IDENTITY, EMPLOYMENT, AND INEQUALITY

IDENTITY, EMPLOYMENT, AND INEQUALITY: AN EXAMINATION OF IMMIGRANTS WITH DISABILITIES

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Lay Abstract

This thesis examines employment inequalities for workers with multiple identities, focusing on immigrants with disabilities. This thesis has three major findings. First, compared to those who were born in Canada and do not have disabilities, immigrants and people with disabilities are less likely to be on the job market and find a job. They receive lower employment income as well. However, immigrants who have disabilities are more likely to find a job than immigrants with no disabilities and those with disabilities who were born in Canada. Second, as the percentage of immigrants in a community increases, employment income for immigrants with disabilities decreases. Third, as the percentage of immigrants in a community increases, immigrants with disabilities' chance of being on the job market decreases. Perceived work discrimination plays a role in being on the job market as well. Based on these findings, I provide suggestions for employers, workers, policy makers, and society.

Abstract

Most extant studies on the relationship between workforce diversity and employment inequalities focus on the impact of a single disadvantaged identity on a single employment outcome such as pay or promotion at the organizational level. Thus, the relation between workers' multiple identities and different dimensions of employment inequalities within the broader social context remains unclear. The goal of this thesis is to start filling this gap. I start with developing a multilevel model of employment inequalities for workers with multiple identities by integrating the social identity theory, double jeopardy hypothesis, intergroup contact theory, and theory of minority group threat. I test this model with two empirical studies using Statistics Canada's nationally representative Canadian Survey on Disability (2012) linked with the National Household Survey (2011). Labour force participation, employment, and employment income are the dependent variables of this thesis. I examine the intersection of immigrant and disability identity dimensions by focusing on immigrants with disabilities (IwD) as compared to immigrants with no disabilities, Canadian-born with disabilities, and Canadian-born with no disabilities. Study 1 demonstrates that while immigrant and disability identities are independently negatively associated with employment and employment income, having both identities simultaneously has a positive effect on employment and employment income. Furthermore, with the increase of the residential area diversity (RAD), which is determined by the number of immigrants and people with disabilities in a community, IwD's

likelihood of employment increases but employment income decreases. Study 2 shows that the proportion of immigrants in a residential area (RA) is negatively associated with the likelihood of being in the labour force for IwD. Furthermore, perceived work discrimination is negatively associated with labour force participation for IwD. Moreover, perceived work discrimination mediates the relationship between the proportion of immigrants in an RA and labour force participation for IwD. This thesis contributes to theory by (i) developing a multi-level theoretical framework that demonstrate the complex relationship between individuals with multiple identities, organizations, and society, (ii) extending the intergroup contact theory and the theory of minority threat using empirical evidence from individuals with multiple identities rather than focusing on a single identity, (iii) examining multiple employment outcomes at once and demonstrating how employment outcomes might differ based on intersecting identities, and (iv) demonstrating the impact of societal context by incorporating RAD into analysis and showing how the employment outcomes of individuals with multiple identities differ by where they reside. I discuss practical implications of the findings for workers, employers, policymakers, and society.

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List of Abbreviations

CnD: Canadian-born with no disabilities

CSD: Canadian Survey on Disability

CwD: Canadian-born with disabilities

HPWS: high performance work systems

ILM: internal labour market

InD: immigrants with no disabilities

IwD: immigrants with disabilities

LICO: low income cut-off

NHS: National Household Survey

RA: residential area

RAD: residential area diversity

RDC: Research Data Centre

SIT: social identity theory

Declaration of Academic Achievement

I declare that I, Kutadgu Firat Sayin, am the author of the following thesis. The ideas and writing are my own. Although earlier drafts of this manuscript were reviewed by my supervisory committee, all revisions were made by me.

Introduction

(1) Everyone has the right to work, to free choice of employment, to just and favourable conditions of work and to protection against unemployment.

(2) Everyone, without any discrimination, has the right to equal pay for equal work.

(3) Everyone who works has the right to just and favourable remuneration ensuring for himself and his family an existence worthy of human dignity, and supplemented, if necessary, by other means of social protection.

United Nations - Universal Declaration of Human Rights Article 23

All animals are equal, but some animals are more equal than others.

Animal Farm by George Orwell

Context

Inequality and diversity are two concepts that have been recently addressed by many Western leaders. For example, Justin Trudeau, the prime minister of Canada, put income inequality at the center of his Canadian Confederation Speech in 2017 (Tutton, 2017). Barack Obama, the 44th president of the United States, stated that inequality is one of the 'big questions' of our era (Luhby, 2016). Furthermore, Pope Francis, the current pope of the Catholic Church, stated that equality was a moral obligation for everyone and a commandment for Christians (Huddleston Jr., 2015). Diversity was also frequently emphasized by these leaders. Trudeau emphasized the importance of diversity in Canada (CBC News, 2017) whereas Obama singled out the diversity of the U.S. population as the source of the country's strength (White House, n.d.). Moreover, Pope Francis

stated that diversity should not be seen as a source of a threat but enrichment and growth (Tornielli, 2017). It is not a coincidence that these leaders among others emphasize income inequality and diversity frequently in their speeches. Both inequality and diversity have been increasing globally. The wealthiest one percent of the global population is expected to have more wealth than the rest of the population in 2017 (Oxfam, 2017). Global protests such as the Occupy Movement have emerged as a reaction to this inequality.

Income inequality is one of the most examined types of inequality because of its potential detrimental outcomes such as weaker population health (Wilkinson & Pickett, 2006), social cohesion of a society (Enderle, 2016), economic growth (Berg, Ostry, & Zettelmeyer, 2012; Hasanov & Izraeli, 2012), increasing rates of homicide, hostility, racism (Wilkinson & Pickett, 2007), social unrest such as riots (International Labour Organization and International Institute for Labour Studies, 2011), and social inequality (Tsui, Enderle, & Jiang, 2017). From 1994 to 2014 the gross national product of Canada increased by 38 percent whereas the wellbeing of Canadians improved only by 9.9 percent (Canadian Index of Wellbeing, 2016). Furthermore, the gap between economic growth and wellbeing of Canadians has increased rapidly since 2007 (Canadian Index of Wellbeing, 2016). These numbers suggest that economic growth translates to wellbeing at lower rates because other factors are in play such as income inequality.

Empirical research demonstrates that one of the critical determinants of income inequality is paid employment (International Labour Organization, 2015). The labour's share of the Canadian national income fell from 65.3 percent to 60.3 percent between 1990 and 2006 while the income of the top 1 percent in Canada increased by 20 percent (OECD, 2012). That is to say, Canadian workers receive a smaller share of the private sector's pre-tax revenue (OECD, 2015). Paid employment shapes key employment outcomes such as wage rates, hours worked, and inactivity rates (Hoeller, Joumard, Pisu, & Bloch, 2012).

Employment outcomes have significant impact on individuals. Members of the majority group have advantages before and after they find employment. These advantages, resulting from the rewards from employment such as employment experience, salaries, and developing social contacts with higher level managers as a result of promotion accumulate and eventually are passed along to their offspring and groups (Bourdieu, 1984; Skaggs & DiTomaso, 2004). Thus, income inequality is related to equality of opportunity (Green, Riddell, & St-Hilaire, 2016). The cumulative nature of advantage has an adverse impact on minority group members: with poor employment outcomes, they have fewer chances of developing themselves as an individual and a worker, and they pass this disadvantage to their offspring and minority groups (DiTomaso, 2010; Skaggs & DiTomaso, 2004). The accumulation of advantage or disadvantage determines individuals' wellbeing which enhances or limits their employment opportunities; and this process creates a vicious cycle (Bidwell et al., 2013; Skaggs &

DiTomaso, 2004). Indeed, Wilkinson and Pickett (2011) found that intergenerational social mobility and income inequality are very strongly correlated in high-income countries including Canada. Research shows that individuals' class is a factor determining whether they become leaders in their organizations (Martin, Innis, & Ward, 2017). For example, Barling and Weatherhead (2016) found that poverty experienced during childhood lowers the probability of the emergence of individuals as leaders (Barling & Weatherhead, 2016).

Employment outcomes manifest themselves unequally across social groups (Okhuysen et al., 2013) and employment inequalities among social groups need to be studied for a better understanding of inequality and policy development (Sen, 1995). This need is becoming more imminent because there has been a global increase in workforce diversity based on factors such as rising levels of immigration, increasing labour force participation of women and other minorities, and increased emphasis on workplace inclusion by national policies (Mor Barak & Travis, 2013).

One outcome of these global trends is the proliferation of conceptualization of work and diversity in the workplace with employees identifying themselves with multiple identities (Ramarajan, 2014). Race, gender, sexual orientation, occupation, parenthood, nationality, religion, and linguistic background are only a few types of identities that individuals simultaneously use to describe themselves.

This increased complexity can be clearly observed in countries with a high level of demographic diversity, such as Canada. For example, 21.9 percent of Canadians are immigrants (Census, 2016), 22.3 percent are visible minorities (National Household Survey, 2011), and 13.7 percent have a disability (Canadian Survey on Disability, 2012). Moreover, the diversity-enhancing demographic trend is expected to continue. For example, the percentage of visible minorities is expected to reach 30 percent of the Canadian population by 2031 (Caron Malenfant, Lebel, & Martel, 2010). Identifying inequality and discrimination becomes more difficult as the workforce gets more diverse and individuals with multiple identities are more present in the workplace (Mor Barak & Travis, 2013).

The growing diversity of Canadian society leads to an increase in the number and complexity of social identities, which are identities derived from group membership such as religion, ethnicity, and disability. Social identities are essential determinants of workforce diversity and inequality because social identities indeed can shape inequalities by affecting the life chances of individuals (Bradley, 1996) and social allocation of rewards (Blalock, 1991). Furthermore, social identities become more visible as Western societies enter a postmodern phase. Many social relationships established for thousands of years transform into a complex set of interrelationships among social groups; traditional social formations such as class and kinship are weakening (Bradley, 1996). For example, social identity movements such as the civil rights movement in the U.S. or the

feminist movement reflects an increasing interest in social identities (Chandler, 2017).

Addressing gaps in the literature

Despite the severe outcomes of income inequality, the management discipline has not shown much interest in this topic (Beal & Astakhova, 2017). There is a need to understand the relationship between diversity and inequality (DiTomaso, 2010) because it is necessary to understand the mechanisms behind inequality to be able to produce remedies for alleviating its harm (Tilly, 2005).

