted for 34.5% of all crimes with a person victim recorded over the period\(^641\).

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**Inequality**

Prejudicial attitudes toward minority ethnic groups exist in Northern Ireland.

7.85 Data from the 2007, 2015 and 2016 NILTS was considered by the Commission to ascertain the level of prejudice toward minority ethnic groups\(^642, 643\).

7.86 Whilst most respondents to the 2016 NILTS indicated that they would not describe themselves as prejudiced against minority ethnic people, nearly a quarter admitted to being ‘a little prejudiced’\(^644, 645\). The majority of respondents indicated that they ‘avoid displaying prejudiced behaviour’ against minority ethnic people, however, a tenth indicated that their ‘behaviour towards

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\(^640\) Race hate crimes against the person. Countries recorded in the statistics were: Czech Republic; Hungary; Latvia; Lithuania; Poland; and, Slovakia.

\(^641\) PSNI (2016) *Racist Incidents and Crimes in Northern Ireland 2004/05 to 2015/16*. Table 2.6 Racist crimes (excluding fraud) by nationality of victim, 2007/08 to 2015/16.


\(^644\) 1% indicated that they were ‘very prejudiced’; 23% that they were ‘a little prejudiced’; and, 74% that they were ‘not prejudiced at all’; 1% said they ‘don’t know’.

minority ethnic people is consistent with the prejudice… [they] feel.\textsuperscript{646, 647}

7.87 In 2007, 2015, and 2016 NILTS respondents were asked if they thought there was ‘a lot of prejudice against… [minority ethnic communities] in Northern Ireland nowadays, a little, or hardly any’. In 2016, 39% of respondents felt that there was ‘a lot’ of prejudice against minority ethnic communities in Northern Ireland, a decrease of 5 percentage-points from 44% in 2007 and an increase of 9 percentage points from 30% in 2015\textsuperscript{648, 649, 650}.

7.88 Whilst prejudice was perceived to be less in 2016 compared to 2007, an increase in negative attitudes and a lesser acceptance of minority ethnic people was apparent over this period\textsuperscript{651, 652}. Between 2007 and 2016, there a decrease in acceptance was found when respondents to the NILTS were asked to consider if they would willingly accept someone from a minority ethnic community as: a colleague at work; a close friend; or, ‘relative by way of marrying a close member of… [their] family’\textsuperscript{653, 654}. However, acceptance in these areas has increased since 2015\textsuperscript{655}.

7.89 Whilst 70% of respondents to the 2007 NILTS would willingly accept someone from a minority ethnic community as a spouse of a close family member this had decreased to 64% in 2016. However, this represented a 17 percentage-point increase in

\textsuperscript{646} 89% indicated that they avoided prejudiced behaviour and 10% indicated that their behaviour was consistent with their prejudice.
\textsuperscript{647} ARK. Northern Ireland Life and Time Survey, 2016. \textit{Attitudes to Minority Ethnic People}. ARK, June 2017.
\textsuperscript{648} ARK. Northern Ireland Life and Time Survey, 2016. \textit{Attitudes to Minority Ethnic People}. ARK, June 2017.
\textsuperscript{652} ARK. Northern Ireland Life and Time Survey, 2016. \textit{Attitudes to Minority Ethnic People}. ARK, June 2017.
acceptance from less than half (47%) in 2015\textsuperscript{656, 657, 658}. Slightly more respondents to the 2016 NILTS would willingly accept someone from a minority ethnic community as a close friend (68%); this represented a decrease of 18 percentage-points from 81% in 2007; but an increase of 15 percentage points in acceptance from 53% in the previous year\textsuperscript{659, 660, 661}.

7.90 Acceptance of a minority ethnic person as a work colleague was greater than acceptance of a minority ethnic person as a close friend or relative by way of marriage. However, between 2016 and 2007 acceptance of someone from a minority ethnic group as a work colleague has decreased by 14 percentage-points from 91% in 2007\textsuperscript{662, 663}. However, acceptance has increased by 10 percentage-points from 66% in the previous year\textsuperscript{664}.

7.91 Rogers and Scullion (2014) found that minority ethnic groups often described fear and intimidation at work, discrimination, a lack of employment rights and poor and sometimes unsafe working conditions\textsuperscript{665}.

7.92 Many of those who have these negative experiences were either afraid or unable to voice their concerns\textsuperscript{666, 667} \textit{whether due to fear

\textsuperscript{659} ARK. Northern Ireland Life and Time Survey, 2016. \textit{Attitudes to Minority Ethnic People}. ARK, June 2017.
\textsuperscript{663} ARK. Northern Ireland Life and Time Survey, 2016. \textit{Attitudes to Minority Ethnic People}. ARK, June 2017.
\textsuperscript{666} Irwin, J., McAleavey, R. and Murphy, N. (2014) \textit{The economic and social mobility of ethnic minority communities in Northern Ireland}. 
of losing their job, negative reactions or a lack of English language skills\textsuperscript{668}.

7.93 In addition, a 2012 Trademark study of employees in a private sector retail organisation reported that 13\% (325) of the 2,500 employees had experienced some form of harassment. Of these employees, 23\% (75) had experienced racially based harassment\textsuperscript{669}.

7.94 Moreover, Wood and Wybron (2015) report that ‘prejudice, stereotyping or hidden biases within recruitment processes’\textsuperscript{670} can act as a barrier to employment for migrant workers and minority ethnic people. Their research cites an example of a study conducted by the Department for Work and Pensions in 2009, which found that ‘a CV with a white British name secured an interview in every nine applications, compared with one in every 16 applications for more obviously ethnic minority names’\textsuperscript{671}.

Inequalities and Differences

Inequality

People from a Black ethnic group are more likely to be unemployed than: White; Irish Travellers; Asian; Mixed; and, Other ethnic groups.

7.95 With regard to rates of unemployment, the Commission’s analysis of the Census 2011 showed that, at the time of the Census, those from a Black ethnic group had the highest unemployment rates of all minority ethnic groups considered.

7.96 The data showed that 12\% of those from a Black minority ethnic group were unemployed compared to less than a tenth of all other minority ethnic groups\textsuperscript{672, 673}.


\textsuperscript{669} Trademark ICTU Anti-sectarian Unit (2012)\textit{ Sectarianism in the Workplace. Research on Sectarianism in the Private Sector Workplace.}

\textsuperscript{670} Wood, C. and Wybron, I. (2015)\textit{ Entry to, and progression in, work}. Page 3.


\textsuperscript{672} 12.4\% of those from a Black ethnic group were unemployed compared to: 5.0\% of White; 7.7\% of Irish Travellers; 3.8\% of Asian; 6.8\% of Mixed; and, 7.3\% of Other ethnic groups.

\textsuperscript{673} Census\textit{ Table DC2601NI: Economic Activity by Ethnic Group by Age by Sex.}
8 Religious Belief and Political Opinion

Religious Belief

8.1 In Northern Ireland, fair employment legislation requires that employers monitor the community background of employees, specifically those who are from a Protestant and Catholic background.

8.2 According to the Fair Employment Monitoring report No. 26, Protestants comprise 52.5% of the monitored workforce; while Catholics comprise 47.9% of the monitored workforce and this now more closely mirrors the composition of all those available for work.

8.3 The Census 2011 identified that among the working age population from 16-64 years, 46.3% were from a Protestant community background, 45.5% were from a Catholic community background, 1.0% were from an ‘Other’ religion and 5.2% had no religious background. Considering those from a Protestant and Catholic background only, 50.5% were from a Protestant background and 49.5% were from a Catholic background.

8.4 When current religious beliefs were considered, the Census 2011 identified that among the working age population from 16-64 years in Northern Ireland, 41.5% stated that their religion is Catholic, 39.5% stated that their religion was Protestant or ‘other Christian’, 0.9% stated that they belonged to an ‘Other’ religion; while 11.4% said they had no religion. A further 6.7% of the population refused to state their religion.

8.5 This chapter will seek to identify employment inequalities in relation to religious belief. However, due to low sample size in the Labour Force Survey (LFS) for those of ‘Other religion’ and

675 Employers with more than 11 employees. For more details see: http://www.equalityni.org/Employers-Service-Providers/Large-Business/Registration-and-monitoring/Fair-Employment-Code-of-Practice
676 Religion or religion brought up in
‘No religion’ it will not be possible to comment on the current employment situation of these groups. For this reason, this draft Statement will concentrate on LFS data for those who are Catholic and Protestant, supplementing with other data sources for those of ‘Other religion’ and ‘No religion’ where available.

**Political Opinion**

8.6 Whilst Section 75 determines political opinion as a separate equality ground to religious belief there is an absence of literature or data in this area with regard to employment. Raeside et al. (2014) caution that ‘there is often a conceptual and analytical overlap between political orientation, religious identity and ethnicity’\(^{678}\). For example, in Northern Ireland ‘the term “sectarian harassment” is commonly used… to refer to harassment on the ground of religious belief or political opinion’\(^{679}\). In addition, the Fair Employment and Treatment Order (Northern Ireland) 1998, makes it unlawful to discriminate on the grounds of religious belief and political opinion\(^{680}\).

8.7 Raeside et al.’s (2014) study of Employment Inequalities in Northern Ireland noted that Labour Force Statistics data does not include political opinion as a variable. Therefore, no analysis of LFS data was possible with regard to political opinion and employment\(^{681}\).

8.8 However, Raeside et al. (2014)\(^{682}\) and the Commission\(^{683}\) were able to analyse Northern Ireland Life and Times Survey (NILTS) data which included a variable on political opinion and also provided some information on the employment characteristics of its respondents\(^{684}\).


\(^{682}\) Caution should be applied here as the NILTS is not as comprehensive a dataset as the LFS, therefore, a detailed analysis was not possible.
8.9 The Commission found that, in 2013\(^{685}\), 2014\(^{686}\) and, 2015\(^{687}\), the majority of NILTS respondents (around two fifths) considered themselves as Neither Unionist nor Nationalist\(^{688}\). In addition, a greater proportion of respondents considered themselves Unionist than Nationalist. For example, in 2013 over 29% of respondents said they were Unionist and this increased to around a third in 2014 and 2015 (32.2% and 33.5% respectively). In all three years around a quarter of respondents considered themselves Nationalist\(^{689}\).

8.10 For ease of reference, this text below uses the following names for the three political opinion groups: Nationalist, Unionist and ‘Neither’.

**Summary**

8.11 Negative attitudes toward those of different religious belief are present in Northern Ireland, particularly sectarianism and islamophobia. Prejudicial attitudes and/or discrimination on the grounds of religious belief is present both within and outside the workplace. Prejudicial attitudes, harassment and, intimidation can create a climate of fear which can impact on a person’s ability to sustain employment, particularly where individuals are reluctant to speak out due to fears of further victimisation.

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\(^{688}\) In 2013 43.2% of respondents to the NILTS considered themselves to be neither Unionist nor Nationalist. This decreased in 2014 to 40.3% and in 2015 to 39.4%.

\(^{689}\) In 2013 24.9% of respondents to the NILTS considered themselves Nationalist. This was compared to 25.2% in 2014 and 24.5% in 2015.
8.12 Prejudice and discrimination on the grounds of religious belief, is still present in Northern Ireland, particularly in relation to sectarianism and islamophobia.

8.13 As noted in the last section, prejudicial attitudes in Northern Ireland are important because they can lead to a range of negative actions and behaviours including discrimination and harassment. However, it should be noted that while the root cause of discrimination is embedded in prejudicial attitudes, holding prejudicial attitudes does not necessarily result in discrimination.

8.14 A 2012 study of employees in a private sector retail organisation reported that 13% (325) of the 2500 employees had experienced some form of harassment. Of those employees who experienced some form of harassment, 44% (n=143) had experienced sectarian harassment.

8.15 This study reported ‘that low level but persistent sectarian harassment is a feature of too many workplaces in Northern Ireland’. It also found that whilst employees felt threatened,

they were reluctant to speak up about the harassment they received believing it was ‘hard to prove and held the potential for further victimisation’.

8.16 In addition, respondents cited that the situation was negatively affected ‘where management do not just collude but support and encourage, [where] it is entirely acceptable to isolate, exclude and harass minority workers’.

8.17 A further possible barrier to tackling sectarianism in the workplace is the attitude of ‘some employers and trade unionists [who] complained that there is little they can do about what goes on outside the place of work and that the culture can be so strong in the area that their ability to set a different culture within the workplace is limited’.

8.18 The Northern Ireland Life and Times Survey (NILTS) asked respondents to state whether they preferred a workplace with people of only their own religion. In 2016, only 7% said they would prefer to work in a workplace of their ‘own religion only’, this represented a 4 percentage-point decrease from 11% in the previous year but a 2 percentage-point increase from 5% in 2007. Between 2007 and 2016, the proportion of those who would prefer a ‘mixed religion workplace’ decreased, overall.

8.19 Most respondents to the NILTS indicated that, between 2007 and 2010 workplaces were a ‘neutral space’ ‘always or most of the time’. Few respondents indicated that their workplace was ‘never’ a ‘neutral space’.

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697 In 2007 5% of respondents would prefer an ‘own religion only workplace’ and 93% a ‘mixed religion workplace, respectively; in 2015 the percentages were 11% and 84%, respectively and in 2016 the percentages were 7% and 86%, respectively.
698 The question were not asked in the 2012 to 2016 surveys.
699 In 2007 88% believed their workplace to ‘always’ be a ‘neutral space’; this remained relatively stable in 2008 at 88%, 89% in 2009, and 86% in 2010.
700 In 2007 5% believed their workplace to ‘never’ be a ‘neutral space’; this remained relatively stable in 2008 at 3%, 4% in 2009, and 5% in 2010.
The ability to express cultural identity in the workplace was something most respondents to the NILT surveys either felt able to ‘definitely’ or ‘probably’ do.

Whilst most respondents to the NILT surveys would prefer ‘much more’ or a ‘bit more mixing’ in the workplace, over a tenth would like to ‘keep things as they are’. However, respondents were not asked what things were currently like in their workplace. Therefore, those who answered ‘keep things as they are’ may work in a mixed or a non-mixed workplace.

Data from the 2007, 2015 and 2016 NILTS was considered by the Commission to ascertain the level of prejudice toward Muslims. Analysis of the results revealed that attitudes toward Muslims are particularly negative in Northern Ireland.

Examination of NILTS data revealed that while attitudes toward Muslims were, overall, more negative in 2016 than 2007, attitudes had improved substantially on the previous year.

In 2016, half (50%) of respondents held negative attitudes toward a Muslim a close relative by marriage, similar to 2007 (51%). However, this represented an 18 percentage-point decrease in negative attitudes from 68% in the previous year. In 2016, 43% felt able to ‘definitely’ express their cultural identity in the workplace and 15% ‘probably’; the percentages for each increased in the years 2008 – 61% and 24%, respectively; 62% and 25% in 2009, respectively; 62% and 24%, respectively. The proportion citing ‘definitely’ decreased in 2015 to 47%, however, there was a subsequent increase in those answering ‘probably’ (36%) in the same year. The question was not asked in the 2016 survey or the 2012 to 2014 surveys.

People of the Muslim faith are at risk of prejudice both inside and outside the workplace.
46% of respondents would not accept a Muslim as a close friend\textsuperscript{708}. While this represented an increase of 8 percentage-point from 38% in 2007, it represented a larger decrease of 14 percentage-points from 60% in 2015\textsuperscript{709, 710}.

8.25 In addition, over a third (37\%) of respondents would not accept Muslim as a colleague at work (50\%)\textsuperscript{711}. Again, this represented an increase in negative attitudes of 10 percentage-points from 27\% in 2007 but a decrease of 13 percentage-points from 50\% the previous year\textsuperscript{712, 713}.

8.26 There is little evidence of the experience of Muslims within or outside the workplace in Northern Ireland. However, research from Great Britain has indicated that, relative to other religions, ‘Muslims report and experience discrimination of a greater frequency and seriousness than other religious groups’\textsuperscript{714}, particularly in the wake of terror bombings which has had an impact on public perceptions of Muslims\textsuperscript{715}. In particular, research in Great Britain\textsuperscript{716} and Ireland\textsuperscript{717} has documented prejudicial attitudes and behaviour including harassment and abuse directed toward Muslims, particularly Muslim women who wear the hijab or niqab and are therefore, visibly Muslim.

\textsuperscript{711} ARK. Northern Ireland Life and Time Survey, 2016. \textit{Attitudes to Minority Ethnic People}. ARK, June 2017.
\textsuperscript{716} Allen C, Isakjee A and ogtem Young o (2013) “maybe we are hated”: The experience and impact of anti-Muslim hate on British Muslim women. University of Birmingham: Birmingham.
Inequalities and Differences – Religious Belief

8.27  A number of differences in employment on the grounds of religious belief where identified in this section. Further evidence is required to establish whether these differences are inequalities.

Difference

Catholics aged 18-24 years old have lower employment rates than Protestants aged 18-24 years old.

8.28  Analysis of LFS data by religion and age by Raeside et al. (2014) and the Commission found that, between 2014 and 2016, Catholics aged 18-24 years old showing higher rates of economic inactivity than Protestants aged 18-24 years old.

Difference

Catholics aged 18-24 years old have higher rates of economic inactivity than Protestants aged 18-24 years old.

8.29  Analysis of LFS data by religion and age by the Commission found that, between 2013 and 2016, Catholics aged 18-24 years old experienced lower rates of employment than Protestants aged 18-24 years old, with a gap of 9.6 percentage points in 2016.

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719 In Q1 2014 41.4% of Catholics aged 18-24 years old were economically inactive compared to 31.0% of Protestants aged 18-24 years old; a gap of 10.1 percentage points. In Q1 2015 42.5% of Catholics aged 18-24 years old were economically inactive compared to 29.0% of Protestants aged 18-24 years old; a gap of 13.5 percentage points. In Q1 2016 33.3% of Catholics aged 18-24 years old were economically inactive compared to 22.2% of Protestants aged 18-24 years old; a gap of 11.1 percentage points.
720 The Q1 2013 employment rates were: 45.7% for Catholics aged 18-24 years old and 50.5% for Protestants aged 18-24 years old. The Q1 2014 employment rates were: 43.4% for Catholics aged 18-24 years old and 59.4% for Protestants aged 18-24 years old. The Q1 2015 employment rates were: 44.6% for Catholics aged 18-24 years old and 54.0% for Protestants aged 18-24 years old. The Q1 2016 employment rates were: 53.5% for Catholics aged 18-24 years old and 63.1% for Protestants aged 18-24 years old.
Between 2006 and 2012, Raeside et al. (2014) found ‘little difference in part-time employment rates between Catholics and Protestants’\textsuperscript{721}. The Commission’s analysis of LFS data by gender and religion found that, between 2013 and 2015, Protestant women had higher rates of part-time employment than Catholic women\textsuperscript{722}.

Analysis of LFS data by religion and age by the Commission found that, between 2012 and 2016, Catholics aged 50-64 years old were less likely to work in the private sector than Protestants aged 50-64 years old, with a gap greater than 10-percentage points in almost\textsuperscript{723} every year between 2012 and 2016\textsuperscript{724}.


\textsuperscript{722} In Q1 2013 42.3\% of Protestant women were employed part-time compared to 38.2\% of Catholic women; a difference of 4.1 percentage points. In Q1 2014 42.7\% of Protestant women were employed part-time compared to 35.3\% of Catholic women; a difference of 7.4 percentage points. In Q1 2015 40.5\% of Protestant women were employed part-time compared to 33.2\% of Catholic women; a difference of 7.3 percentage points. In Q1 2016 43.3\% of Protestant women were employed part-time compared to 38.3\% of Catholic women; a difference of 5.0 percentage points.

\textsuperscript{723} Except for in 2013 when only a 1.1 percentage point gap was found.

\textsuperscript{724} In Q1 2012 56.0\% of Catholics aged 50-64 years old were employed in the private sector compared to 70.8\% of Protestants aged 50-64 years old; a gap of 14.8 percentage points. In Q1 2013 66.1\% of Catholics aged 50-64 years old were employed in the private sector compared to 67.2\% of Protestants aged 50-64 years old; a gap of 1.1 percentage points. In Q1 2014 59.4\% of Catholics aged 50-64 years old were employed in the private sector compared to 67.1\% of Protestants aged 50-64 years old; a gap of 7.7 percentage points. In Q1 2015 59.3\% of Catholics aged 50-64 years old were employed in the private sector compared to 70.6\% of Protestants aged 50-64 years old; a gap of 11.3 percentage points. In Q1 2016 58.0\% of Catholics aged 50-64 years old were employed in the private sector compared to 70.1\% of Protestants aged 50-64 years old; a gap of 12.1 percentage points.
Raeside et al.’s (2014) analysis of LFS data found that, in 2012, Protestants were over-represented (according to their share of the employed population) in six of the nine industry sectors considered\textsuperscript{725}.

The Commission analysis of industry sector LFS data\textsuperscript{726} found that, between 2014 and 2016, Protestants were consistently under-represented in the ‘Construction’ sector, with Protestant employees in Q1 2016, representing 35.9\% of the share of ‘Construction’ jobs\textsuperscript{727} less than their share of the population (50.5\% according to Census 2011)\textsuperscript{728}.

**Inequalities and Differences – Political Opinion**

A number of differences in employment on the grounds of political opinion where identified in this section. Further evidence is required to establish whether these differences are inequalities.

Raeside et al. (2014)\textsuperscript{729}, through their analysis of 2006 and 2012 NILTS data, found that those who identified as Nationalist were more likely to be economically inactive than either those who identified as Unionist or those who identified as ‘Neither’.

\textsuperscript{725} In all sectors but: ‘Manufacturing’; ‘Construction’; and, ‘Public Administration, Education and Health’.

\textsuperscript{726} This was possible in all but two industry sectors: ‘Agriculture, Forestry and Fishing’ and ‘Energy and Water’.

\textsuperscript{727} In Q1 2014 the ‘Construction’ workforce was made up of 36.4\% Protestants and 63.6\% Catholics. In Q1 2015 the ‘Construction’ workforce was made up of 39.4\% Protestants and 60.6\% Catholics. In Q1 2016 the ‘Construction’ workforce was made up of 35.9\% Protestants and 64.1\% Catholics.

\textsuperscript{728} 49.5\% Catholics compared to 50.5\% Protestants.

8.36 The Commission’s analysis of NILTS data over the period 2013 to 2015 found that, both those who identified as Unionist and Nationalist had higher rates of economic inactivity than those who identified as ‘Neither’\(^{730}\).

\[\text{Both Unionists and Nationalists are less likely to be in paid employment than those who are neither Nationalist nor Unionist.}\]

8.37 Whilst Raeside et al.’s (2014)\(^{731}\) analysis of 2006 and 2012 NILTS data found that those who identified as Nationalist had the lowest employment rates the Commission did not find this to be the case in 2013 to 2015.

8.38 The Commission’s analysis of NILTS data over the period 2013 to 2015 found that, both those who identified as Unionists and those who identified as Nationalists were less likely to be in employment compared to those who identified as ‘Neither’\(^{732}\).

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\(^{730}\) In 2013, 30.5% of those who identified themselves as ‘Neither’ were economically inactive compared to 41.6% of those who identified themselves as Unionist and 34.5% of those who identified themselves as Nationalist. In 2014, 41.7% of those who identified themselves as Unionist and 41.1% of those who identified themselves as Nationalist were economically inactive. In 2015, 50.9% of those who identified themselves as Unionist and 49.8% of those who identified themselves as Nationalist were economically inactive.