Through structural and socio-psychological processes, workforce diversity shapes employment inequalities (Skaggs & DiTomaso, 2004). Specifically, workforce diversity is very much related to employment inequalities because decisions shaping workforce diversity determine who gets paid, how much they get paid, and what position they are hired for (DiTomaso, Post, & Parks-Yancy, 2007). Thus, an essential question in the field of inequality studies within the management literature is whether workers' identities and other characteristics shape their opportunities and inequalities (Ditomaso & Parks-Yancy, 2014). The impact of context on workers and organizations is understudied in management literature (Johns, 2006). The management literature on employment inequalities is not an exception. Organizational diversity research is dominated by social psychology approaches which leads to a narrow understanding of inequality producing processes in and around organizations (Zanoni, Janssens, Benschop, &

Nkomo, 2010). Furthermore, the literature on employment inequalities focuses on the impact of identities but not much on the structural and intergroup relations (Reskin, 2003). Thus, another equally important and seldom asked question is the role of context in the relationship between workforce diversity and employment inequalities.

Most management and organizational studies on inequality focus on the role of top executives of corporations or 'supermanagers' as described by Piketty (2014) while examining employment income inequality. While the employment income of top executives admittedly contributes to income inequality, focusing on this group provides only a limited understanding of inequality for three reasons. First, only a small number of people are analyzed yet everyone in society, positively or negatively, shapes and is affected by employment income inequality. While the top one percent might be the most powerful group, they are not the only ones who shape and are shaped by employment inequalities. Inequality hurts not only the lower income groups but the vast majority of the population (Wilkinson & Pickett, 2011). Furthermore, most of the studies in management and organizational studies focus on employment income disparities within organizations (Tsui et al., 2017). While the distribution of employment income within organizations has important implications for inequality, this kind of research focus does not explain much of the disparities among organizations, occupations, industries, and countries (Cobb, 2016). Furthermore, it is possible that employment inequalities within organizations might not reflect the societal

level inequality. Davis and Cobb (2010) show that organizational level inequalities might lower macro-level inequalities.

Second, income inequality is a significant determinant of social inequality (Wilkinson & Pickett, 2006). In order to have income, specifically labour income, individuals must first participate in the labour force, and once they are in the labour force, find employment. The sole examination of employment income narrows the focus down on people who are employed and neglects the rest of the population who are unemployed or not in labour force. It is important to study how different types of inequality (e.g., identity-based inequality and employment inequality) are interrelated to understand how inequalities become structural and how they are maintained in organizations (Bapuji & Mishra, 2015). Thus, to understand the true nature of employment inequalities, it is vital to focus on employment outcomes holistically.

Third, the population of interest of most inequality studies in management discipline is defined by their income (e.g., top 1 percent earners). Most of these studies do not attempt to explain how these top earners end up there. Few studies that examine the top executives' identities and how these identities affect their employment income focus on a single identity such as gender (Nielsen, 2010). Thus, employment inequalities are rarely studied below the top management level, and when it is examined, only a single identity is included in the study. The lack of examination of multiple identities is problematic since factors such as

globalization, diversity, communication technology, and increasing rates of immigration make multiple identities more salient for all workers (Ramarajan, 2014).

Besides the shortcomings of the management and organizational studies summarized above, the employment inequality literature is also limited regarding the number of countries and identities focused. Most employment inequality studies are conducted in the U.S. and examine three identities in particular: gender, ethnicity, and class (Anthias, 2012). Income inequality has not received much attention in Canada until recently because the level of income inequality had been relatively stable and it was believed that the tax and transfer system was effective in preventing inequality (Green et al., 2016). While after-tax inequality has been stable since the 1980s in Canada, this does not mean that Canada does not face any income inequality issues. First, even if the income inequality in Canada has stayed relatively stable, this does not mean that it is low. Individuals in unequal societies are more likely to think that there is a lower level of fairness in society (Blalock, 1991; Green et al., 2016). This perceived unfairness hurts the wellbeing of individuals in society even if resources are eventually redistributed (Green et al., 2016). Second, it was shown that the relatively stable income inequality in Canada was due to the growth of the energy and natural resources sectors and the increasing oil prices in the world (Fortin & Lemieux, 2015). Therefore, as the expansion of the natural resources industry ends and the demand

for lower-skilled workers decreases, a higher level of income inequality should be expected (Green et al., 2016).

Reasons for focusing on immigrants with disabilities

In studying identity, employment, and inequality, the selection of identity as the focus can be based on recent trends in the literature on existing social movements (Chandler, 2017). Two identities are selected for focus in this thesis: immigrant and disability. Specifically, the focus is on individuals who identify themselves as immigrants with disabilities (IwD). These two identities are selected for two reasons. First, as the trends show that about one in five Canadians identify themselves as persons with disabilities (CSD, 2012), suggesting a need to generate knowledge on these individuals, particularly on those who identify themselves both an immigrant and a person with disabilities. There are studies from several countries that demonstrate both immigrants (e.g., Amuedo-Dorantes & De La Rica, 2007; Reitz, Curtis, & Elrick, 2014) and people with disabilities (World Health Organization, 2011) have lower employment rates and income compared to those native to the country and those without disabilities respectively. Similar trends are observed in Canada. According to Statistics Canada's Canadian Survey on Disability (2012), Canadians with disabilities face serious challenges in the labour market as demonstrated by their lower labour force participation rate, lower employment rate, and lower employment income compared to Canadians with no disabilities. Similar employment inequalities exist

for immigrants as well (e.g., (Ferrer & Riddell, 2008; Hosoda & Stone-Romero, 2010; Oreopoulos, 2011; Reitz, 2007; Sakamoto, Chin, & Young, 2008). Inequalities may hurt not only these two groups but also the Canadian society as a whole. For example, in 2001, the lost national income due to unrecognition of immigrants' skills was predicted to be between $4.1 - $5.9 billion (Bloom & Grant, 2001). The negative impact on the employment inequalities experienced by immigrants and people with disabilities in Canadian society might get worse since both groups are expected to increase at rapid rates. For example, Ahmet Hussen, the current immigration minister of Canada, announced that the total number of immigrants would rise from 300,000 in 2017 to 340,000 in 2020 (Harris, Hall, & Zimonjic, 2017). This number might rise even more as the federal government's Advisory Council on Economic Growth recommended that 450,000 immigrants should be accepted every year by 2021 (Harris et al., 2017). Furthermore, the number of people with disabilities is expected to increase as the population ages (Dwertmann, 2016). Thus, there is an urgent need to examine the employment inequalities experienced by immigrants and people with disabilities in Canada.

The second reason for selecting IwD as the focus of this thesis is that there is scant literature on IwD, the group at the immigrant and disability intersection, in management and other social science literature. There are approximately 500,000 IwD in Canada (CSD, 2012) and this number is expected to increase. This thesis fills a gap by focusing on IwD, a diverse group with two identities, that has not attracted much attention in the literature. Understanding the employment

inequalities of IwD as compared with immigrants, Canadians with disabilities (CwD) and Canadians with no disabilities (CnD) can provide a more nuanced understanding of identity, employment, and inequality dynamics experienced in the Canadian society.

Purpose

Most existing studies on the relationship between workforce diversity and employment inequalities focus on the impact of a single disadvantaged identity on a single employment outcome such as pay or promotion at the organizational level. Thus, the relation between workers' multiple identities and different dimensions of employment inequalities within the broader social context remains unclear. The goal of this thesis is to start filling this gap.

There are two purposes of this thesis. The first purpose is to develop a better understanding of the complicated relationship between identity, employment, and inequality. To achieve this purpose and enhance the theorization/conceptualization of identity, employment, and inequality relationship in management and organization studies literature, I develop a multilevel model of employment inequalities for workers with multiple identities by integrating social identity theory, double jeopardy hypothesis, intergroup contact theory, and theory of minority group threat.

The second purpose of this thesis is to build on the previous research that takes Canada as its context and immigrants and people with disabilities as groups of

focus to provide a more nuanced understanding of employment inequalities experienced by individuals who differ by their immigrant and disability identities. Understanding the Canadian context and the intersection of these understudied identities are essential because providing more employment opportunities is a remedy for lowering inequality (Atkinson, 2015a) which is only possible by comprehending the current situation. My next two objectives to achieve the second purpose are as follows:

> Objective 1: to examine the intersection of immigrant and disability identity dimensions focusing on IwD and the effect of residential area diversity (RAD) on employment outcomes of employment and employment income. InD, CwD, and CnD are examined as comparators. This objective is fulfilled in Study 1.
>
> Objective 2: to examine the association of the proportion of immigrants in residential area (RA), perceived work discrimination, and labour force participation for IwD. Perceived work discrimination is examined as the mediator between proportion of immigrants in RA and labour force participation. This objective is fulfilled in Study 2. CwD are examined as the reference group.

Concepts and definitions

The concepts and definitions for this thesis are summarized in Table 1.

Inequality. Inequality is a complex concept that is commonly not well understood (Temkin, 1986). The numerous definitions and types of inequality reflect this complexity. Following Bapuji and Mishra (2015), in this thesis inequality is defined as the treatment and outcome disparities experienced by individuals (Bapuji & Mishra, 2015).

Table 1. *Summary of key concepts of the thesis*

Concepts	Definitions
Inequality	"treatment and outcome disparities experienced by individuals" (Bapuji & Mishra, 2015)
Employment inequality	disparities between the likelihood of labour force participation, employment, and level of employment income of social identity based groups
Social identity	'the individual's knowledge that he belongs to certain social groups together with some emotional and value significance to him of the group membership' (Tajfel, 1972, p. 31)
Intersectionality	a conceptual framework that emphasizes the examination of inequalities based on the simultaneous existence of multiple identities which are embedded within the context
Workforce diversity	'the division of the workforce into distinct categories that (a) have a perceived commonality within a given cultural or national context, and that (b) impact potentially harmful or beneficial employment outcomes such as job opportunities, treatment in the workplace, and promotion prospects irrespective of job-related skills and qualifications' (Mor Barak, 2011, p.148)
Immigrant	an individual who was not born in Canada but has permanent residence or became a Canadian citizen by naturalization

Disability	'an umbrella term, covering impairments, activity limitations, and participation restrictions. An impairment is a problem in body function or structure; an activity limitation is a difficulty encountered by an individual in executing a task or action; while a participation restriction is a problem experienced by an individual in involvement in life situations' (World Health Organization, n.d.)
Labour force participation	a dichotomous concept describing whether an individual is in the labour force or not. Individuals who are in the labour force are those who are employed or unemployed but actively seeking employment. Individuals who are not in the labour force are those who are not employed and not actively seeking employment for any reason
Employment	a dichotomous concept describing whether an individual has a paid job or not
Employment income	sum of all wages or salaries of a worker

There are different types of inequalities. The most commonly discussed inequalities are social inequality and economic inequality. Social inequality can be described as "any of the differences among people that are consequential for the lives they lead, most particularly for the rights or opportunities they exercise and the rewards or privileges they enjoy" (Grabb, 2007, p.1).