\(^{732}\) In 2013, the gap between those who identified as ‘Neither’ (57.5%) and those who identified as Nationalist (52.2%) or Unionist (48.0%) was 5.3 percentage points and 9.5 percentage points respectively. In 2014 56.6% of those who identified themselves as ‘Neither’ were in employment compared to 49.1% of those who identified themselves as Unionist (a 7.5 percentage point gap) and 48.1% of those who identified themselves as Nationalist (a 8.5 percentage point gap). In 2015 58.5% of those who identified themselves as ‘Neither’ were in employment compared to 47.6% of those who identified themselves as Unionist (a 10.9 percentage point gap) and 47.8% of those who identified themselves as Nationalist (a 10.7 percentage point gap).
9 Age

9.1 This chapter considered age-related employment in those of working age only. While those who are 16-17 years old are of working age, the majority (85.8%) of this age group \(^{733}\) are economically inactive and do not participate in employment, either because they are students or are undertaking government training \(^{734}\).

9.2 Due to changes in legislation \(^{735}\) there is no longer a compulsory retirement age. Therefore, people over 65 years could also be considered to be of working age. However, this chapter will only consider those between 18-64 years, in line with the LFS definition of working age \(^{736}\).

Summary

9.3 Younger people experience age-related inequalities in relation to participation in employment. Those aged 18-24 years old have higher unemployment rates than those aged 25 years and older. Youth employment has been previously identified as a key inequality in our previous 2007 Statement on Key Inequalities. Youth unemployment is associated with lifelong problems, such as worklessness, poverty, limited employment opportunities, low wages, lower average life satisfaction and ill health.

9.4 Older people, aged 50-64 years \(^{737}\) also experience age-related inequalities in relation to participation in employment. Those aged 50-64 years old are less likely to be in employment and more likely to be economically inactive than those aged 25-49 years old. For older people, the main work-related barriers were viewed to be: ‘difficulty in getting a job’; ‘being made redundant’; and, ‘job insecurity’ \(^{738}\). However, increases in economic inactivity

\(^{733}\) The rates of economic inactivity between Q1 2012 and Q1 2016 were: 86.3% in Q1 2012; 87.4% in Q1 2013; 79.3% in Q1 2014; 86.1% in Q1 2015; and, 86.5% in Q1 2016.

\(^{734}\) LFS data showed that, in Q1 2012, 96.8% of those who were economically inactive were so due to being a student. In Q1 2016, 94.7% of those who were economically inactive were so due to being a student.


\(^{737}\) LFS data is only available up to 64 years.

among this age group may be linked to long-term sickness, rising retirement age and the provision of informal caring.\(^{739}\)

**Key Inequalities**

**Key Inequality**

**Those aged 18-24 years old have higher unemployment rates than those aged 25 years and older.**

9.5 Analysis of LFS data carried out by Raeside et al. (2014)\(^{740}\) found that at nearly all time points\(^{741}\) between 2006 and 2012, those aged 18-24 years old had the highest rates of ILO unemployment compared to those aged 25 years old and older.

9.6 The Commission’s analysis of LFS data found that, between 2012 and 2016, those aged 18-24 years old evidenced higher rates of ILO unemployment than both those aged 25-49 years old and those aged 50-64 years old, respectively\(^{742}, 743, 744\).

9.7 Between 2012 and 2016, the gap in ILO unemployment rates between those aged 18-24 years old and those aged 25-49 years old increased by 3.2 percentage points\(^{745}\). Likewise, between 2012 and 2016, the gap in ILO unemployment rates between those aged 18-24 years old and those aged 50-64 years old also increased to a lesser degree by 2.3 percentage points\(^{746}\).

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\(^{741}\) Except for Q1 and Q3 2006.

\(^{742}\) The ILO unemployment rates for those aged 18-24 years old were: 10.2% in Q1 2012; 12.9% in Q1 2013; 11.8% in Q1 2014; 13.7% in Q1 2015; and, 12.4% in Q1 2016.

\(^{743}\) The ILO unemployment rates for those aged 25-49 years old were: 4.8% in Q1 2012; 5.3% in Q1 2013; 4.8% in Q1 2014; 3.2% in Q1 2015; and, 3.8% in Q1 2016.

\(^{744}\) The ILO unemployment rates for those aged 50-64 years old were: 2.9% in Q1 2012; 3.9% in Q1 2013; 2.8% in Q1 2014; 3.3% in Q1 2015; and, 2.8% in Q1 2016.

\(^{745}\) In Q1 2012 the gap between those aged 18-24 years old and those aged 25-49 years old was 5.4 percentage points compared to 8.6 percentage points in Q1 2016.

\(^{746}\) In Q1 2012 the gap between those aged 18-24 years old and those aged 50-64 years old was 7.3 percentage points compared to 9.6 percentage points in Q1 2016.
9.8 However, at most time points between 2012 and 2016, the largest gap in unemployment rates was between those aged 18-24 years old and those aged 25-49 years old.

9.9 The employment of young people was previously identified as one of the key areas in our 2007 Statement on Key Inequalities. Subsequent research published by the Commission in 2010 identified not being in education, employment or training as a key area of inequality for the 18-24 year old age group. Therefore, this is a persistent inequality.

9.10 Research has shown that spending time not in education, employment or training (NEET) is linked to lifelong problems associated with worklessness, poverty, limited employment opportunities, poor pay and ill health. People who are unemployed in their youth also have lower average life satisfaction and lower wages, with unemployment more likely to leave a long-term scar for young people compared to other adult age groups.

9.11 Intersectionality is also an issue as certain characteristics may present as risk factors for unemployment. Characteristics highlighted as risk factors for NEET include disability, socioeconomic status, low educational attainment, poor physical health, mental ill health and having Special Educational Needs. For example, people with a learning disability are more likely to experience less favourable outcomes in terms of educational attainment and are more likely to not be in education, employment or training (NEET) by age 19 years.

9.12 The Commission’s research on age-related issues and attitudes (2008) found that respondents felt the main work-related barriers

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747 ECNI (2007) Statement on Key Inequalities in Northern Ireland. ECNI: Belfast
753 Tunnard, J; Barnes, T; Flood, S (2008) One in ten: Key messages from policy, research and practice about young people who are NEET. Forum 21, 3, 46-53
In addition, research has indicated that young people perceive that they are more likely to be subject to negative attitudes in employment compared to older people. A tenth (10.0%) of respondents to the Commission’s age-related issues and attitudes research (2008) believed that they were treated ‘worse than older people… because of their age’, with this belief more likely to held by younger people from 16-29 years old. In comparison, only 4.3% of respondents believed that younger people were treated better ‘than older people… because of their age’.

The Commission’s research on age-related issues and attitudes (2008) also found that, when given a scenario on who should be sent on a management-training course, 12.4% of respondents felt that an older man should be sent rather than a younger man. The main reasons behind this decision were that an older man has ‘more experience’ and is ‘more mature, responsible and loyal’.

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754 The research identified that the average age respondents felt to represent the ‘younger’ age group was 17 to 27 years old.
755 The respective percentages were: 54.4% ‘getting a job’; 35.2% ‘meeting the essential criteria when applying for a job’; 25.1% ‘national minimum wage rates’; and, 10.6% ‘job insecurity’.
757 19.2% of those aged 16-29 years old believed younger people were treated worse compared to 15.1% of those aged 30-44 years old and 11.3% of those aged 45-64 years old.
759 69.1% of respondents who would send the older man on a course rather than a younger man felt that the older man would have ‘more experience’, an additional 22.0% felt that an older man was ‘more mature, responsible and loyal’.

affecting younger people in Northern Ireland at the time of the survey were: ‘getting a job’; ‘meeting the essential criteria when applying for a job’; ‘national minimum wage rates’; and, ‘job insecurity’. 

9.13 The research indicated that the average age respondents felt to represent the ‘younger’ age group was 17 to 27 years old.

9.14 The respective percentages were: 54.4% ‘getting a job’; 35.2% ‘meeting the essential criteria when applying for a job’; 25.1% ‘national minimum wage rates’; and, 10.6% ‘job insecurity’. The research identified that the average age respondents felt to represent the ‘younger’ age group was 17 to 27 years old.
Raeside et al. (2014)\textsuperscript{761,762} and the Commission\textsuperscript{763} found that, between 2006 and 2016, those aged 50-64 years old had lower rates of employment than those aged 25-49 years old\textsuperscript{764}. In quarter one, 2016, 64.0\% of those aged 50-64 years old were in employment compared to 79.5\% of 25-49 year olds, an employment gap of 15.5 percentage points.

Between 2012 and 2016, the rate of employment for those aged 25-49 years old decreased slightly by 1.6 percentage points whereas that of those aged 50-64 years old increased slightly by 3.1 percentage points\textsuperscript{765}. However, the employment gap persisted throughout this period\textsuperscript{766}.

The Commission’s research on age-related issues and attitudes (2008) found that for those considered to be older workers\textsuperscript{767}, the main work-related barriers were viewed to be: ‘difficulty in getting a job’; ‘being made redundant’; and, ‘job insecurity’\textsuperscript{768,769}.


\textsuperscript{762} Between 2009 and 2012.

\textsuperscript{763} Between 2012 and 2016.

\textsuperscript{764} The Commission analysed data from 2012, where Raeside et al. (2014) ceased, to 2016.\textsuperscript{765} In Q1 2012 the employment rate for those aged 25-49 years old was 81.1\%, this decreased to 79.5\% in Q1 2016; a difference of 1.6 percentage points. In Q1 2012 the employment rate for those aged 50-64 years old was 60.9\%, this increased to 64.0\% in Q1 2016; a difference of 3.1 percentage points.

\textsuperscript{766} The lowest gap between those aged 50-64 years old and those aged 25-49 years old was 14.5 percentage points in Q3 2015 whilst the largest was 16.0 percentage points in Q1 2012.

\textsuperscript{767} The research identified that the average age respondents felt to represent the ‘older’ age group was 46 to 67 years old.

\textsuperscript{768} The respective percentages were: 46.9\% ‘difficulty in getting a job’; 24.0\% ‘being made redundant’; and, 18.5\% ‘job insecurity’

\textsuperscript{769} Equality Commission for Northern Ireland (2008) Awareness of the age regulations and attitudes of the general public in Northern Ireland towards age-related issues.
Those aged 50-64 years old are more likely to be economically inactive than those aged 25-49 years old.

9.18 The lower employment rate for people aged 50-64 years old is supported by the identification of a higher economic inactivity rate for this age group.

9.19 Raeside et al (2014) found that, at each time point, between 2006 and 2012, those aged 25-49 years old experienced lower rates of economic inactivity than those aged 50-64 years old.

9.20 Similarly, the Commission’s analysis of LFS data over the period 2012 to 2016, found that those aged 50-64 years old experienced rates of economic inactivity that were higher than the rates experienced by 25-49 year olds.

9.21 For people over 50 years, participation in employment can be influenced by health status, rising retirement age and family circumstances. According to Census 2011, the proportion of people who are in poor health or who have a disability increases with age and this may impact on their ability to participate in and/or sustain employment.

9.22 In addition, Magill and McPeake (2016) established that ‘…older people still make up a much larger proportion of the inactive stock, and also a larger proportion of recent inflow to inactivity.’ The authors state that, ‘The recently observed sharp rise in the proportion people who are long-term sick amongst the 50-64 age group may be linked to rising retirement ages, particularly

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771 The economic inactivity rate for those aged 18-24 years old was 43.2% in Q1 2012 and 28.6% in Q1 2016. The economic inactivity rate for those aged 50-64 years old was 36.2% in Q1 2012 and 33.2% in Q1 2016.; The economic inactivity rate for those aged 25-49 years old was 14.1% in Q1 2012 and 16.7% in Q1 2016.

772 Raeside et al.’s (2014) analysis considered data from Q1 2006 to Q1 2012; the Commission’s considered data between Q1 2012 and Q1 2016.

amongst women.’ They finish by saying that, ‘As the goalposts for the State Pension are shifted further into the distance some older people who find themselves outside the labour market may have turned towards disability benefits if they have not saved enough to fund their retirement.’

9.23 The increase economic inactivity for those aged 50-64 years of age may also be related to their provision of informal childcare. Magill and McPeake, referencing Dennison (2015), state that, ‘...half of parents use informal childcare, and almost four fifths of ‘informal childcare’ is provided by grandparents. Although the precise quantum is unclear, there is evidence to suggest that the high cost of childcare extends well beyond parental employment and in many cases has led to grandparents giving up work’.

9.24 In 2016, the Employers for Childcare survey reported that ‘many of the parents in the survey stated that the grandparents had changed their working hours, left work or turned down work in order to provide childcare, the financial impact of this is much greater, particular through the reduction in a grandparent’s earning power’.

Differences

9.25 A number of differences in employment on the grounds of age where identified in this section. Further evidence is required to establish whether these differences are inequalities due to barriers to employment.

9.26 It should be noted that younger people between 18-24 years may be students (in third level or further education) and/or on government training schemes and therefore, may be less likely to be classed as in employment and more likely to be classed as economically inactive. In addition, those aged 50-64 years have the opportunity to retire early and this may also impact on the proportion of those classed in employment or economically inactive.

Those aged 18-24 years old have lower employment rates than those aged 25 years and older.

9.27 Raeside et al.’s (2014) analysis of LFS data showed that the employment rates for those aged 18-24 years old were consistently lower than those aged 25-49 years old between 2006 and 2012\textsuperscript{778}. In addition, between 2009 and 2016, there was an emergent gap in employment rates, with the employment rate lower for those aged 18-24 years old than those aged 50-64 year olds\textsuperscript{779, 780}.

9.28 Similarly, the Commission’s analysis of LFS data between 2012 and 2016 found that, those aged 18-24 years old had lower rates of employment than those aged 25-49 years old and 50-64 years old\textsuperscript{781}. Between 2012 and 2016 there was a narrowing of the employment gap between those aged 18-24 years old and those aged 25-49 years old and 50-64 years old\textsuperscript{782 783}.

\textsuperscript{780} The Commission could not discern the actual proportions from Raeside et al.’s (2014) research. However, a gap beginning in Q1 2009 is clearly visible in the graphical representations provided on page 52 of the research report.
\textsuperscript{781} Between Q1, 2012-Q1, 2016 the employment rate for 18-24 years olds was in the range 46.6%-59.0%, the range for 25-49 year olds was 77.9%-81.1% and the range for 50-64 year olds was 60.5%-64.3%.
\textsuperscript{782} The gap in the employment rates of those aged 18-24 years old compared to those aged 25-49 years old was 34.5 percentage points in Q1 2012 compared to 20.5 percentage points in Q1 2016.
\textsuperscript{783} The gap in the employment rates of those aged 18-24 years old compared to those aged 50-64 years old was 14.3 percentage points in Q1 2012 compared to 5.0 percentage points in Q1 2016.
Raeside et al (2014)\textsuperscript{784} found that, at each time point, between 2006 and 2012, those aged 25-49 years old experienced lower rates of economic inactivity than those aged 18-24 years old\textsuperscript{785}.

Similarly, the Commission’s analysis of LFS data over the period 2012 to 2016, found that those aged 18-24 years old experienced rates of economic inactivity that were higher than the rates experienced by 25-49 year olds\textsuperscript{786}.

There is insufficient evidence that higher rates of economic activity arise from barriers to employment and therefore constitute an inequality. It should be noted that younger people between 18-24 years old may be students (in third level or further education) and/or on government training schemes and therefore, may be less likely to be classed as in employment and more likely to be classed as economically inactive, as noted below.

The Commission’s analysis of LFS data showed that, between 2012 and 2016 men aged 18-24 years old were more likely to be employed on a part time basis than those aged 25 years old and older. In Quarter one 2016\textsuperscript{787}, over a quarter (28.2%) of 18-24


\textsuperscript{785} The economic inactivity rate for those aged 18-24 years old was 43.2% in Q1 2012 and 28.6% in Q1 2016. The economic inactivity rate for those aged 50-64 years old was 36.2% in Q1 2012 and 33.2% in Q1 2016. The economic inactivity rate for those aged 25-49 years old was 14.1% in Q1 2012 and 16.7% in Q1 2016.

\textsuperscript{786} Raeside et al.’s (2014) analysis considered data from Q1 2006 to Q1 2012; the Commission’s considered data between Q1 2012 and Q1 2016.

\textsuperscript{787} Quarter 1 in each of the following years was considered: 2012; 2013; 2014; 2015; and, 2016.
year old men were employed part-time compared to 5.2% of 25-49 year old men and 8.6% of 50-64 year old men.

9.33 Between 2012 and 2016\(^{788}\), men aged 18-24 years old were between 2.7 to 6.1 times more likely to work part time than men aged 25-49 years old\(^ {789}\) and, 1.8 to 5.0 times more likely to work part time than men aged 50-64 years old\(^ {790}\).

**Difference**

Those aged 25 years and older are less likely to work in the private sector than those aged 18-24 years old.

9.34 Raeside *et al.* (2014) identified that private sector employment was more common for those aged 18-24 years old than for those aged 25-64 years old between 2006 and 2012\(^ {791}\).

9.35 The Commission, upon its analysis of LFS data, also found that between 2012 and 2016; those aged 25 years and older were less likely to work in the private sector than those aged 18-24 years old. In Quarter one 2016\(^ {792}\), the vast majority (95.7%) of 18-24 year olds worked in private sector employment compared to nearly three quarters (71.3%) of 25-49 year olds and nearly two thirds (64.6%) of 50-64 year olds. Between 2012 and 2016 private sector employment increased for 18-24 year olds\(^ {793}\) and for 25-49 year olds\(^ {794}\) and remained stable for 50-64 year olds\(^ {795}\).

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\(^{788}\) The part time employment rates for those aged 18-24 years old were 26.2% in Q1 2012; 30.1% in Q1 2013; 30.3% in Q1 2014; 35.7% in Q1 2015; and, 28.2% in Q1 2016. The part time employment rates for those aged 25-49 years old were 5.2 in Q1 2012; 7.5% in Q1 2013; 7.2% in Q1 2014; 5.9% in Q1 2015; and, 5.2% in Q1 2016. The part time employment rates for those aged 50-64 years old were 10.0% in Q1 2012; 10.0% in Q1 2013; 10.6% in Q1 2014; 7.1% in Q1 2015; and, 8.6% in Q1 2016.

\(^{789}\) Men aged 18-24 years old were 2.7 times more likely to be employed part time than men aged 25-49 years old in Q3 2014 and 6.1 times more likely in Q1 2015.

\(^{790}\) Men aged 50-64 years old were 1.8 times more likely to be employed part time than men aged 50-64 years old in Q3 2014 and 5.0 times more likely in Q1 2015.


\(^{792}\) Quarter 1 in each of the following years was considered: 2012; 2013; 2014; 2015; and, 2016.

\(^{793}\) The private sector employment rate for those aged 18-24 years old in Q1 2012 was 88.0% compared to 95.7% in Q1 2016; an increase of 7.7 percentage points.

\(^{794}\) The private sector employment rate for those aged 25-49 years old in Q1 2012 was 68.5% compared to 71.3% in Q1 2016; an increase of 2.8 percentage points.

\(^{795}\) The private sector employment rate for those aged 50-64 years old in Q1 2012 was 64.3% compared to 64.6% in Q1 2016; an increase of 0.3 percentage points.
Both Raeside et al. (2014)\textsuperscript{796} and the Commission noted that women are less likely to work in the private sector than men. The Commission extended its analysis of LFS data over the period 2012 to 2016 to take into account both the gender and age of those in private sector employment.

The results of this analysis show that in Quarter one 2016, employment in the private sector was less likely for women than men in all age groups\textsuperscript{797}. However, the gender gap in private sector employment was smaller for 18-24 year old women (at 5.2-percentage points)\textsuperscript{798} than for 25-49 year old women (at 20.6-percentage points)\textsuperscript{799} and 50-64 year old women (at 24.6-percentage points)\textsuperscript{800}. Therefore, women aged 25 years and older are least likely to work in the private sector than men aged 25 years and older and both men and women aged 18-24 years.

Between 2012 and 2016, the gender gap in private sector employment had narrowed by 8.5-percentage points for 18-24 year old women\textsuperscript{801} but had increased for 25-49 year old women.

\textsuperscript{797} The private sector employment rates were 98.1\% in Q1 2016 for men and 92.9\% for women aged 18-24 years. The private sector employment rates were 98.1\% in Q1 2016 for men and 92.9\% for women aged 18-24 years. The private sector employment rates were 75.6\% in Q1 2016 for men and 51.0\% for women aged 50-64 years.
\textsuperscript{798} The private sector employment rates were 98.1\% in Q1 2016 for men and 92.9\% for women aged 18-24 years.
\textsuperscript{799} The private sector employment rates were 81.7\% in Q1 2016 for men and 59.6\% for women aged 25-49 years.
\textsuperscript{800} The private sector employment rates were 75.6\% in Q1 2016 for men and 51.0\% for women aged 50-64 years.
\textsuperscript{801} The private sector employment rates for men aged 18-24 years were: 94.3\% in Q1 2012; 96.4\% in Q1 2013; 90.1\% in Q1 2014; 86.1\% in Q1 2015; and, 98.1\% in Q1 2016. In comparison, the private sector employment rates for women aged 18-24 years were: 80.6\% in Q1 2012; 86.9\% in Q1 2013; 90.6\% in Q1 2014; 80.1\% in Q1 2015; and, 92.9\% in Q1 2016. The gender gap in Q1 2012 was 13.7 percentage points compared to 5.2 percentage points in Q1 2016.
and 50-64 year old women (by 4.8-percentage points and 2.5-percentage points respectively)\textsuperscript{802, 803}.

9.39 In Raeside \textit{et al.}'s (2014) analysis of LFS data, the industry sector that accounted for the greatest proportion of 18-24 year olds in both 2006 and 2012 was the 'Distribution, Hotels and Restaurants' sector\textsuperscript{804, 805}. Similarly, the Commission's analysis of LFS data, between 2012 and 2016, confirmed that the greatest proportion of 18-24 year olds worked in this industry sector at each time point\textsuperscript{806}.

9.40 The Commission also found that, between 2012 and 2016, 18-24 year olds were over-represented in the 'Distribution, Hotels and Restaurants' sector, with proportionately more 18-24 year olds employed in this sector than their share of the Northern Ireland population\textsuperscript{807}.

\begin{itemize}
\item \textsuperscript{802} The private sector employment rates for men aged 25-49 years old were: 76.2% in Q1 2012; 81.7% in Q1 2013; 78.4% in Q1 2014; 80.2% in Q1 2015; and, 81.7% in Q1 2016. In comparison, the rates for women aged 25-49 years old were 60.4% in Q1 2012; 61.0% in Q1 2013; 61.7% in Q1 2014; 61.0% in Q1 2015; and, 59.6% in Q1 2016. The gender gap in Q1 2012 was 15.8 percentage points compared to 20.6 percentage points in Q1 2016.

\item \textsuperscript{803} The private sector employment rates for men aged 50-64 years old were: 74.4% in Q1 2012; 76.1% in Q1 2013; 75.4% in Q1 2014; 76.3% in Q1 2015; and, 75.6% in Q1 2016. In comparison, the rates for women aged 50-64 years old were 52.3% in Q1 2012; 53.2% in Q1 2013; 48.9% in Q1 2014; 53.1% in Q1 2015; and, 51.0% in Q1 2016. The gender gap in Q1 2012 was 22.1 percentage points compared to 24.6 percentage points in Q1 2016.


\item \textsuperscript{805} In Q1 2006 34.2% of 18-24 year-olds were employed in the 'Distribution, Hotels and Restaurants' sector compared to 37.6% in Q1 2012.

\item \textsuperscript{806} The Commission’s analysis was slightly different than Raeside \textit{et al.}'s (2014) due to seasonal adjustments: 38.0% at Q1 2012; 43.1% at Q1 2013; 44.1% at Q1 2014; 39.0% at Q1 2015; and, 40.8% at Q1 2016.