Economic inequality is closely related to social inequality in that it shapes and is shaped by social inequality. For example, individuals' social relationships and networks might determine intergroup inequalities by reinforcing individuals' advantages (DiMaggio & Garip, 2012). Furthermore, income inequality leads to a social distance which might lower trust, self-esteem, performance, and wellbeing

(Tsui et al., 2017). Income inequality is one of the most examined types of inequality because of its potential detrimental outcomes such as less representative and democratic political institutions (Rogowski & Macrae, 2008), homicide, low trust, low social capital, hostility, and racism (Wilkinson & Pickett, 2007), and poor population health (Wilkinson & Pickett, 2006) which lowers macro-level productivity (Tompa, 2002). Empirical research demonstrates that one of the critical determinants of income inequality is paid employment (International Labour Organization, 2015; Piketty, 2014) which shapes vital employment outcomes such as wage rates, hours worked, and inactivity rates (Hoeller et al., 2012).

Bapuji (2015) defines economic inequality as "uneven dispersion in resource endowments, access to productive resources, and rewards for labour in a social collective that limits the fulfillment of human functions" (p. 1061). Economic inequality can be divided into three: wealth inequality, income inequality, and employment income inequality (Equality Trust, n.d.). Finally, employment income inequality refers to the distribution of pay, wages, and salaries (Equality Trust, n.d.). In this thesis, the focus is on employment income inequality.

There are two dominant views on economic inequality: inequality of outcomes and inequality of opportunities. The first view is concerned with inequality of outcomes. The focus is on how outcomes such as income and health are distributed; the emphasis is on the 'finish line' (Afonso, LaFleur, & Alarcón,

2015) but not how individuals end up there. According to this view, outcomes depend on factors are both under and beyond individuals' control. The second view, inequality of opportunities, focuses on how life opportunities that limit or enhance individuals' potential are distributed (Afonso et al., 2015). The emphasis is on the 'starting line' (Afonso et al., 2015) but not where individuals end up.

Atkinson (2015b) argues that while there is an emphasis on equality of opportunities by social movements and political parties, equality of outcomes is also important. If we accept that structural factors can shape individual outcomes, we must also agree that it is possible that despite having equal opportunities, any individual might have bad luck due to structural elements (Atkinson, 2015b). Furthermore, unless equal opportunity mechanisms perfectly work, inequality of outcome will be a determinant of whether the following generations will have equal opportunities (Atkinson, 2015c). This thesis examines inequality from the first perspective, the inequality of outcomes. Specifically, labour force participation, employment, and employment income are the three outcomes that are investigated in this thesis.

Employment inequality. There are multiple outcomes (e.g., wealth, employment income, quality of life) that can be used to measure inequality (Sen, 1995). Choosing which outcome to examine has significant implications for all stakeholders. The focus of this thesis is on employment inequality. Employment inequality can reveal itself in various employment outcomes such as differences

based on workers' social identities in promotion decisions, employment income, workload, occupational segregation, and exposure to occupational hazards (Padavic & Reskin, 2002). In this thesis, I define employment inequality as the disparities between the likelihood of labour force participation, employment, and level of employment income of social identity-based groups. Thus, employment inequalities can be observed at the societal level and are formed by the aggregation of individual-level employment outcomes.

While employment inequalities are shaped in organizations, it does not mean that organizations play the only role (Bapuji & Mishra, 2015). For example, it is widely known that people with disabilities have a lower rate of postsecondary education compared to people with no disabilities. From an equity perspective, it is expected that people with disabilities have lower employment rates and employment income because of their relatively lower human capital reflected by their education levels. From an employment opportunity equality perspective, it can be asserted that people with disabilities have lower rates of postsecondary education because of the barriers they face in their everyday life such as difficulties accessing reliable transportation and health services. Therefore, while employment inequalities experienced by people with disabilities are embodied in organizations, this inequality has its roots outside the organization. This example demonstrates that employment inequalities are determined by not only human capital shaping employment outcomes but also access to education, health, and other social goods (Bapuji & Mishra, 2015).

Social identity. Social identity is conceptualized initially as a mediator between individual and society (Tajfel, 1974), and thus can be understood as a bridge between the individual and the social (Chandler, 2017). Social identity can be defined as 'the individual's knowledge that he belongs to certain social groups together with some emotional and value significance to him of the group membership' (Tajfel, 1972, p. 31). In other words, a social identity is the membership of a social group and the value placed on this membership (Trepte, 2006).

Intersectionality. Originating in the mid-19th century as a concept, intersectionality was first coined by Crenshaw (1989) and similarly explained by others in the late 1980s (McCall, 2005). Intersectionality emerged from women's studies and is considered the most significant contribution of women's studies to date (McCall, 2005). While intersectionality was prominent only in that field in its early years, over the last two decades, it has expanded to other disciplines such as legal studies, sociology, psychology, political science, and social work (Cho, Crenshaw, & McCall, 2013). The management discipline has started to show considerable interest in this approach due to its promising capacity to explain complex processes of diversity. Intersectionality allows for studying inequality, conducting comparative and longitudinal analyses of organizations, and examining the impact of policies on intersecting strands of diversities, among others (Acker, 2012).

Intersectionality is a powerful tool for studying inequality (Acker, 2012; Choo & Ferree, 2010) and it can provide a framework to study the determinants of social issues at multiple levels (Chandler, 2017). Intersectionality emphasizes the need for simultaneous consideration of multiple identities (Cole, 2009; McBride, Hebson, & Holgate, 2015) which are formed at various levels (Powell, Jayasinghe, & Taksa, 2017). The underlying idea is that identifying with more than one social group has unique effects that, rather than additive, are instead multiplicative (Crenshaw, 1989; Stewart & McDermott, 2004). Echoing Stewart and McDermott (2004), Tatli and Ozbilgin (2012) indicated that the intersectional perspective shows that differences based on multiple identities may merely not add up and that unexpected results might be found at the intersection of identities. For example, it is possible that an individual might benefit from one identity while being disadvantaged by another (Steinbugler, Press, & Dias, 2006). In other words, when multiple strands of diversities converge, a linear additive effect towards a hypothesized direction cannot be assumed. The context has a role in shaping the impact of the intersecting strands (Anthias, 2012), and it forms structural inequality (McCall, 2005). In other words, the same set of intersecting strands might lead to contrasting outcomes in different contexts (Warner, 2008).

Intersectionality does not have a clear definition (Nash, 2008; Woodhams & Lupton, 2014). Intersectionality has been defined as a paradigm, framework, theory, lens, and perspective by different researchers (Hankivsky, 2014; Hulko, 2009). For example, Cole (2009) considers it a paradigm for theory and research

whereas Warner and Shields (2013) define it as an approach to social justice. As a result, there are two main challenges with empirical intersectionality research: (i) conceptualizing intersectionality and, (ii) converging divergent interpretations of intersectionality as a result of different epistemologies and methodologies (Browne & Misra, 2007). Tatli and Özbilgin (2012) recognize these challenges and have stated that intersectionality is both under-theorized and under-operationalized. Therefore, it is imperative to define intersectionality. Bowleg (2012) declares that because intersectionality has neither core elements nor variables that can be operationalized and tested, it is impossible to identify intersectionality as a theory. Similarly, Cole (2009) points out that intersectionality does not lead to a method or data analysis technique. Instead, "[…] intersectionality entails a conceptual shift in the way researchers understand social categories" (Cole, 2009, p. 178). In this thesis, I define intersectionality as a conceptual framework that emphasizes the examination of inequalities based on the simultaneous existence of immigrant and disability identities, which are embedded within the context of employment.

Workforce diversity. Harrison and Klein (2007) define diversity as "the distribution of differences among members of a unit with respect to a common attribute" (p. 1200). Thus, workforce diversity can be described as "the division of the workforce into distinct categories that (a) have a perceived commonality within a given cultural or national context, and that (b) impact potentially harmful or beneficial employment outcomes such as job opportunities, treatment in the

workplace, and promotion prospects irrespective of job-related skills and qualifications (Mor Barak, 2011, p.148). The attribute by which the distribution of differences is examined in this thesis is the social identity of individuals, specifically immigrant and disability identity.

Immigrant. In this thesis, an immigrant is defined as an individual who was not born in Canada but has permanent residence or became a Canadian citizen by naturalization.

Disability. Disability is a multifaceted concept. The World Health Organization defines disability as "an umbrella term, covering impairments, activity limitations, and participation restrictions. An impairment is a problem in body function or structure; an activity limitation is a difficulty encountered by an individual in executing a task or action; while a participation restriction is a problem experienced by an individual in involvement in life situations" (World Health Organization, n.d.).

Disability cannot only be described as a biological characteristic. This type of description might lead to ableism which can be described as a normative assumption of disability (Williams & Mavin, 2012) and is socially constructed (Chandler, 2017). Thus, the political and social context of disability is also crucial in defining it. Thus, a broader approach as known as the social model of disability has been developed. This model assumes that the source of the problem is how society deals with physical, emotional, or mental differences (Chandler, 2017).

The data on disability have been collected for 30 years in Canada (Social and Aboriginal Statistics Division, Statistics Canada, 2014). Parallel to the evolution of the disability paradigm, the definition of disability used by Statistics Canada has changed over the years. The definition of disability in the CSD reflects this trend in that a new definition of disability based on the social model is used for this survey (Social and Aboriginal Statistics Division, Statistics Canada, 2014). Therefore, the social model of disability will be used in this thesis.