\item \textsuperscript{807} 15.8% of the population is 18-24 years according to Census 2011 and 15.0% of the population is 18-24 year old by 2015 population estimates. See: Census Table Usually Resident Population by single year of age and sex (statistical geographies) and NISRA (2016) 2015 Mid-year Population Estimates for Areas within Northern Ireland.
\end{itemize}
9.41 The Commission analysis of LFS industrial sector data over the period 2012 to 2016 showed that those aged 50-64 years old also experienced industrial segregation\(^{808}\).

9.42 Between 2012 and 2016, 50-64 year olds were under-represented in the ‘Distribution, Hotels and Restaurants’ sector\(^{809}\), and the ‘Banking and Finance’ sector\(^{810}\) sector with proportionately less 50-64 year olds employed in these sectors than their share of the Northern Ireland population\(^{811}\).

### Difference

Employees aged 50-64 years old are under-represented in the ‘Distribution, Hotels and Restaurants’; and, ‘Banking and Finance’ industry sectors.

9.43 Raeside et al.’s (2014)\(^{812}\) analysis of LFS data, found that greatest proportion of 18-24 year olds in 2012 were in ‘Sales and Customer Service’ and ‘Elementary Occupations’\(^{813}\). Similarly, the Commission’s analysis of LFS data\(^{814}\) found that, between

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\(^{808}\) Q1 in each year was analysed and compared.

\(^{809}\) Those aged 50-64 years old made up the following proportions of those employed in the ‘Distribution, Hotels and Restaurants’ sector: 19.6% in Q1 2012; 22.7% in Q1 2013; 18.4% in Q1 2014; 19.1% in Q1 2015; and, 17.1% in Q1 2016.

\(^{810}\) Those aged 50-64 years old made up the following proportions of those employed in the ‘Banking and Finance’ sector: 20.7% in Q1 2012; 19.2% in Q1 2013; 19.4% in Q1 2014; 24.9% in Q1 2015; and, 24.8% in Q1 2016.

\(^{811}\) 27.8% of the population is 50-64 years old according to Census 2011 and 29.9% of the population is 50-64 year old by 2015 population estimates. See: Census Table Usually Resident Population by single year of age and sex (statistical geographies) and NISRA (2016) 2015 Mid-year Population Estimates for Areas within Northern Ireland


\(^{813}\) Raeside et al. (2014) found that 22.8% of those aged 18-24 years old worked in ‘Sales and Customer Service’ occupations and 20.2% in ‘Elementary Occupations’.

\(^{814}\) The Commission’s analysis of Q1 2012 data was slightly different than Raeside et al.’s (2014) due to seasonal adjustments.
2012 and 2016, ‘Sales and Customer Services’\textsuperscript{815} and ‘Elementary Occupations’\textsuperscript{816} also accounted for the highest proportion of 18-24 year olds at each time point.

The Commission also found that, between 2012 and 2016, 18-24 year olds were over-represented in ‘Sales and Customer Service’\textsuperscript{817} and ‘Elementary Occupations’\textsuperscript{818}, with proportionately more 18-24 year olds employed in these occupations than their share of the Northern Ireland population\textsuperscript{819}.

\textsuperscript{815} The proportion of those aged 18-24 years old employed in ‘Sales and Customer Service’ occupations were: 23.1\% in Q1 2012; 21.8\% in Q1 2013; 22.8\% in Q1 2014; 20.7\% in Q1 2015; and, 32.7\% in Q1 2016.

\textsuperscript{816} The proportion of those aged 18-24 years old employed in ‘Elementary Occupations’ were: 20.1\% in Q1 2012; 25.9\% in Q1 2013; 25.5\% in Q1 2014; 18.1\% in Q1 2015; and, 20.2\% in Q1 2016.

\textsuperscript{817} Those aged 18-24 years old made up the following proportions of those employed in the ‘Sales and Customer Service’ occupations: 28.8\% in Q1 2012; 25.9\% in Q1 2013; 33.8\% in Q1 2014; 25.1\% in Q1 2015; and, 35.0\% in Q1 2016.

\textsuperscript{818} Those aged 18-24 years old made up the following proportions of those employed in ‘Elementary Occupations’: 17.6\% in Q1 2012; 23.7\% in Q1 2013; 23.7\% in Q1 2014; 17.8\% in Q1 2015; and, 21.4\% in Q1 2016.

\textsuperscript{819} 15.8\% of the population is 18-24 years according to Census 2011 and 15.0\% of the population is 18-24 year old by 2015 population estimates. See: Census Table Usually Resident Population by single year of age and sex (statistical geographies) and NISRA (2016) 2015 Mid-year Population Estimates for Areas within Northern Ireland
10 Sexual Orientation

10.1 Little background or contextual data is available on lesbian, gay and bisexual people in Northern Ireland. There are currently no or limited statistics (for example, the Census, government administrative datasets) that monitor the sexual orientation of the population.

10.2 In addition, where sexual orientation has been recorded there have been issues with comparability between surveys due to a lack of standardisation of questions and the complexity of the subject. Raeside et al. (2014) reported that ‘there is at present no reliable information on the size of the lesbian, gay and bisexual (LGB) population in the UK because of problems of question content, wording and categorisation for sexual orientation surveys’.

10.3 Different definitions and measurement of sexual orientation, in turn, can contribute to differential estimations of sexual orientation in the population. As yet, no population studies have established a comprehensive means to address the complexity of measuring sexual orientation.

10.4 Limited information on sexual orientation is available from surveys; however, it is unknown how representative these statistics are of the population as a whole. In 2014, the ONS Integrated Household Survey as part of its sexual identity project, indicated that in Northern Ireland, 1.6% of respondents identified as lesbian, gay or bisexual, while 0.3% identified their sexual orientation as “other”, 4.0% did not know or refused to answer while 1.2% did not respond to the question. In addition, in 2014, the NILTS found that, 1% of its respondents reported being lesbian or gay, 1% said they were bisexual with 5% refusing to answer the question.

Summary

10.5 There are inequalities related to attitudes toward lesbian, gay and bisexual people in employment. Lesbian, gay and bisexual employees are subject to prejudicial attitudes in the workplace. Lesbian, gay and bisexual people often face negative comments and bullying at work due to their sexuality, and may be reluctant to come out in the workplace due to fears of victimisation. Prejudicial attitudes may impact on the ability of lesbian, gay and bisexual people to participate in employment and sustain employment.

10.6 There are data gaps in relation to the experience of lesbian, gay and bisexual people in the labour market. These gaps mean that it is difficult to monitor inequalities in relation to participation in employment and sustaining employment for lesbian, gay and bisexual people in Northern Ireland.

Key Inequalities

Lesbian, gay and bisexual employees are subject to prejudicial attitudes in the workplace.

10.7 There is evidence that lesbian, gay and bisexual (LGB) employees may be at risk of prejudicial attitudes and discrimination.

10.8 The Northern Ireland Life and Times Survey (NILTS) for the years 2012 and 2013 included a module on attitudes to LGB people in Northern Ireland\textsuperscript{825, 826}. The survey asked respondents to state how comfortable they would be with a gay or lesbian: work colleague; boss in a new job; or, someone they manage in a new job. Attitudes toward gay and lesbian people were very positive in these hypothetical scenarios. In 2013, most respondents were either very or fairly comfortable with a lesbian or gay person as work colleague (91%); boss in a new job (79%); or, someone they

\textsuperscript{825} ARK. Northern Ireland Life and Times Survey, 2012 [computer file]. ARK www.ark.ac.uk/nilt [distributor], June 2013.

\textsuperscript{826} ARK. Northern Ireland Life and Times Survey, 2013 [computer file]. ARK www.ark.ac.uk/nilt [distributor], June 2014.
manage in a new job (78%). However, around a tenth were either fairly or very uncomfortable with a lesbian or gay person as a work colleague (9%); boss in a new job (10%); or, someone they manage in a new job (9%)827.

10.9 Research on the experiences of LGB people in the workplace in Northern Ireland and Great Britain indicates that lesbian, gay, and bisexual people may be subject to prejudicial attitudes, bullying and harassment on the grounds of sexual orientation.

10.10 In 2016, an online survey of 410 Lesbian, Gay, Bisexual and Trans (LGBT) people by the Rainbow Project reported, “isolation, discrimination, prejudice and fear are still everyday experiences for some of the most vulnerable in this community”828. Homophobic/transphobic language was still found to be present in the workplace, with 52% of female and 49% of male respondents having “heard negative comments about LGB&T people inside the workplace”829. The majority of respondents had heard such comments from work colleagues830.

10.11 In addition, McDermott (2011) reported that 31% of LGB respondents in the community, voluntary and nongovernmental sector, and around two fifths of respondents working in the public (40%) and private sectors (42.5%) had ‘heard negative comments about LGB people from a colleague or colleagues in the workplace’ that made them feel uncomfortable831.

10.12 Moreover, around a fifth (19.9%) of respondents from the private sector and 17.9% from the community, voluntary and nongovernmental sector respondents and 15.1% of public sector

827 The percentages for a gay or lesbian work colleague were 8% in 2012 and 9% in 2013, respectively. The percentages for a gay or lesbian gay or lesbian boss in a new job were 10% in 2012 and 10% in 2013, respectively. The percentages for a gay or lesbian person as someone they manage in a new job were 9% in 2012 and 9% in 2013, respectively.
829 O’Doherty J (2016). OUTstanding in your field: Exploring the needs of LGB&T people in rural Northern Ireland. The Rainbow project: Belfast, Page 66
830 O’Doherty J (2016). OUTstanding in your field: Exploring the needs of LGB&T people in rural Northern Ireland. The Rainbow project: Belfast, Page 66
respondents had felt uncomfortable at work due to a negative comments directed at them due to their sexual orientation.  

10.13 McDermott’s (2011) study also found that around a quarter (26.2%) of respondents in the community, voluntary and nongovernmental sector, and a fifth of respondents in the public (21.0%) and private sector (21.6%) felt that light-hearted comments about their sexual orientation in the workplace also made them feel uncomfortable.

10.14 A study conducted by YouGov for Stonewall in Great Britain (Guasp, 2013) asked respondents about their experiences of verbal bullying. It found that nearly a fifth of respondents had ‘experienced verbal bullying from colleagues, customers or service users because of their sexual orientation in the last five years’.

10.15 More specifically, 15% had experienced bullying from colleagues and 8% from customers, clients and service users in the previous five years. With regard to bullying from colleagues, the bullying experienced was most often from members of their own or a different work team. It was also found that around a third of those colleagues who bullied were either senior to the LGB employee (35%) or their manager (30%).

10.16 Research has also revealed that lesbian, gay and bisexual people are often reluctant to reveal their sexual identity in the workplace due to fears of victimisation. In 2016, O'Doherty found that over a quarter (27.4%) of male respondents and 16% of female respondents reported “not being ‘out’ to anyone they work or volunteer with. In addition, respondents from rural areas were

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832 McDermott, M (2011) *Through Our Eyes, Experiences of Lesbian, Gay and Bisexual People in the Workplace*.
833 McDermott, M (2011) *Through Our Eyes, Experiences of Lesbian, Gay and Bisexual People in the Workplace*.
over twice as likely (32.6%) to report not being ‘out’ to anyone in the workplace than those from urban areas (14%)\textsuperscript{839}.

10.17 Moreover, McDermott (2011) found that around a quarter of respondents in the private (26.9%) and public sector (24.5%) indicated that they concealed their sexual orientation from both work colleagues and clients\textsuperscript{840}.

10.18 However, McDermott (2011) found that younger respondents of 16-29 years (18.0%) or 30-44 years (21.2%) were less likely to conceal their sexual orientation at work compared respondents aged 45-59 years (33.9%) and those aged 60-74 years old (30.8%)\textsuperscript{841}.

10.19 A Great Britain based study conducted by YouGov on behalf of Stonewall (Guasp, 2013) also found age differences in whether or not LGB employees were ‘out to colleagues’, those aged 18 to 29 years old and those aged 50 years old or older were less likely to be ‘out to colleagues’ than those aged 30 to 50 years old\textsuperscript{842}.

10.20 In addition, the YouGov study (Guasp, 2013) found that bisexual employees were less likely than gay or lesbian employees to share their sexual orientation with work colleagues\textsuperscript{843, 844}.