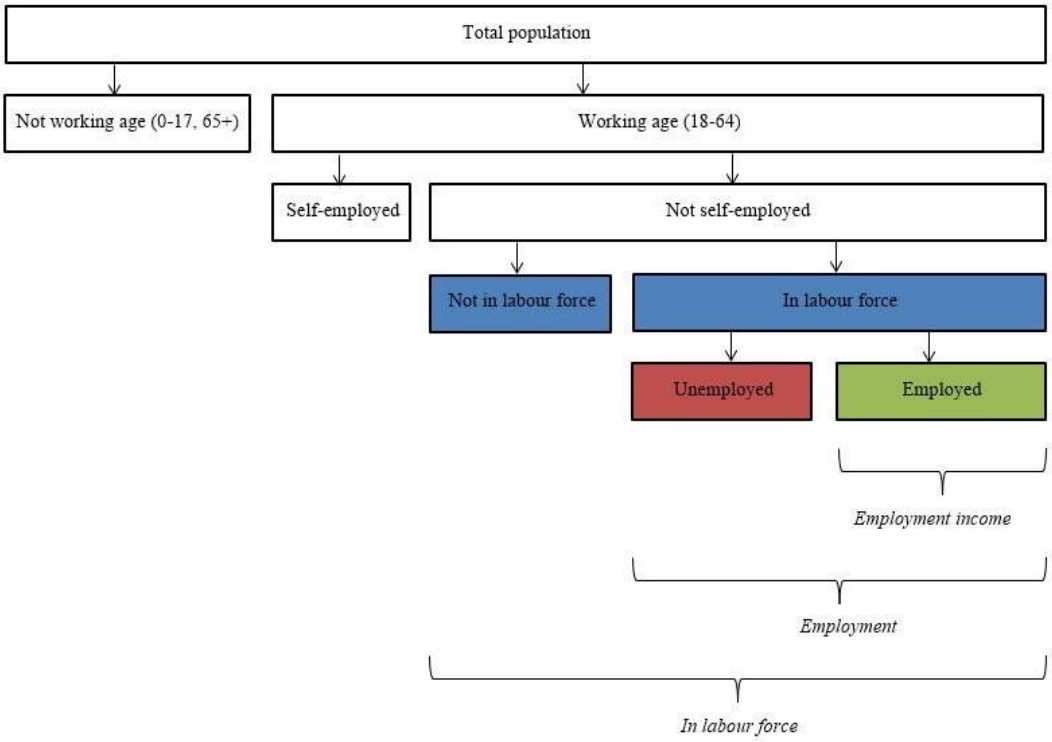
Labour force participation. Labour force participation is one of the three dependent variables examined in this thesis. In this thesis, this variable corresponds to the variable named 'in labour force.' According to International Labour Organization (2013), individuals who participate in the labour force are those who work or look for work. In other words, those who are employed or unemployed but actively seeking employment are in the labour force, those who are not employed and not actively seeking employment are considered outside of the labour force. Thus, labour force participation conceptually encompasses employment and employment income, the dependent variables of this thesis besides labour force participation. The conceptual relationship between these variables as examined in this thesis can be seen in Figure 1.

Employment. Employment is the second dependent variable of this thesis and can be defined as whether someone has a paid job or not. It should be noted that

for the purposes of this thesis, those who are self-employed and those who have an unpaid employment are excluded in the analysis.

Employment income. Employment income is the third dependent variable and is defined as the sum of all wages and salaries of individuals who are employed.

Figure 1. Conceptual relationships between the dependent variables



Proposed contributions of the thesis

Theory. This thesis contributes to theory by bringing together micro, meso, and macro level theories in explaining the employment inequalities experienced by IwD. Micro-level theory of social identity theory focuses on the individual and

their self-identified or group-identified placement in a social group. The first meso-level theory, the double jeopardy hypothesis, examines the negative impact of multiple disadvantaged identities. The second meso-level theory, intergroup contact theory, focuses on the relationship between the frequency of contact between the group members and the prejudice each group has towards others. These theories are used more commonly in management and organizational studies to explain the experiences of individuals and minority groups in and around the workplace. Despite contributing to the theory in management and organization studies, these theories cannot comprehensively explain the employment inequalities experienced by individuals with diverse backgrounds, such as IwD studied in this thesis. I bring the macro-level theory of minority group threat to provide a holistic explanation for the identity, employment, and inequalities experienced by IwD. This thesis contributes to theory by providing an interdisciplinary and holistic theoretical framework explaining IwD's experiences.

This thesis contributes to theory by addressing essential shortcomings of most inequality and diversity studies. First, this thesis contributes to the conceptualization of identity and inequality by addressing social identity theory, double jeopardy theory, intergroup contact theory, and the theory of minority group threat and empirical testing of these theories for inequality in the management literature. Most inequality studies in the management literature are at the organizational level and they examine the intra-organizational inequalities. While understanding employment inequalities within the organizations are

critical, it should be underlined that organizations are embedded in the broader socio-economic environment. Thus, it is essential to examine the inequalities not only in the organizations but also around them (Turner, 2017). This thesis departs from most inequality studies in the management literature by examining employment inequalities at the societal level rather than organizational level by bringing in the theory of minority group threat to understand and explain the inequality in organizations and the society. Davis and Cobb (2010) demonstrate that intra-organizational inequality might not contribute to macro-level inequality. Thus, aggregating employment outcomes at the organizational level to national level might lead to erroneous results. Therefore, understanding the relationship between employment outcomes and macro-level employment inequalities can be best achieved by aggregating individual-level employment outcomes created in organizations to the macro-level. This approach is used in this thesis to link micro-level employment outcomes to macro-level employment inequalities. Therefore, this thesis examines employment inequalities at the societal level using a nationally representative sample and produce generalizable results.

Second, most studies on employment inequalities focus on a single identity such as gender (Tatli & Özbilgin, 2012). Focusing on a single identity is a very simplistic abstraction of the reality (Blau, 1977a). Thus, little is known about the relationship between workers' multiple identities and employment inequalities. In this thesis, I take an intersectional approach and examine the relationship between workers' multiple identities and employment outcomes. Enhancing the four

theories discussed above (i.e., social identity theory, double jeopardy hypothesis, intergroup contact theory, and the theory of minority group threat) by examining their effect concurrently in a multi-level theoretical framework is one of the major contributions of this thesis.

Third, few studies on employment inequalities address the impact of context explicitly. Examining context is crucial for understanding employment inequalities because context is an essential determinant of organizational behaviour (Johns, 2006). Furthermore, the analysis of context is critical because context shapes inequalities (McCall, 2005). The multiple identities of workers might lead to positive or negative employment outcomes depending on the context. I study the impact of context by incorporating the residential area diversity (RAD) into the analysis. Organizations do not exist independently from the residential areas (RAs) in which they are located. This embeddedness of organizations means that the RAD might shape organizational diversity and its related outcomes (Brief, Butz, & Deitch, 2005). Thus, communities that organizations and workers are embedded in are vital to understanding employment inequalities.

Fourth, in contributing to the conceptualization of inequality, while most of the management studies on inequality examine employment income as the focal variable, whether a worker is employed or unemployed is also an important determinant of social inequality because individuals must be first employed to

receive wages or salaries. Furthermore, employment shapes not only the income levels of individuals but also their well-being (Chandler, 2017). For example, Konrad et al. (2012a) found that unemployment of people with disabilities hurts their well-being. I advance the theoretical understanding of inequality by using a multifaceted conceptualization of employment inequality by including labour force participation, employment, and employment income into the analysis. It is essential to study how different types of inequality (e.g., identity-based inequality and employment inequality) are interrelated to understand how inequalities become structural and how they are maintained in organizations (Bapuji & Mishra, 2015). Employment income inequality can only be examined with a sample of employed individuals. While there is employment income inequality among individuals based on their identities (e.g., the wage gap between immigrants and Canadian-born or people with disabilities and those without disabilities), I argue that there are even broader gaps between those who are employed and unemployed. Since employment rates differ across different social groups, it is imperative to examine how and why employment of social groups differ (Chandler, 2017). Therefore, including those who are employed, unemployed, and not in labour force can provide a more nuanced understanding of the conceptualization of employment inequalities.

Method. The relationship between identities, employment outcomes, and inequalities are no doubt complex. With its focus on both multiple identities of

individuals and the context in which individuals operate and interact with each other, an intersectional methodology fits well with the scope of this thesis.

Research on multiple identities, using intersectionality framework has primarily used qualitative methods (see, for example, Boogaard & Roggeband, 2010). Qualitative intersectional studies have enriched the understanding of the experiences of individuals with multiple identities. That said, although qualitative methods provide an in-depth perspective for understanding complex phenomena, they lack generalizability and are less robust to offer policy suggestions. Thus, there is a need for new methodological approaches that allow for analysis of the complexity of social life (McCall, 2005). Quantitative studies that embrace an intersectional perspective can be beneficial in examining the effectiveness of current work environments and policies that might be difficult to examine in qualitative studies (Scott & Siltanen, 2012). Some quantitative studies, such as this thesis, use large-scale quantitative data that further contributes to the intersectionality of identities framework, which in turn enables developing stronger theories. This thesis identifies this gap in methodology and contributes to the quantitative intersectionality literature by providing two examples of analysis using different samples and statistical methods.

Practice. This thesis contributes to practice by providing a nuanced understanding of employment inequalities experienced by Canadians with immigrant and disability identities. Gender, race, and class are the most frequently

studied identities in employment inequality studies. Anthias (2012) asserts that these three identities are "[…] taken-for-granted categories of social analysis, leading not only to their essentialization but also to presumptions about their saliency." (p.128). While these identities are undoubtedly essential, the current emphasis on these identities leaves other identities under-examined. This thesis contributes to knowledge by examining employment inequalities of groups that are rarely studied. Following Stewart and McDermott (2004) and Mooney (2016), I choose two disadvantaged identities that are understudied in the management literature: immigrant and disability. There is scarce research on the group that is formed by the intersection of these two identities, that is, IwD.

Furthermore, there is limited research on employment inequalities in the Canadian context. As summarized above, employment inequalities can have detrimental outcomes for society. Therefore, it is crucial to provide nuanced, generalizable, and up-to-date findings to help decisionmakers in organizations and policy circles to develop more effective and efficient solutions for alleviating employment inequalities experienced by millions of Canadians. Specifically, the results of this thesis have the potential to help decision makers in organizations to manage diversity effectively, and policymakers to develop policies that acknowledge the heterogeneity of immigrants and people with disabilities and that are more responsive to the needs of IwD.

Theories

In this thesis, there are two studies examining different dimensions of employment inequalities experienced by workers with immigrant and disability identities. In developing a multi-level model of employment inequalities for workers with multiple identities, I start with integrating social identity theory, double jeopardy hypothesis, intergroup contact theory, and theory of minority group threat as they apply to the IwD focus of this thesis. Specifically, I use the social identity theory, double jeopardy hypothesis, and intergroup contact theory for Study 1 and the theory of minority group threat for Study 2 respectively. I explain each theory below and relate each to the focus of my thesis.

Social identity theory

The social identity theory (SIT) studies how social categories are translated into social groups via psychological processes (Hogg & Abrams, 1988). Individuals who share the belief that they are in the same category form a social group (Burke & Stets, 2009). Individuals can share and act on similar beliefs based on their groups even if they do not interact with other group members; identification with a group is enough to develop and act like a group (Burke & Stets, 2009).

Individuals interact with each other and shape their identities based on the feedback they get from others (Baldridge et al., 2017). Individuals define themselves with their social group (Ramarajan, 2014) to fulfill their core needs such as predictability, simplification, structure (Hogg & Abrams, 1988), self-

enhancement (Burke & Stets, 2009; Ferguson & Porter, 2013) and belonging (Brewer, 2001; Stets & Burke, 2000).

A core mechanism of the SIT is self-categorization (Chandler, 2017). Individuals categorize themselves and other individuals with regards to the social groups they belong to (Trepte, 2006). Categorization is the necessary first step to prejudice (Tajfel & Turner, 1979). Categorization is a process that involves grouping similar individuals together for sensemaking and is shaped by the context and relational status of the groups (Ferguson & Porter, 2013). Once individuals categorize others, they tend to accentuate differences between themselves and individuals outside their group but underestimate the differences between themselves and others who share the same group (Trepte, 2006). Outgroups help to maintain ingroup identity and once outgroups are perceived to threaten the access to sources, intergroup competition and discrimination start (Brewer, 2001). This implies that there is a constant conflict between groups in and around organizations (Ashforth & Mael, 1989; Bidwell et al., 2013). The reflection of this conflict can be seen in the structural employment outcome inequalities between immigrants and Canadian-born and people with disabilities and people with no disabilities at the macro level.

According to the SIT, society consists of different groups with different power and status whose dynamics are historically shaped (Brewer, 2001; Hogg & Abrams, 1988). Thus, the SIT can provide valuable insights for understanding

intergroup relations including intergroup cooperation and conflict (Tajfel, 1982; Tajfel & Turner, 1979) and intergroup discrimination (Brewer, 2001). Indeed, the majority group's ingroup favouritism can result in substantial outcome differences among the minority and majority group (Brewer, 2001). In applying the SIT to the focus of my thesis, I examine the employment outcome inequalities between immigrants and Canadian-born, and between people with disabilities and people with no disabilities.

Identification with a group occurs independently of outgroup attitudes (Brewer, 2001). Behaviours in groups are outlined by group norms and sanctions that emphasize cooperation and trust (Brewer, 2001). The ingroup norms lead to a differentiation of behaviour towards ingroup and outgroup individuals, and such differentiation creates distrust and negative stereotypes (Brewer, 2001). Therefore, even when there is no real or perceived competition among groups, individuals are likely to have positive feelings (e.g., trustworthy, moral) towards ingroup individuals and negative emotions (e.g., not dependable, unreliable) towards outgroup individuals (Brewer, 2001). This differentiation might be deeply rooted in individuals. While ingroup favouritism and outgroup discrimination are different mechanisms (DiTomaso, 2015), they have similar outcomes (Greenwald & Pettigrew, 2014). Thus, ingroup favouritism and perception of outgroups as a threat are two mechanisms that create intergroup inequalities in the long run as predicted by the SIT. For the purposes of this thesis,

this could mean that Canadian-born managers might perceive other Canadian-born job applicants more favourable than their immigrant counterparts.

Social identities and inequalities are related to each other in a robust and sophisticated way. Social identities can shape inequalities by affecting the life chances of individuals (Bradley, 1996; Lin, 2000) and the social allocation of rewards (Blalock, 1991). Furthermore, social identities can also evolve from the dynamics of inequality (Bradley, 1996). Indeed, behaviours that lead to employment inequalities might be deeply embedded and implicit in individuals. While inequality perpetuating behaviours can be socially learned, experiments conducted on young children showed that such actions might be deeply wired in individuals (Olson et al., 2011).

Double jeopardy hypothesis

Individuals can have multiple identities and be grouped into multiple categories simultaneously. Since identities can be advantageous or disadvantageous, it is crucial to theorize how multiple identities coexist and shape outcomes. One of the theories that address this issue is the double jeopardy hypothesis.

The core idea of the double jeopardy hypothesis is that disadvantages accumulate as the number of disadvantaged identities of individuals increases. Thus, individuals with multiple underprivileged identities will face worse outcomes compared to individuals with only a single disadvantaged identity (Barnum, Liden, & DiTomaso, 1995; King, 1988). Many studies confirm the double

jeopardy hypothesis. For example, visible minority women receive lower employment income than white women in the U.S. (Greenman & Xie, 2008). Two U.K. studies found that workers with multiple disadvantaged identities suffer from pay discrimination more than workers with a single disadvantaged identity (Woodhams, Lupton, & Cowling, 2015b; Woodhams, Lupton, Perkins, & Cowling, 2015c). Another study found that workers who were both from a minority group and women experienced the most harassment in the workplace compared to white women or minority men (Berdahl & Moore, 2006). A longitudinal research demonstrates that the intersection of disability and ethnicity had a negative impact on men by sorting them into low-income and part-time jobs (Woodhams, Lupton, & Cowling, 2015a).

Individuals who have multiple identities that might be disadvantaged face additional issues when responding to workplace discrimination. The current legal system does not consider the possibility of discrimination based on multiple disadvantaged identities (Baldridge et al., 2017). Furthermore, social identity-based movements have formed independently, and this has led to the development of public policies are complex and inconsistent across groups (Bagilhole, 2010). These issues might reinforce multiple disadvantages individuals might have. In this thesis, I use the double jeopardy hypothesis for developing a hypothesis on the relationship between the intersection of immigrant and disability identities and employment outcomes.

Intergroup contact theory

Intergroup behaviour can be described as "the way in which people behave towards one another as members of different social groups." (Hogg & Abrams, 1988, p.32). Intergroup contact theory posits that contact between the members of different groups diminishes prejudice (Allport, 1954; Tropp & Pettigrew, 2005) and boosts trust (Pettigrew, Tropp, Wagner, & Christ, 2011) by enhancing knowledge about the outgroup, reducing anxiety, and increasing empathy (Pettigrew & Tropp, 2008), and making group identities less salient (DiTomaso et al., 2007). Intergroup contact theory is tested and confirmed universally. A recent meta-analysis demonstrates that the positive impact of intergroup contact has been observed in various countries and cultures (Pettigrew et al., 2011). Furthermore, while the intergroup contact theory was initially developed for interracial relationships, the theory also holds for the members of other groups such as people with disabilities, gays (Pettigrew et al., 2011), and immigrants (Schlueter & Scheepers, 2010). I employ the intergroup contact theory for hypothesis development in Study 1.

Theory of minority group threat

Individuals naturally identify with groups and develop positive feelings and preference for ingroup members compared to outgroup members (Brewer, 2001). Yet, ingroup preferences do not provide a firm basis to explain why groups actively are hostile to each other. Brewer (2001) claims that there must be a real

or perceived competition that leads to perceived threat between groups before groups start to discriminate each other.

One of the theories that confirm the assertion of Brewer (2001) is the theory of minority group threat. First coined by Blalock (1967), the theory states that power relations between groups in a society are shaped by the size, political power, and economic power of groups (Blalock, 1967) where group size is a significant determinant of group power. Groups gain access to more economic and political power as their size increases (Chattopadhyay, Tluchowska, & George, 2004). As the size of a minority group increases, there will be a higher level of perceived competition and the majority group will start feeling threatened and try to reduce the threat through discrimination, oppression, and prejudice against the minority group (Blalock, 1967; Sidanius & Pratto, 2011). These mechanisms can take place in uncoordinated individual acts of the majority group members (Blalock, 1967). In other words, the majority group does not need to be coordinated to discriminate against minority groups. This is one of the mechanisms that render discrimination invisible. Thus, the theory of minority group threat provides a tool to associate a contextual-level variable, group size, with an individual-level variable, anti-outgroup attitudes (Schlueter & Scheepers, 2010). In this thesis, I use this theory to formulate the hypotheses of Study 2. Specifically, I examine how the percentage of immigrants in RA are associated with the labour participation of immigrants.

A multi-level model of employment inequality for workers with multiple identities

In examining the relationship between workers' multiple identities and different dimensions of employment inequalities within the broader social context, I start with developing a multi-level model of employment inequalities for workers with multiple identities. Having a multi-level modelling approach can be useful when examining inequalities in and around work (Reskin, 2003). A difficulty with developing multilevel modelling using current theories is that each subdiscipline in the management field has different theories, conceptualization, and measurement levels (Molloy, Ployhart, & Wright, 2010). For example, psychology-oriented management sub-disciplines (e.g., organizational behaviour) might focus on individuals and groups using micro-level theories whereas economics-oriented management sub-disciplines (e.g., strategy) might be focusing on organizations using meso-level theories.

Developing multi-level management modelling can be done by focusing on real-world phenomena, including organizations as a level of analysis, and using theories from other disciplines (Molloy et al., 2010). First, this thesis focuses on employment inequality which is a phenomenon arguably experienced by most groups in the society. Second, Baron and Bielby (1980) suggest that organizations link micro and macro dimensions of inequality. Specifically, Scott and Davis (2007) propose three levels of analysis: (1) social psychological level focusing on

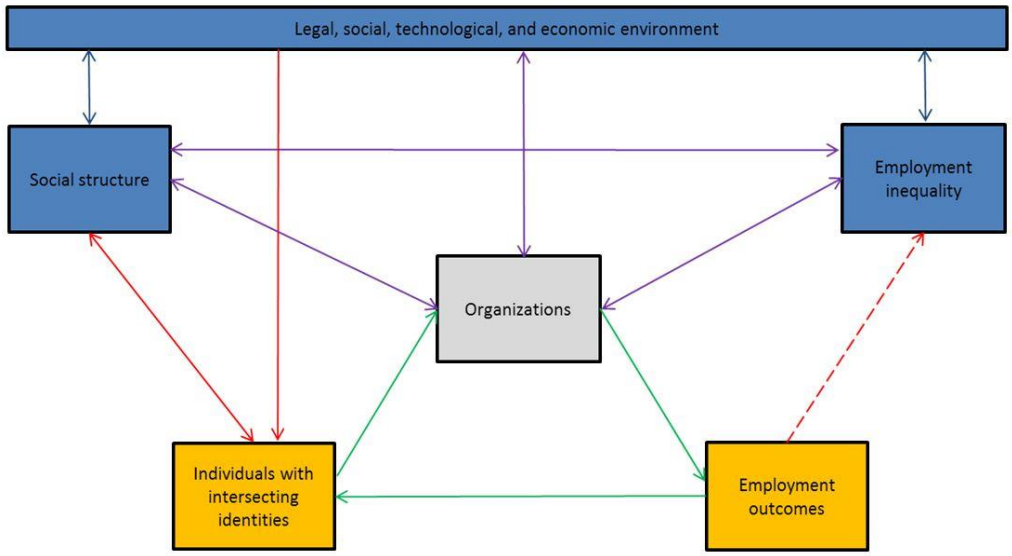
individuals' behaviours, (2) organizational level focusing on organizational structures and characteristics, and (3) ecological level examining organizations' relationships with each other and their external environment. Thus, the multi-level model of employment inequality for workers with multiple identities developed in this thesis includes individuals at the micro level, organizations at the meso level, and socioeconomic environment and social structure at the macro level. Third, this thesis borrows theories from different disciplines such as social psychology, sociology, economics, political science, inequality studies, and women's studies to develop a multi-level model enhancing the theoretical understanding of this phenomenon. The multi-level model of employment inequalities for workers with multiple identities developed for this thesis can be seen in Figure 2.