10.21 Miles’ Great Britain based research (2008) focused on lesbian and bisexual women within the workplace. Whilst some of Miles’ (2008) interviewees felt that being open about their sexual orientation at work ‘gave them an unequivocal advantage in terms of networking, career development and raising their profile in the organisation’\textsuperscript{845}, many did not feel able to disclose their sexual orientation within the workplace due to concerns about how their employment opportunities might be affected\textsuperscript{846}.

\textsuperscript{839} Ibid, Page 64.
\textsuperscript{840} McDermott, M (2011) Through Our Eyes. Experiences of Lesbian, Gay and Bisexual People in the Workplace.
\textsuperscript{841} McDermott, M (2011) Through Our Eyes. Experiences of Lesbian, Gay and Bisexual People in the Workplace.
\textsuperscript{842} Guasp, A. (2013) Gay in Britain. Lesbian, Gay and Bisexual People’s Experiences and Expectations of Discrimination.
\textsuperscript{843} Guasp (2013) reported that 60% of bisexual men and 37% of bisexual women were ‘not out to any of their colleagues’ compared to 15% of gay men and 6% of lesbians.
When asked about the impact of sexual orientation on career development, most respondents in O'Doherty’s (2016) study did not feel that their sexual orientation would have an impact on their progression at work. However, over a third (35.3%) of male respondents and over a fifth (21%) of female respondents felt that it would have a negative impact on career progression\textsuperscript{847}. LGB&T respondents living in rural areas were almost twice as likely (41%) to report that being open about their sexual orientation and/or gender identity would have a negative impact on their career progression compared to respondents living in an urban area (20.7%)\textsuperscript{848}.

In addition, in 2011\textsuperscript{849}, less than a third (31.7%) of respondents in the private sector, over a quarter (26.3%) in the public sector and over a fifth (21.4%) in the community, voluntary and nongovernmental sector perceived that their sexual orientation would have a negative impact on their career\textsuperscript{850}.

Many of the barriers and challenges in employment faced by lesbian, gay and bisexual people may be linked back to their experiences in education. In 2016, O'Doherty reported that ‘negative educational experiences for young LGB&T people can have long-reaching impacts on their mental health, self-esteem and potential employment opportunities’\textsuperscript{851}.

O’Doherty (2016) highlighted that ‘a growing body of research indicates that LGB&T young people are more likely than their heterosexual peers to experience bullying, exclusion and intimidation in the educational institution’\textsuperscript{852}.

In 2017, a survey of 270 LGB&T children and young people highlighted that over two thirds (68%) of respondents reported being bullied in school as a result of their sexual orientation

\textsuperscript{849} Mc Dermott, M (2011) Through Our Eyes. Experiences of Lesbian, Gay and Bisexual People in the Workplace.
\textsuperscript{850} Mc Dermott, M (2011) Through Our Eyes. Experiences of Lesbian, Gay and Bisexual People in the Workplace.
\textsuperscript{851} O’Doherty J (2016). OUTstanding in your field: Exploring the needs of LGB&T people in rural Northern Ireland. The Rainbow Project: Belfast, Page 54
and/or gender identity\textsuperscript{853}. Moreover, O’Doherty (2016) highlighted that the majority of respondents (88.5\%) had heard homophobic / transphobic language in school/college with over half (55.4\%) reporting hearing homophobic/transphobic language every day (55.4\%). Male respondents were more likely to report having heard homophobic/transphobic language “most days” or “every day” (68.4\%) than female respondents (42.4\%)\textsuperscript{854}.

10.27 As stated previously in the section on Trans people, negative educational experiences can influence attendance and educational attainment\textsuperscript{855} which, may be a barrier to accessing employment opportunities in the future.

### Key Inequality

**There are data gaps in relation to the experience of lesbian, gay and bisexual people in the labour market.**

10.28 Little information is available on the employment opportunities of lesbian, gay and bisexual (LGB) individuals in Northern Ireland due to a lack of monitoring of this equality group in official statistics\textsuperscript{856}.

10.29 Therefore, data on sexual orientation and the Northern Ireland labour market is not available from surveys such as the Labour Force Survey\textsuperscript{857}.

\textsuperscript{853} Neill G and Meehan D (2017) Still Shouting: The needs and experiences of young people in Northern Ireland who identify as lesbian, gay, bisexual and/or transgender (LGBT). Cara-Fried and YouthAction: Belfast.


\textsuperscript{855} Neill G and Meehan D (2017) Still Shouting: The needs and experiences of young people in Northern Ireland who identify as lesbian, gay, bisexual and/or transgender (LGBT). Cara-Fried and YouthAction: Belfast.


11 Marital Status

Summary

11.1 A number of differences in employment on the grounds of marital status where identified in this section. Further evidence is required to establish whether these differences are inequalities.

Differences

Those who are single are more likely to be economically inactive than those who are married, co-habiting or in a civil partnership.

11.2 Raeside et al. (2014) found that, between 2006 and 2012, those who were single had higher rates of economic inactivity than those who were married, co-habiting or in a civil partnership.

11.3 Similarly, the Commission’s analysis of LFS data found that, between 2012 and 2016, those who were single and have never been married had higher rates of economic inactivity than those who were married, co-habiting or in a civil partnership.

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859 In Q1 35.9% of those who were single and have never married were economically inactive compared to 34.4% in Q1 2013; 32.0% in Q1 2014; 33.7% in Q1 2015; and, 31.6% in Q1 2016.

860 In Q1 19.1% of those who were married, co-habiting or in a civil partnership were economically inactive compared to 20.0% in Q1 2013; 19.8% in Q1 2014; 18.3% in Q1 2015; and, 18.0% in Q1 2016.
11.4 Raeside et al.’s (2014) analysis of LFS data over the period 2006 to 2012 found that those who were previously married but are now separated, divorced or widowed had consistently higher rates of economic inactivity than those who were married, co-habiting or in a civil partnership\(^{861}\).

11.5 Similarly, the Commission through its analysis of LFS data, found that, between 2012 and 2016, those who were previously married but are now separated, divorced or widowed\(^{862}\) maintained consistently higher rates of economic inactivity than those who were married, co-habiting or in a civil partnership and those who were single and have never married\(^{863}\).

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\(^{862}\) In Q1 37.2% of those who were previously married but are now separated, divorced or widowed were economically inactive compared to 34.0% in Q1 2013; 38.1% in Q1 2014; 41.6% in Q1 2015; and, 42.5% in Q1 2016.

\(^{863}\) From 2013. In Q4 2013 38.0% of those who were previously married but are now separated, divorced or widowed were economically inactive compared to 32.2% of those who were single and have never married; a 5.8 percentage point difference. This remained consistent until, and including, Q1 2016.


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Those who are separated, divorced or widowed are more likely to be economically inactive than those who are married, co-habiting or in a civil partnership.

11.6 Raeside et al.’s (2014) analysis of the Labour Force Survey (LFS) data showed that, in 2006 and 2012, those who were married, co-habiting or in a civil partnership consistently had higher rates of employment (76.6% and 81.5% respectively) than those who were single and have never married (61.6% and 56.1% respectively)\(^{864}\).
11.7 The Commission, through its analysis of LFS data, also found that, in 2016, those who were married, co-habiting or in a civil partnership had a higher rates of employment (80.1%) than those who were single and have never married (60.5%). In addition, between 2012 and 2016, there has been a slight narrowing of the gap between the two groups.\footnote{The Commission found the following employment rates for those who were married, co-habiting or in a civil partnership: 78.5% in Q1 2012; 78.1% in Q1 2013; 77.6% in Q1 2014; 80.0% in Q1 2015; and, 80.1% in Q1 2016.}

Difference

Those who are separated, divorced or widowed are less likely to be in employment than those who are married, co-habiting or in a civil partnership.

11.8 Raeside et al.’s (2014) analysis of LFS data found lower rates of employment for those who were previously married but are now separated, divorced or widowed compared to those who were married, co-habiting or in a civil partnership.\footnote{Raeside reported rate of employment for those who were previously married but are now separated, divorced or widowed: 61.7% in Q1 2006 and 63.2% in Q1 2012.}

11.9 Similarly, the Commission, through its analysis of LFS data, found that in 2016, those who were previously married but are now separated, divorced or widowed had lower rates of employment (52.3%) compared to those who were married, co-habiting or in a civil partnership (80.1%).

11.10 Between 2012 and 2016 there has been an increase in the employment gap; with a decrease in the employment rate for those who were previously married but are now separated, divorced or widowed\footnote{The Commission found the following employment rates for those who were previously married but are now separated, divorced or widowed: 58.6% in Q1 2012; 57.6% in Q1 2013; 56.0% in Q1 2014; 55.1% in Q1 2015; and, 52.3% in Q1 2016.} and an increase in the employment rate for those who were married, co-habiting or in a civil partnership.
11.11 Raeside et al. (2014) found a small difference in the rates of employment of those aged 25-49 years old who were previously married but are separated, divorced or widowed and those aged 25-49 years old who are single and have never been married in 2012 compared to 2006\textsuperscript{870,871}.

11.12 The Commission, from its analysis of LFS data over the period 2012 to 2016, also found the difference in rates to be small during 2012 and 2013\textsuperscript{872}. However, in 2014 the largest gap between the two groups was evident at 14.7 percentage points, before decreases were again evident in 2015 and 2016; in 2016 the 10.7 percentage point difference was still worthy of note\textsuperscript{873}.

11.13 Raeside et al. (2014)\textsuperscript{874} found that, between 2006 and 2012, those who were single and had never married had the highest unemployment rates of any marital status group.

11.14 Too few people who were previously married but are now separated, divorced or widowed were found in the LFS from 2012 to 2016 to allow analysis by the Commission\textsuperscript{875}. However, the Commission found that, in 2016, those who were single and...
never married were more likely to be unemployed (7.9%) than those who were married, co-habiting or in a civil partnership (1.9%). Between 2012 and 2016, those who were single and have never married were 3.2 to 5.6 times more likely to be unemployed than those who were married, co-habiting or in a civil partnership\textsuperscript{876}.

### Difference

Those who are separated, divorced or widowed are more likely to be in part-time employment than those who are married, co-habiting or in a civil partnership.

11.15 The Commission’s analysis of LFS data found that, between 2012 and 2016 the rate of part-time employment for those who were previously married but are now separated, divorced or widowed remained consistently higher compared to those who are married, co-habiting or in a civil partnership\textsuperscript{877}.

### Difference

Those aged 25-49 years old who are separated, divorced or widowed are more likely to be in part-time employment than those aged 50-64 years old who are separated, divorced or widowed.

11.16 The Commission’s analysis of LFS data over the period 2012 to 2016 found that, from 2014 to 2016, those aged 25-49 years old who were previously married but are now separated, divorced or widowed had higher rates of part-time employment than those aged 50-64 years old who were previously married but are now separated, divorced or widowed\textsuperscript{878}.

\textsuperscript{876} In Q1 2012 8.6% of those who were single and have never married were unemployed compared to 10.0% in Q1 2013; 8.3% in Q1 2014; 8.5% in Q1 2015; and, 7.9% in Q1 2016. The rates for those who were married, co-habiting or in a civil partnership were much lower at 2.4% in Q1 2012; 1.8% in Q1 2013; 2.6% in Q1 2014; 1.7% in Q1 2015; and, 1.9% in Q1 2016.

\textsuperscript{877} The rates for those who were previously married but are now separated, divorced or widowed were: 29.1% in Q1 2012; 29.8% in Q1 2013; 35.8% in Q1 2014; 31.5% in Q1 2015; and, 30.7% in Q1 2016. This was compared to the following rates for those who are married, co-habiting or in a civil partnership: 23.0% in Q1 2012; 22.8% in Q1 2013; 21.4% in Q1 2014; 20.6% in Q1 2015; and, 20.5% in Q1 2016.