Micro-meso relationships

Micro-meso relationships refer to the green arrows in Figure 2. Employment outcomes are formed at the micro (i.e., individual) level as a result of daily interactions between workers and organizations. Organizations can be defined as the "social structures created by individuals to support the collaborative pursuit of specified goals" (Scott & Davis, 2007; p. 11). Although organizations have their goals, they also consist of organizational actors who pursue individual interests (Emirbayer & Johnson, 2008) and form coalitions which often have conflicting goals (Cyert & March, 1963). Thus, organizations can be taken as arenas of

struggle (Swartz, 1997) where groups compete for jobs because jobs are the primary status determinants in our society (Ditomaso & Parks-Yancy, 2014).

Figure 2. *A multi-level model of employment inequality for workers with multiple identities*



Notes: Blue box: macro level, grey box: meso level, orange box: micro level, blue arrows: macro-level interactions, purple arrows: macro-meso interactions, red arrows: macro-micro interactions, green arrows: micro-meso interactions

At the micro-meso level, two factors deserve particular attention: organizational and institutional arrangements, and coworkers and managers with multiple identities as related to the focus of my thesis.

Organizational and institutional arrangements. Referring to organizations, in Figure 2, organizational and institutional arrangements are important determinants of employment inequalities. Employment outcomes are formed by organizational

processes such as allocation of workers to jobs and distribution of pay and benefits to jobs (Bidwell et al., 2013) that can determine the level of social mobility and income inequality (Berry & Bell, 2012; Scott & Davis, 2007). Thus, organizational processes can produce employment inequalities (Stainback, Tomaskovic-Devey, & Skaggs, 2010) which are formed by the aggregation of employment outcomes at the micro level. High performance work systems (HPWS), flexible work, and internal labour markets (ILM) are examples of organizational and institutional arrangements that can shape employment inequalities.

The HPWS are bundles of complementary human resources practices that employers apply to increase the overall organizational performance (Frost, 2008). These bundles may be formed with many different practices such as job expansion, skill enhancement, and worker participation in workplace decision-making. The HPWS practices may result in employee pay levels that equate to the union-wage level (Godard, 2009). If widely practiced, setting union-wage level pay levels at non-unionized workplaces may lower the overall employment income inequality in a society. On the other hand, it is also shown that HPWS might lead to decreased job security, work intensification, and wage inequality within and between firms (Osterman, 2013). Cobb (2016) states that layoffs could lead to a hike in income inequality. Therefore, it is possible that HPWS might be causing income inequality.

Another example of an institutional arrangement that may shape employment inequalities is ILM. The ILM is the internal stock of labour of an organization (Wilton, 2010). In this system, workers are usually hired at the entrance level based on their general human capital. Since the type of human capital that organizations need the most is firm-specific human capital (Becker, 1962), these workers are trained and developed with firm-specific skills and made valuable for the firm. Because the organizations do not want to lose their workers who have a high level of firm-specific human capital, the level of availability of career development opportunities and the extent of job security is high in the organizations who have ILM arrangement (Scott & Davis, 2007). Cobb (2016) asserts that income inequality will be higher in countries where external labour market mechanisms are more prevalent than ILM.

Managers and coworkers. At the micro-meso level, referring to organizations and employment inequality relationship in Figure 2, managers and coworkers play a crucial role in shaping employment inequalities while interacting with workers with multiple identities through mechanisms such as discrimination and ingroup favouritism as predicted by the SIT and double jeopardy hypothesis.

Discrimination can be defined as "treating people unequally because of personal characteristics that are not related to their performance" (Padavic & Reskin, 2002; p. 47). Differentiation is an important mechanism used by the majority group members that provide a basis for discrimination with the goal of maintaining their

status (Skaggs & DiTomaso, 2004). Taste-based discrimination and statistical discrimination are among the types of discrimination that can be a result of informal organizational processes (Blau, Ferber, & Winkler, 2010).

Becker (1971) claims that some decision makers might have a 'taste' for discrimination. This will cause them to treat workers differentially despite the potential adverse impact of differential treatment of workers on organizational outcomes. Kanter (1977) claims that minorities' entrance to an organization might lead to social disharmony by threatening homophily of majority workers. Kanter's (1977) claim is in line with the predictions of the SIT. Statistical discrimination occurs when employment decisions such as hiring and promotion are based on the expected performance based on their social identity (Phelps, 1972).

As organizations become less hierarchical and more boundaryless, identity-based differences might become more critical in organizations (DiTomaso et al., 2007). While social identities might seem irrelevant in the workplace context, they inevitably shape workplace interactions and employment outcomes by affecting the rationality of organizational decision making (Scott & Davis, 2007). According to the social identity theory, managers prefer to be around workers who are like themselves. Individuals prefer those whom they perceive as similar over others whom they view as different to satisfy their need for self-enhancement, reduce uncertainty, and differentiate themselves against others (Burke & Stets, 2009; Ferguson & Porter, 2013). Furthermore, identification with

a group creates a sense of belongingness (Stets & Burke, 2000). This need is deeply wired in human beings. Indeed, ingroup biases can have a substantial impact on employment decisions (Ditomaso & Parks-Yancy, 2014; Stainback et al., 2010). For example, it is possible that managers are more likely to hire ingroup workers. Kanter (1977) refers to this process as homosocial reproduction. Employers might shape their hiring decision based on social identity of applicants after hiring as well. For example, social closure happens when minorities are denied formal and informal information that can help their careers by being excluded from organizational social networks (Ibarra, 1992; Tilly, 1998). Besides such conscious processes, unconscious processes might play a role, too. For example, the strength of the implicit race bias of individuals is associated with how much individuals trust others with different racial backgrounds (Stanley, Sokol-Hessner, Banaji, & Phelps, 2011). Thus, it is possible that workers might prefer to work and share information with their coworkers who are racially similar to themselves. Besides the advantages of ingroup bias, individuals from the majority groups (i.e., groups that set the norms in a society) might be benefiting from allocation decisions in organizations regardless of the decision makers being ingroup or outgroup. DiTomaso et al. (2007) found that white U.S.-born males, who are the normative ingroup, are favoured by all organizational decisionmakers including non-white female immigrants (Ditomaso, Post, Smith, Farris, & Cordero, 2007). This could be because implicitly associate larger groups with

high status and power (Cao & Banaji, 2017). Thus, social identities of organizational members can be critical determinants of employment outcomes.

Interaction of organizational and institutional arrangements, managers, and coworkers: diversity management. Organizational and institutional arrangements, and workers' discrimination and ingroup bias are not independent of each other. This should not come as a surprise since organizational and institutional arrangements are developed and maintained by managers and workers in an organization. One formal human resource practice that demonstrates how organizational and institutional arrangements and organizational members interact is diversity management practices.

Organizations might adopt diversity management practices to comply with the legal requirement, to be more attractive to prospective workers and consumers, and to improve organizational outcomes as an outcome of a more diverse workforce (Armstrong, 2011). Inequality and diversity have different philosophical roots. The idea of inequality is based on deontology which implies lowering inequalities is a moral requirement (van Dijk, van Engen, & Paauwe, 2012). In contrast, the idea of diversity is rooted in utilitarianism, which emphasizes the value of diversity for business, in other words, 'the business case' (Cornelius et al., 2010; van Dijk et al., 2012). Thus, diversity management practices can shape employment inequalities (Dobbin, Schrage, & Kalev, 2015).

Diversity management policies and practices are enacted and enforced by individual managers. While the laws and regulations pertaining employment equity and diversity (e.g., affirmative action) are the same for all organizations, managers do not necessarily manage employee diversity in the same way (Konrad & Linnehan, 1995; Cunningham, 2009; Armstrong et al., 2010; Richard & Johnson, 2001). Understanding why and how managers interpret and manage diversity is important because it has the potential to shape organizational outcomes. How organizations manage their diversity might also affect job applicants' perceptions of organizational attractiveness (Olsen & Martins, 2016). Therefore, how diversity is managed has implications not only for present employees but also for future employees and organizational outcomes.

First, managers' frame might shape how they perceive diversity. For example, managers' inequality frames might shape whether they perceive diversity as variety, where employees' different experiences and knowledge are emphasized or as disparity, where differences among employment outcomes are their focus (Harrison & Klein, 2007). Thus, the diversity ideology of managers has the potential to shape diversity management practices which in turn frames employment outcomes. Diversity ideology can be referred to the beliefs and attitudes about minority groups and how such groups such be assimilated by the society (Nkomo & Hoobler, 2014). Two major ideologies that drive diversity management practices and diversity climate in organizations are colourblindness and multiculturalism (Ferguson & Porter, 2013). Colourblindness is based on the

idea that if organizations do not notice demographic differences, there will be no identity-based discrimination (Apfelbaum, Norton, & Sommers, 2012). Multiculturalism takes the opposite approach, and it encourages the recognition of group differences (Ferguson & Porter, 2013; Plaut, 2010). It was found that organizations in which white workers endorsed colourblindness, ethnic minority workers had lower psychological engagement and they believed that the organizational climate was racially biased (Plaut, Thomas, & Goren, 2009). Plaut et al. (2009) found opposite results for organizations in which multiculturalism was embraced.

Second, managers' inequality frames might determine whether they are more equity- or equality-oriented. Managers who focus on equity will be results-oriented and will not consider whether employees had equal opportunity for professional and personal growth. On the other hand, managers focusing on equality will take into consideration the identities and past life trajectories of employees, and they will use organizational resources for enhancing employee growth.

Third, managers' inequality frames might determine whether they prioritize procedural justice or distributive justice. Managers with a procedural justice orientation will assume that all employees are treated fairly; thus, employee performance should be the only determinant of rewards. Managers with a distributive justice orientation will consider other factors besides performance

when distributing rewards. Finally, inequality frames might shape managers' propensity to follow legal requirements regarding diversity management (Blalock, 1991).

It is possible that these factors, which are shaped by managers' inequality frames, affect managers' choice of which diversity management practices to apply. The implementation of diversity management practices results in employment outcomes (e.g., hiring, employment, income) at the individual level. These employment outcomes aggregate to objective employment inequalities at the societal level (Bidwell, Briscoe, Fernandez-Mateo, & Sterling, 2013).

Workers with multiple identities. While organizations actively select their workers, job applicants have some control over their identities as well because individuals can construct their identities to a certain degree (Bradley, 1996). Corresponding to 'individuals with intersecting identities' in Figure 2, workers with multiple identities especially have more control over their identities (Scott & Davis, 2007) because workers with multiple identities have a repertoire of identities they can activate and manage (Hogg & Abrams, 1988). Organizational environment and context affect whether workers try to include or exclude their social identities from their professional identities (Ramarajan & Reid, 2013). For example, job applicants with a non-English name who perceive an organization as valuing diversity are less likely to 'whiten' their resume by replacing their name with an English name (Kang, DeCelles, Tilcsik, & Jun, 2016).

As shown in Figure 2, within organizations, organizational and institutional arrangements interact with organizational members (e.g., managers and workers) and shape the demographic composition of their organizations through employment decisions such as hiring and promotion. For example, it is shown that the number of minorities in the organization has a positive effect on the likelihood of other minorities getting employee referrals and employment (Fernandez & Fernandez-Mateo, 2006). Santuzzi and Waltz (2016) assert that the number of coworkers with disabilities in an organization is an essential factor determining whether a worker develops a disability identity. Kanter (1977) demonstrates that a woman's employment outcomes in an organization are influenced by the proportion of women in that organization. For example, the proportion of women managers in an organization and the wages of women workers are positively related (Hultin & Szulkin, 1999). Minorities acquire the token status if they are few in numbers in an organization (Kanter, 1977). This token status provides high visibility to these workers and might have positive or negative results based on the performance of the worker and how coworkers treat the worker (Kanter, 1977). A recent study showed that both white and visible minority workers had lower job satisfaction if their group was the numerical minority group in the workplace (Choi, 2017). Overall, research demonstrates that the demographic composition of organizations affects employment outcomes such as hiring and promotion decisions (Reskin et al., 1999; Shin, 2009), organizations' performance (Richard, Murthi, & Ismail, 2007), human resource practices (Reskin, McBrier, &

Kmec, 1999), and performance evaluations (Castilla, 2011). These organizational outcomes affect employment outcomes directly. Thus, the demographic structure of organizations might affect employment inequalities indirectly. In this thesis, I use proxy variables such as perceived work discrimination to examine its effect on employment outcomes for IwD.

Micro-macro relationships

As shown in Figure 2, referring to the relationships shown with red arrows, social structure is an important determinant of long-term inequality (DiTomaso, 2010). Social structure can be defined as "population distributions among social positions along various lines – positions that reflect and affect people's role relations and social associations." (Blau, 1977b, p. 3). Thus, social structure is formed by individuals who are members of social groups. Some groups have more access to power and resources than others; they are simply more powerful. Dominant groups are socially privileged because they are legitimized as normal and weaker groups are legitimized as inferior, and it is more compatible for them to affiliate with their group than the members of the subordinate groups (Pratto & Stewart, 2012). Societal consensus is determined and enjoyed by the majority group because it gives control of material and psychological resources to the majority group (Crano & Hemovich, 2014). Status beliefs become accepted by all groups and reproduced through daily social interactions (Skaggs & DiTomaso,

2004). Thus, inequalities become durable when they are taken for granted and considered normal (Tilly, 1998).

Ideologies in social structure. Referring to the interaction between social structure and individuals with intersecting identities (red arrow) and social structure and employment inequality interaction (purple arrow) in Figure 2, ideologies have an essential role in legitimizing inequalities because they shape assumptions about inequality and these assumptions reinforce the existing structural employment inequalities (Padavic & Reskin, 2002). Structural employment inequality is reproduced by processes that take place at the micro level and link to macro level (Skaggs & DiTomaso, 2004). Dominant groups in society use their material and psychological resources to create a value system and ideology to maintain their dominant status (Hogg & Abrams, 1988). Legitimization of their privilege through ideology is a commonly used tool (Ensminger Vanfossen, 1979; Pratto, Sidanius, & Levin, 2006).

The legitimization of inequality might be based on social identities (Sidanius & Pratto, 1999). The categorization process of the SIT asserts that minority individuals are motivated to join the majority group (Crano & Hemovich, 2014). While categorization almost instantly happens among individuals and their groups, intergroup dynamics are more prevalent when there are already existing inequality patterns among groups (Ditomaso & Parks-Yancy, 2014; Tomaskovic-Devey, Avent-Holt, Zimmer, & Harding, 2010). While individuals have some

control over their identities, their identities are not entirely fluid (Bradley, 1996). For example, while it might be possible to move to another class by social mobility, it is hard to change skin colour. Furthermore, individuals' past experiences put a limitation on the range of social categories they can categorize with (Bradley, 1996). Individuals' experience might also change what they perceive as changeable or taken-for-granted (Hogg & Abrams, 1988). Thus, individuals have only limited control over their identities.

Individuals' identities interact with the dominant ideology and let them acquire identities which shape how they evaluate themselves and others (Hogg & Abrams, 1988). For example, subordinate groups may evaluate themselves and their groups negatively. Low-status groups such as immigrants and people with disabilities are likely to justify the existing inequalities and conclude that they get what they deserve (Ditomaso & Parks-Yancy, 2014). Ideology has important implication for perceiving discrimination. Low-status groups that accept the ideology of meritocracy are less likely to perceive adverse outcomes from high-status groups as discrimination (Major et al., 2002).

Two major explanations of inequality are based on meritocratic and structural ideologies (Cech & Blair-Loy, 2010). Meritocracy, a highly prevalent ideology in North America, emphasizes the role of individual agency in individuals' outcomes: how their human capital (e.g., education, training, work experience) and work efforts combine to shape their employment outcomes. In contrast,

structural ideology emphasizes how structural factors that are beyond individuals' control (e.g., unemployment rate, unequal opportunities, discrimination) explain employment inequalities (Cech & Blair-Loy, 2010).

Ditomaso (2015) argues that it is possible for the dominant groups to create and maintain a system, that is, a social structure that favours them and not others by without actively discriminating or excluding. This mainly happens by individuals helping their friends, families, and others in their networks. For example, if there is a job opening in an organization, workers can let their family members and friends about this opportunity and give insider information that will help them to be hired because workers are more likely to have others who are demographically similar to themselves (McPherson, Smith-Lovin, & Cook, 2001). Thus, members of the majority group end up having better employment outcomes (Ibarra, 1995). This creates inequality in the long run with no explicit discrimination and intergroup conflict (DiTomaso, 2015).

Social structure, social identity, and intergroup relations. The relationship among the social structure, social identity, and intergroup relations are depicted by red arrows in Figure 2. Besides the dominant ideology that makes inequalities less visible, there are psychological reasons for individuals' poor perception of overall inequality in society (Nielsen, 2017). Nielsen (2017) argues that most individuals are poor at perceiving the overall inequality in a society because for tens of thousands of years humans lived in small communities and they did not

develop an ability to view inequality in large societies where the size of the society makes inequalities less anonymous.

The social structure is an essential determinant of the level of intergroup discrimination as well. As an extension of the SIT, social identity complexity can be defined as "the perceived interrelationships among individuals' multiple social group memberships" (Schmid & Hewstone, 2014, p.80). Societies where identity complexity is low, there will be less overlap among groups and individuals will be more likely to perceive themselves having fewer identities (Brewer, 2001). For example, a society where the majority is predominantly white and Catholic, and the minority group predominantly consists of black Muslim is a highly segmented society. In this hypothetical case, society is practically divided into two groups (Brewer, 2001). People are likely to perceive more differences among groups and intergroup discrimination will be more prevalent (Schmid & Hewstone, 2014).

On the other hand, in more complex societies, there will be a higher level of cross-cutting group distinctions where there will be a low correlation between social identities. In such societies, religious, ethnic, and other social identities will be dispersed more evenly across groups. This will result in weaker group boundaries, less exclusive groups (Schmid & Hewstone, 2014) and individuals perceiving each other more like themselves. This will lead to positive intergroup attitudes and lower intergroup discrimination. As the intergroup contact theory states contact between the groups might change ingroup perceptions as well as

outgroup perceptions by highlighting how social categories might not overlap (Schmid & Hewstone, 2014).

Intergroup contact enhances social identity complexity of individuals (Schmid & Hewstone, 2014). Furthermore, this impact might also spill over to outgroup members whom individuals might know only indirectly (e.g., friends of friends) (Schmid & Hewstone, 2014). For example, an individual learning about the friendship of an ingroup member with an outgroup member will have less prejudice towards that outgroup despite not meeting that person.

Social structure and labour market structure relationship. Another macro factor that shapes employment inequalities is the labour market structure. This relationship is depicted with the red arrow between 'legal, social, technological, and economic environment' and 'individuals with intersecting identities.' Both supply side of the labour market (e.g., workers' human capital and motivation) and demand side (e.g., macroeconomic environment, number and types of jobs) need to be examined to understand employment outcomes (Scott & Davis, 2007). As the theory of minority group threat states, intergroup competition and discrimination might intensify if there is economic depression or labour surplus (Blalock, 1967). An important theoretical model that explains the relationship between the labour market and macro-level discrimination is the overcrowding model. Developed by Bergmann (1974), overcrowding model claims that the problem is not workers' not getting paid according to their productivity. The

problem is that because of their social identities some workers systematically are left less productive than others by having less access to capital that will lower their productivity (Blau et al., 2010).

Macro environment. Besides ideology, intergroup relations, social structure, and labour market structure, changes in the macro environment (see Figure 2) such as technological advancements and political mobilization can shift the power balance and change the societal structure over time (Acemoglu, 2002; Skaggs & DiTomaso, 2004). National culture can also make a difference how intergroup relations are shaped. It is possible that collectivist societies where social interdependence is more accentuated are more likely to have stronger negative feelings towards outgroup individuals compared to individualistic societies (Brewer, 2001). The political climate in a country is related to employment inequalities by shaping seemingly unrelated micro interactions in the workplace. Soylu and Sheehy-Skeffington (2015) demonstrated that workplace bullying based on the increasing political polarization of Turkish society creates and maintains employment inequalities.

Meso-macro relationships

Meso-macro relationships take place between organizations, macro environment, employment inequalities, and social structure (depicted with the purple arrows in Figure 2). Organizations are not self-sufficient, and they must adapt to their environment, at least to a certain degree, to survive (Scott & Davis, 2007).

Especially since the 1970s, external market forces have become more critical in determining how organizations are governed whereas the internal hierarchy of organizational governance has weakened (Bidwell et al., 2013). This market penetration resulted in declining tenure through layoffs, increasing rate of contingent workers and outsourcing, higher rates of performance-based pay, and reduced employment benefits (Bidwell et al., 2013).