\textsuperscript{878} The part-time employment rates for those aged 25-49 years old who were previously married but are now separated, divorced or widowed were: 43.4% in Q1 2014; 35.4% in Q1 2015; and, 43.7% in Q1 2016. This was compared to the following rates for those aged 50-64 years old who were
Both Raeside et al. (2014) and the Commission found that, between 2006 and 2012 and 2012 and 2016, those who were single and have never married had higher rates of private sector employment, than those who were married, co-habiting or in a civil partnership and those who were previously married but are now separated, divorced or widowed.\(^{879}\)

Raeside et al. (2014) found that, between 2006 and 2012, rates of employment in the private sector for those who were single were over ten percentage points higher\(^{880, 881}\) than for those who were married, co-habiting or in a civil partnership and those who were previously married but are now separated, divorced or widowed employment\(^{882, 883}\).

The Commission found that this trend was also persistent between 2012 and 2016. Between 2012 and 2016, the vast majority (over three quarters) of those who were single and have never married were in private sector employment, higher than private sector employment rates for those who were married, co-

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\(^{880}\) Between 2006 and 2012, the average rate of private sector employment was 77.9% for those who were single and have never married.


\(^{882}\) Between 2006 and 2012, the average rate of private sector employment was 66.2% for those who married, co-habiting or in a civil partnership and 65.8% for those who were previously married but are now separated, divorced or widowed.

habiting or in a civil partnership\textsuperscript{884} and those who were previously married but are now separated, divorced or widowed\textsuperscript{885}.

\begin{boxedtext}{Difference}
Those aged 25-49 years old who are separated, divorced or widowed are less likely to work in the private sector than those aged 50-64 years old who are separated, divorced or widowed.
\end{boxedtext}

11.20 The Commission analysed LFS data over the period 2012 to 2016 by marital status and age. It found that in 2016, those aged 25-49 years old who were previously married but are now separated, divorced or widowed had lower rates of private sector employment (65.5\%) than those aged 50-64 years old (80.6\%).

11.21 Between 2012 and 2016, the trend in private sector employment reversed for those separated, divorced or widowed in these two age groups. In 2012-2013, rates of private sector employment were higher for those aged 25-49 years old compared to those aged 50-64 years old. However, in 2014 the employment rates for the two age groups converged, and reversed in 2015, culminating in a higher private sector employment for 50-64 year olds who are separated, divorced or widowed in 2016\textsuperscript{886}.

\begin{boxedtext}{Difference}
Those who are single are over-represented in some industries and under-represented in others.
\end{boxedtext}

11.22 Through its analysis of LFS data, the Commission found that those who were single and have never married were more likely to work in the ‘Distribution, Hotels and Restaurants’ industry.

\textsuperscript{884} The rates of private sector employment were: 65.2\% in Q1 2012; 67.7\% in Q1 2013; 66.5\% in Q1 2014; 67.3\% in Q1 2015; and, 66.5\% in Q1 2016 for those who were married, co-habiting or in a civil partnership. This was compared to rates of: 78.1\% in Q1 2012; 80.9\% in Q1 2013; 79.9\% in Q1 2014; 78.3\% in Q1 2015; and, 81.8\% in Q1 2016 for those who were single and have never married.

\textsuperscript{885} The private sector employment rates for those who were previously married but are now separated, divorced or widowed were: 69.2\% in Q1 2012; 67.2\% in Q1 2013; 61.5\% in Q1 2014; 64.5\% in Q1 2015; and, 79.8\% in Q1 2016.

\textsuperscript{886} In Q1 2016, 65.5\% of those aged 25-49 years old who were previously married but are now separated, divorced or widowed were in private sector employment compared to 80.6\% of those aged 50-64 years old in the same marital status category.
sector than those who were married, co-habiting or in a civil partnership. In addition, they were less likely to work in the 'Public, Administration, Education and Health' industry sector than those who were married, co-habiting or in a civil partnership and those who were previously married but are now separated, divorced or widowed.

11.23 The Commission found that, between 2012 and 2016, those who were single and have never married were overrepresented in the 'Distribution, Hotels and Restaurants' industry sector compared to their proportionate share of the employed population.

11.24 Raeside et al.'s (2014) analysis LFS data from 2006-2012 found that, those who were single and have never married were overrepresented in the lower level occupation groups. The Commission’s analysis also found that, between 2012 and 2016, those who were single and have never married were more likely

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887 In Q1 2012 28.4% of those who were single and have never married worked in the 'Distribution, Hotels and Restaurants' industry sector, this remained fairly stable at 27.2% in Q1 2013; 27.3% in Q1 2014; 25.2% in Q1 2015; and, 28.4% in Q1 2016.
888 In Q1 2012 14.5% of those who were married, co-habiting or in a civil partnership worked in the 'Distribution, Hotels and Restaurants' industry sector, this remained fairly stable at 16.6% in Q1 2013; 13.2% in Q1 2014; 13.5% in Q1 2015; and, 16.6% in Q1 2016.
889 In Q1 2012 11.7% of those who were single and have never married worked in the 'Public, Administration, Education and Health' industry sector, this was compared to: 13.8% in Q1 2013; 13.3% in Q1 2014; 11.7% in Q1 2015; and, 14.3% in Q1 2016.
890 In Q1 2012 9.9% of those who were married, co-habiting or in a civil partnership worked in the 'Public, Administration, Education and Health' industry sector, this was compared to: 11.2% in Q1 2013; 11.1% in Q1 2014; 10.2% in Q1 2015; and, 11.9% in Q1 2016.
891 In Q1 2012 39.7% of those who were previously married but are now separated, divorced or widowed worked in the 'Public, Administration, Education and Health' industry sector, this was compared to: 43.7% in Q1 2013; 44.9% in Q1 2014; 34.2% in Q1 2015; and, 36.1% in Q1 2016.
892 Those single and have never married made up the following proportions of the workforce in the 'Distribution, Hotels and Restaurants' sector: 45.8% in Q1 2012; 44.7% in Q1 2013; 53.5%; 47.9%; and, 48.6%.
893 35.1% of those who are in employment are single and never married; 54.8% of those employed are married, cohabiting or in a civil partnership; 10.1% of those employed are separated, divorced or widowed. Census Table CT0306NI: Marital or civil partnership status by economic activity. Produced by NISRA upon request.
to work in four occupation sectors: ‘Professional’\textsuperscript{894}, ‘Skilled Trades’\textsuperscript{895}, ‘Sales and Customer Service’\textsuperscript{896}, and, ‘Elementary’\textsuperscript{897} occupations.

11.25 The Commission found that, between 2012 and 2016, those who were single and have never married were over-represented in ‘Sales and Customer Service’\textsuperscript{898} and ‘Elementary’\textsuperscript{899} occupations and under-represented in ‘Managers and Senior Officials’\textsuperscript{900}, ‘Professional’\textsuperscript{901}, and, ‘Administrative and Secretarial’\textsuperscript{902} occupations compared to their proportionate share of the employed population\textsuperscript{903}.

\textsuperscript{894} The following proportions of those who were single and have never married were employed in ‘Professional Occupations’ between 2012 and 2016: 12.4\% in Q1 2012; 12.5\% in Q1 2013; 14.0\% in Q1 2014; 14.9\% in Q1 2015; and, 13.1\% in Q1 2016, respectively.
\textsuperscript{895} The following proportions of those who were single and have never married were employed in ‘Skilled Trades’ occupations between 2012 and 2016: 15.4\% in Q1 2012; 13.1\% in Q1 2013; 14.0\% in Q1 2014; 15.1\% in Q1 2015; and, 13.3\% in Q1 2016, respectively.
\textsuperscript{896} The following proportions of those who were single and have never married were employed in ‘Sales and Customer Service’ occupations between 2012 and 2016: 13.6\% in Q1 2012; 12.9\% in Q1 2013; 12.2\% in Q1 2014; 12.2\% in Q1 2015; and, 19.5\% in Q1 2016, respectively.
\textsuperscript{897} The following proportions of those who were single and have never married were employed in ‘Elementary’ occupations between 2012 and 2016: 17.0\% in Q1 2012; 15.9\% in Q1 2013; 16.3\% in Q1 2014; 13.4\% in Q1 2015; and, 15.4\% in Q1 2016, respectively.
\textsuperscript{898} The ‘Sales and Customer Service’ occupations sector workforce was made up of the following proportions of those who were single and have never married: 53.1\% in Q1 2012; 57.8\% in Q1 2013; 62.8\% in Q1 2014; 51.1\% in Q1 2015; and, 60.8\% in Q1 2016.
\textsuperscript{899} The ‘Elementary’ occupations sector workforce was made up of the following proportions of those who were single and have never married: 46.0\% in Q1 2012; 48.7\% in Q1 2013; 49.3\% in Q1 2014; 45.6\% in Q1 2015; and, 47.5\% in Q1 2016.
\textsuperscript{900} The ‘Managers and Senior Officials’ occupations sector workforce was made up of the following proportions of those who were single and have never married: 19.2\% in Q1 2012; 16.5\% in Q1 2013; 21.1\% in Q1 2014; 19.6\% in Q1 2015; and, 22.1\% in Q1 2016.
\textsuperscript{901} The ‘Professional’ occupations sector workforce was made up of the following proportions of those who were single and have never married: 20.8\% in Q1 2012; 23.1\% in Q1 2013; 26.0\% in Q1 2014; 27.3\% in Q1 2015; and, 26.7\% in Q1 2016.
\textsuperscript{902} The ‘Administrative and Secretarial’ occupations sector workforce was made up of the following proportions of those who were single and have never married: 28.7\% in Q1 2012; 28.5\% in Q1 2013; 37.3\% in Q1 2014; 30.8\% in Q1 2015; and, 27.6\% in Q1 2016.
\textsuperscript{903} 35.1\% of those who are in employment are single and never married; 54.8\% of those employed are married, cohabiting or in a civil partnership; 10.1\% of those employed are separated, divorced or widowed. Census Table CT0306NI: Marital or civil partnership status by economic activity. Produced by NISRA upon request.
12 Conclusions

12.1 This Statement has highlighted the nature and extent of inequalities in Northern Ireland across the nine Section 75 equality grounds. It is clear that there is a range of both emergent and persistent inequalities.

12.2 This reflects identified inequalities in employment, and brings to the fore a number of key inequalities that impacts on participation in employment and the sustainability of employment.

12.3 The Statement identified inequalities for people with disabilities; women; lone parents with dependents; carers; Irish Travellers; young people; older people; migrant workers and refugees; people from an ethnic minority community; Trans people and lesbian, gay and bisexual people in relation to employment.

12.4 People with disabilities were less likely to be in employment than non-disabled people. For people with disabilities, gaps in educational attainment may partially account for the large employment gap between people with and without disabilities. However, even when attainment is accounted for, participation in employment is still lower for people with disabilities. People with disabilities face additional barriers to participation in employment, such as access to transport, the accessibility of the physical environment, and access to support in employment. In addition, there are attitudinal barriers including stigma and discrimination, to the participation of disabled people in employment, particularly for those with mental ill health.

12.5 Women were less likely to be in employment than men, and lone parents with dependents were less likely to be in employment than people with no dependents or couples with dependents. For women, evidence suggested that caring responsibilities were associated with low rates of participation, and this was similar to but further compounded for lone parents with dependents who have sole responsibility for the care of their child. The availability of accessible and affordable childcare is potentially a major factor associated with whether women participate in employment. However, traditional gender stereotypes of women, attitudes of employers to flexible working and the economic situation of a household may also impact on whether a woman chooses to participate in employment.
12.6 Women were also more likely to be in part-time employment than men; and lone parents with dependents were more likely to be in part-time employment than people with no dependents or couples with dependents.

12.7 For women, and lone parents with dependents, evidence suggests that part-time working is one means of gaining the flexibility to balance caring responsibilities while retaining employment. However, research has shown that part-time employment is often associated with low paid jobs and atypical contracts and can therefore impact on the ability to sustain quality employment with a decent wage.

12.8 Irish Travellers were less likely to be in employment than any other ethnic group. For Irish Travellers, gaps in educational attainment may partially account for the large employment gap between them and other ethnic groups. However, for Irish Traveller women, a greater traditional emphasis on family and a lack of familiarity with and/or cultural resistance to the use of formal childcare are also major barriers to their participation in employment. Another major barrier is prejudice and discrimination both in society and in the workplace with discriminatory attitudes preventing them from participating in employment.

12.9 Young people aged 18-24 years old were also more likely to be unemployed than all other age groups which may have a lifelong impact on their participation on employment. Evidence has shown that young people who are not in employment, education or training (NEET) are more likely to have lifelong problems such as worklessness, poverty, limited employment opportunities, low wages and ill health

12.10 Older people, aged 50-64 years are less likely to be in employment and more likely to be economically inactive than those aged 25-49 years. Evidence has shown that for older people, barriers to employment include difficulty getting a job; being made redundant and job insecurity. Increases in economic inactivity have been linked to long-term sickness and rising retirement age. However, provision of informal caring is also a factor in rising rates of economic inactivity, with many in this age

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group providing informal care for grandchildren or sick/disabled relatives.

12.11 Migrant workers and refugees face multiple barriers that may impact on their ability to participate and progress in employment. Evidence highlights a lack of recognition of overseas qualifications, or lack of documentation in relation to qualifications can hinder migrant workers and refugees gaining employment in their area of expertise or progressing in employment. In addition, insufficient language proficiency can prevent migrant workers accessing or progressing in employment in their chosen area, particularly where the standard of English proficiency required is high. Finally, uncertainty among employers regarding immigration and employment law may create perceived legislative barriers for migrant workers and refugees accessing and sustaining employment in Northern Ireland.

12.12 In addition, migrant workers, women and lone parents with dependents experienced occupational and industrial segregation with individuals more likely to be in low-paid jobs, in low paid industries, in precarious employment, and/or on atypical contracts.

12.13 While many migrants use employment in lower level occupations as a step to gaining better employment in the future, language proficiency, a lack of recognition of qualifications and tied housing may impact on their ability to progress in employment. In addition, migrant workers are particularly vulnerable to exploitation in employment, including human trafficking, precarious employment with poor terms and conditions, which impacts on their ability to sustain good quality employment.

12.14 Prejudicial attitudes and discrimination can also impact on employment. Employer attitudes can represent a barrier to disabled people staying in employment. This is observed in the high proportion of inquiries to the Commission’s Discrimination Advice team in relation to disability discrimination in employment.

12.15 Attitudes can also act as a barrier to progression in employment. Evidence has identified that women are often perceived negatively by employers for asking for flexible working to balance caring responsibilities, with part-time working as a result perceived by many parents as being detrimental to career progression.
12.16 Societal attitudes and the attitudes of employers and work colleagues can also represent a barrier to migrant workers, Irish Travellers, minority ethnic groups, and Muslims sustaining and progressing in employment; with high levels of prejudicial attitudes identified against these groups in Northern Ireland.

12.17 In addition, lesbian, gay and bisexual people may face negative comments and bullying at work due to their sexuality, and may be reluctant to come out in the workplace due to fears of victimisation. For Trans people, prejudice, hostility and ignorance of Trans issues among work colleagues and employers is a key issue in employment.

**Gaps in Data**

12.18 The *Statement* also makes clear that there is a lack of robust employment data relating to a number of equality groups, including Trans people and lesbian, gay and bisexual people.

12.19 In addition, there is lack of data disaggregation in relation to: ethnicity; disability and, dependency status. For example, key employment datasets offer limited detail with regard to data on minority ethnic groups. Often, where information is collected the numbers in the survey are too low to report upon.

12.20 As noted by Irwin et al. (2014), monitoring by ethnicity currently ‘only takes account of language and country of origin. In other words, most aspects pertaining to ethnicity are ignored through official monitoring’.

12.21 Additionally, Irwin *et al.* (2014) note that there is ‘a lack of local-level data’. For example, on the sector of employment, job level and training undertaken by those from minority ethnic backgrounds. This is also found to be true for Irish Travellers where a lack of systematic data on employment has been noted.

12.22 There is also a lack of sufficient disaggregation of disability data across many official datasets and surveys, particularly in Northern Ireland, with data unable to be broken down by type of disability.

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age, gender, cultural background etc. For example, the Labour Force Survey (LFS) records seventeen categories of disability, however, it is not possible to present employment information for these individual categories. This is because the LFS is a sample survey and findings for many of these individual categories would not be robust or reliable given that sample sizes are small and the associated confidence intervals are large.

12.23 In addition, in 2014, a Northern Ireland Assembly paper on people with learning disabilities found that ‘none of the data sources discussed could be considered a comprehensive source of data on the prevalence of learning disabilities in Northern Ireland’\(^908\). This reinforces the findings of research commissioned by the United Nations Convention on the Rights of people with Disabilities’ (UNCRPD) International Mechanism for Northern Ireland (IMNI)\(^909\) and undertaken by Disability Action that there continues to be a lack of appropriate disaggregation of disability data in regards to Northern Ireland\(^910\).

12.24 Harper et al. (2014) reported that ‘the disaggregation of data is essential as disabled people are not a homogenous group and policies which have a positive effect on the majority of disabled people may adversely affect another group in their enjoyment of a particular right or service’\(^911\). The disaggregation of disability data is also a requirement of Article 31(2) of the UNCRPD\(^912\).

12.25 A lack of data significantly impacts not only the degree to which overall inequalities in employment are assessed and monitored, but also impacts on the ability to monitor and evaluate individual actions taken by Government Departments and others to address these inequalities.

12.26 The Commission recognises the on-going work of a wide range of stakeholders to tackle both inequalities and general issues in


\(^909\) IMNI consists of the Equality Commission for Northern Ireland and the Northern Ireland Human Rights Commission.


\(^912\) Available at: https://www.un.org/development/desa/disabilities/convention-on-the-rights-of-persons-with-disabilities.html
employment, and the potential offered by initiatives such as the Employment Strategy for People with Disabilities\textsuperscript{913}. Complex relationships exist between employment and other domains that will demand long-term multi-faceted policy interventions and it is clear from the evidence supporting the \textit{Statement} that significant challenges still remain.

12.27 We also recognise the key role we play in highlighting and addressing these challenges through effectively using our full range of powers and duties in terms of promotion, advice and enforcement, research and working with employers across all sectors to highlight and adopt good practice so as to improve outcomes for disadvantaged groups.

12.28 Government, public bodies and others should use this \textit{Statement} to take appropriate action to address these inequalities; including those pursuant to their equality and good relations duties under Section 75.

\textsuperscript{913} Department of Communities (2016) Employment Strategy for People with Disabilities. DoC: Belfast.
13 Annex 1

13.1 Rates of employment, unemployment and inactivity are based upon Labour Force Statistics, which are collated and presented on a quarterly basis\(^914\) \(^915\).

Terms Used

13.2 The table below presents Internal Labour Organisation definitions (ILO) used in this Statement; these are applicable to those aged 16 years old and older.

Table 1. ILO Terms and Definitions.\(^916\)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Economically active</th>
<th>Employed or unemployed in survey reference week.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Employed</td>
<td>In employment if worked at least one hour in reference week or those who were temporarily away from their job. Work includes being: an employee; self-employed; unpaid worker in family business; or, participants in government-supported training schemes.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unemployed</td>
<td>Those without work but are actively seeking work in past four weeks and are available to start work in next two weeks; or those who are out of work but have found a job and are waiting to start within the next two weeks.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Economically inactive</td>
<td>Those who are neither in employment nor unemployed.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\(^914\)Quarter 1, January to March; Quarter 2, April to June; Quarter 3, July to September; and, Quarter 4, October to December.


Population Demographics – Those in Employment

13.3 The demographics below add to, and update, the demographics presented in Raeside et al.’s (2014) research. The data was produced during the Commission’s analysis of LFS data over the period 2012 to 2015 and presents Quarter 1 information only.

13.4 Unless otherwise indicated the data presented is for those aged 16-64 years old (the working age population considered in this draft Statement).
Table 2. Proportion of each equality group in employment

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Equality Group</th>
<th>Time point</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Q1 2012</td>
<td>Q1 2013</td>
<td>Q1 2014</td>
<td>Q1 2015</td>
<td>Q1 2016</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>71.5%</td>
<td>69.8%</td>
<td>71.4%</td>
<td>73.4%</td>
<td>75.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>63.8%</td>
<td>63.5%</td>
<td>64.5%</td>
<td>63.7%</td>
<td>63.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18-24</td>
<td>46.6%</td>
<td>48.0%</td>
<td>52.0%</td>
<td>49.4%</td>
<td>59.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25-49</td>
<td>81.1%</td>
<td>79.0%</td>
<td>79.2%</td>
<td>81.1%</td>
<td>79.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50-64</td>
<td>60.9%</td>
<td>61.2%</td>
<td>62.4%</td>
<td>62.6%</td>
<td>64.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Community/Religious Background</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Catholic</td>
<td>65.0%</td>
<td>64.9%</td>
<td>64.4%</td>
<td>66.2%</td>
<td>68.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Protestant</td>
<td>70.4%</td>
<td>68.2%</td>
<td>68.9%</td>
<td>68.6%</td>
<td>69.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>63.3%</td>
<td>74.6%</td>
<td>71.4%</td>
<td>77.3%</td>
<td>57.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No Religion</td>
<td>69.7%</td>
<td>65.1%</td>
<td>80.1%</td>
<td>78.7%</td>
<td>72.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ethnicity</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UK &amp; Ireland</td>
<td>67.0%</td>
<td>66.1%</td>
<td>68.0%</td>
<td>67.9%</td>
<td>68.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eastern European</td>
<td>80.4%</td>
<td>81.8%</td>
<td>67.8%</td>
<td>83.6%</td>
<td>85.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others</td>
<td>74.2%</td>
<td>73.1%</td>
<td>73.9%</td>
<td>74.1%</td>
<td>72.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disability Status</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disabled</td>
<td>29.2%</td>
<td>32.2%</td>
<td>35.1%</td>
<td>32.7%</td>
<td>36.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not Disabled</td>
<td>74.7%</td>
<td>72.7%</td>
<td>76.0%</td>
<td>77.4%</td>
<td>77.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marital Status</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Single, never married</td>
<td>55.5%</td>
<td>55.6%</td>
<td>59.7%</td>
<td>57.8%</td>
<td>60.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Married/Co-habiting</td>
<td>78.5%</td>
<td>78.1%</td>
<td>77.6%</td>
<td>80.0%</td>
<td>80.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Separated/Divorced</td>
<td>58.6%</td>
<td>57.6%</td>
<td>56.0%</td>
<td>55.1%</td>
<td>52.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dependency Status</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Married or Co-habiting with dependent children</td>
<td>74.3%</td>
<td>71.5%</td>
<td>72.5%</td>
<td>73.3%</td>
<td>74.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lone parent with dependent children</td>
<td>41.8%</td>
<td>49.2%</td>
<td>45.6%</td>
<td>46.7%</td>
<td>50.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No dependent children</td>
<td>67.1%</td>
<td>66.3%</td>
<td>68.7%</td>
<td>68.6%</td>
<td>69.5%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 3. Equality group composition of those in employment.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Equality Group</th>
<th>Time point</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Q1 2012</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Gender</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>52.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>47.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Age</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18-24</td>
<td>10.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25-49</td>
<td>65.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50-64</td>
<td>24.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Community/Religious Background</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Catholic</td>
<td>41.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Protestant</td>
<td>46.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>2.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No Religion</td>
<td>8.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Ethnicity</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UK &amp; Ireland</td>
<td>92.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eastern European</td>
<td>3.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others</td>
<td>3.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Disability Status</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disabled</td>
<td>6.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not Disabled</td>
<td>93.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Marital Status</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Single, never married</td>
<td>31.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Married/Co-habiting</td>
<td>59.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Separated/Divorced</td>
<td>8.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Dependency Status</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Married or Co-habiting with dependent children</td>
<td>42.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lone parent with dependent children</td>
<td>5.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No dependent children</td>
<td>52.0%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
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