Organizations are embedded in their fields (Scott & Davis, 2007). As described in the institutional theory, organizational fields consist of all stakeholders that shape an organization's chance of survival such as suppliers, consumers, regulatory agencies, competitors, and partner organizations (DiMaggio & Powell, 1983). Organizations face pressure from other actors in their fields to have norms, structures, and practices similar to other organizations in their environment (DiMaggio & Powell, 1983; Meyer & Rowan, 1977). External pressures to organizations might shape employment inequalities. DiMaggio and Powell (1983) list three types of pressures organizations face from their fields: coercive, normative, and mimetic. I argue in this thesis that these types of pressure can shape employment inequalities.

Coercive pressures come from governments, regulatory agencies, and other institutions that have some power over organizations, and determine the legitimacy of an organization (DiMaggio & Powell, 1983). Regarding employment inequality, coercive pressures might reveal themselves as

discrimination lawsuits (Stainback et al., 2010). Discrimination lawsuits are difficult to ignore because they might weaken organizational legitimacy and cause financial loss through settlements (Stainback et al., 2010). Another way employment inequality might be shaped by coercive pressures are employment equity/affirmative action laws (Konrad & Linnehan, 1995). The implementation of these laws might be imposed on organizations directly. Furthermore, organizations might voluntarily adopt diversity management policies to face less pressure from the governmental agencies (Nkomo & Hoobler, 2014). While employment equity regulations are aimed at improving social justice, the primary goal of diversity management programs is not decreasing employment inequalities and discrimination but benefiting from a diverse workforce for enhancing organizational outcomes such as profit (Groeneveld, 2017; Knights & Omanovic, 2017). It is also possible that organizations change themselves to adapt to laws and regulations when they want to become contractors for the government (Konrad & Linnehan, 1995). For example, according to the Federal Contractors Program, contractors who work with the Canadian government must agree to implement Employment Equity Act and report their workforce composition on a regular basis (Employment and Social Development Canada, 2016).

Normative pressures come from the routines, operations standards, rules, and customs obtained from organizations' fields (Stainback et al., 2010). Professionalization and workers' movement in different organizations in the field

are the primary source of normative pressures (DiMaggio & Powell, 1983). For example, a normative discourse has emerged which asserts human resource managers are professionals and essential business partners for their organizations (Wright, 2008). Accompanying this discourse will be the best practices and norms that will be diffused among human resource managers. Conventional understandings of practices that shape employment inequalities such as diversity management and application of employment equity laws will eventually emerge among human resource managers.

Mimetic pressures stem from organizational efforts to reduce uncertainty in the field (DiMaggio & Powell, 1983) which is prioritized when making decisions (Cyert & March, 1963). Organizations do so by trying to become more like other organizations that are deemed legitimate (Stainback et al., 2010). For example, McTague, Stainback, and Tomaskovic-Devey (2009) demonstrated that race and sex segregation in organizations follow the segregation levels of the most powerful and influential organizations in the industry (McTague, Stainback, & Tomaskovic-Devey, 2009; Tilly, 1998). Tilly (1998) argues that organizations try to imitate powerful organizations' policies and norms to avoid the costs of developing new ideologies. Thus, one of the mechanisms which aggregate individual-level employment outcomes to macro-level employment inequalities is through organizations developing similar inequality-enhancing or inequality-diminishing policies and norms due to mimetic pressures. For example, recent research shows that the demographic structure of organizations might have a

direct impact on employment inequalities. It is found that due to wage compression within large organizations, there is a negative relationship between the number of workers employed by large firms and income inequality but this relationship is weakened as organizations become more racially diverse (Cobb & Stevens, 2016). Therefore, organizational demography shapes income inequality directly and indirectly.

Empirical literature on immigrants, people with disabilities, and immigrants with disabilities

Immigrants

Canada has one of the highest annual immigration flow rates among developed countries with 0.7 percent of its population in 2011 (OECD, 2014). In 2013, Canada accepted more than 250,000 immigrants and the number of immigrants entering Canada has not substantially changed in the last 10 years (Citizenship and Immigration Canada, 2014). Canada's immigration policy has a long history actively seeking to attract skilled immigrants (Citizenship and Immigration Canada, 2012).

Numerous studies show that the Canadian immigration system can attract highly-skilled immigrants but the skills of these immigrants are not tapped. Multiple studies demonstrate that the skills of immigrants have been increasingly

underutilized in Canada over the last three decades (Reitz, 2001a; Reitz, Curtis, & Elrick, 2014; Thompson, 2000). Since the 1960s, there is discounting of immigrants' skills (Reitz, 2001a). Compared to Canadian-born, the labour force participation rate of immigrants had decreased between 1970 and 1995 (Reitz, 2001b). These trends continue to exist. It is shown that immigrants have a lower employment rate and income than Canadian-born with similar education and work experience (Statistics Canada, 2017; Conference Board of Canada, 2015). Furthermore, immigrants have lower employment rates than Canadian-born workers even if they stayed in Canada for more than 10 years (Statistics Canada, 2015a). Moreover, immigrants are less likely to work in an occupation to correspond to their education level and specialization than Canadian-born (Plante, 2011). Compared to Canadian-born with similar human capital levels, immigrants are paid less (Reitz, 2001a). Two possible reasons behind this outcome are discrimination against immigrants and immigrants' human capital transferred from home country to Canada at a lower rate (Chiswick & Miller, 2003; Chiswick & Miller, 2009). Research shows that even those who are more educated are at risk. For example, because of their threat perceptions, Canadian-born recruiters are more likely to discriminate highly skilled and qualified immigrants than low-skilled immigrants (Dietz, Joshi, Esses, Hamilton, & Gabarrot, 2015).

Besides labour force participation, employment, and employment income, immigrants face other employment inequalities that might hurt their wellbeing. For example, it was shown that being an immigrant leads to lower pay and

benefits satisfaction (Zeytinoglu, Cooke, Harry, & Chowhan, 2008) and job satisfaction (Chowhan, Zeytinoglu, & Cooke, 2014). Such negative employment outcomes might have macro-level outcomes that are detrimental to Canadian society as well. For example, it is shown that approximately 40 percent of economic class immigrants, the group with the highest level of human capital, leave Canada for good within the first 10 years (Aydemir & Robinson, 2006). The unrecognized skills of the immigrants represent a substantial loss to the economy (Ferrer & Riddell, 2008). For example, only in 2001, the lost national income due to unrecognition of the immigrants' human capital due to unemployment and underemployment was more than $4 billion (Bloom & Grant, 2001). Research shows that there is a positive relationship between the share of immigrant owners or partners of an organization and innovation (Lee, 2015). Therefore, unemployment or underemployment of immigrants hurt Canada's innovation capabilities as well. In short, employment inequalities experienced by immigrants have detrimental consequences not only for immigrants but all Canadians.

It should be underlined that immigrant is a multifaceted identity that might include ethnicity, religion, accent, culture, disability, and other factors that might play a role in determining employment outcomes. Before the 1970s, people who immigrated to Canada came mostly from Europe, and they were predominantly white and Christian. For example, Europeans consisted 78.3% of all immigrants before 1971 whereas immigrants from Europe who arrived between 2006 and 2011 decreased to 13.7% (Statistics Canada, 2013b). Similarly, 78.4% of the

immigrants who came before 1971 were Christians whereas only 47.5% of the ones who landed between 2006 and 2011 were Christians (Statistics Canada, 2013). In other words, the ethnocultural diversity of immigrants has dramatically increased within the last 40 years. It is important to underline that there is more than one dimension of diversity of immigrants. They can be visible minorities as well as cultural minorities. Furthermore, their professional skills coming from their education, training, linguistic skills as it pertains to the official languages of Canada, and work experience might be coming from various countries as well. Thus, it is critical to assess different dimension of diversity when examining immigrants. Nevertheless, most of the Canadian studies focus on ethnicity rather than immigrant identity (Hyman, 2007). Thus, immigrants constitute a heterogeneous group, and intersecting identities of immigrants should be taken into consideration to have a more nuanced understanding of why and how immigrants experience employment inequalities.

People with disabilities

It is estimated that there are more than one billion people with disabilities in the world (World Health Organization, 2014). Thus, people with disabilities could be described as one of the world's largest minority groups. Canada is not an exception to this reality with almost 3.8 million Canadians (i.e., approximately 13.7 percent of the adult population) facing limitations in their daily activities due to disability (Statistics Canada, 2013d). Furthermore, the number of persons with

disabilities is expected to increase as the populations in nearly all countries in the world age (United Nations, 2013; World Health Organization, 2014).

Research taking place in different countries provide shows strong evidence demonstrating severe employment inequalities experienced by people with disabilities. There is a significant adverse effect of disability on labour force participation (Cai, 2009). In a study conducted in Australia, it was demonstrated that people with disabilities were less likely to search for and find work (Hutton, Bohle, McNamara, & Li, 2014). It has also been found that having a disability has a negative impact on employment (Yelin & Trupin, 2003), which includes being more likely to face involuntary turnover than people with no disabilities (Baldwin & Schumacher, 2002). A 2008 study showed that most employers do not proactively hire people with disabilities because of stereotypical beliefs such as there being additional associated costs and concerns over performance (Langford, Lengnick-Hall, & Kulkarni, 2013; Lengnick-Hall, Gaunt, & Kulkarni, 2008). Indeed, it has been found that disability negatively affects hiring decisions (Perry, Hendricks, & Broadbent, 2000; Ren, Paetzold, & Colella, 2008). A meta-analysis study showed that disability has a negative impact on hiring decisions and performance expectations and positive impact on performance evaluations (Ren et al., 2008). This could be because of the pity felt towards people with disabilities (Fiske et al., 2002). It was found that disability was correlated with lower income from employment and higher involuntary turnover (Schur, Kruse, Blasi, & Blanck, 2009). As the duration of unemployment increases, people with

disabilities are less likely to find a job compared people with no disabilities (Sciulli, Menezes, & Vieira, 2011). It was found that the employment of people with disabilities was affected more negatively by the 2007-2009 recession compared to that of people with no disabilities (Kaye, 2010). This finding suggests that people with disabilities might be the first group to be laid off. A 2013 study showed that most employers do not proactively hire people with disabilities due to misguided concerns over performance and stereotypical misconceptions that such hires require additional associated costs (Langford et al., 2013). Indeed, it has been found that disability negatively affects hiring decisions (Ren et al., 2008). Furthermore, people with disabilities are more likely to experience involuntary job loss compared to people with no disabilities (Mitra & Kruse, 2016). These studies demonstrate that people with disabilities suffer employment inequalities concerning the likelihood of employment and level of employment income.

The employment inequality trends in Canada are in line with the findings summarized above. People with disabilities in Canada face barriers in labour market participation and employment (Prince, 2016). People with disabilities have a lower employment rate than people with no disabilities. For example, Canadians with disabilities had a 49 percent employment rate whereas their non-disabled counterparts had 79 percent employment rate (Turcotte, 2014). Compared to countries such as Denmark, Norway, and Sweden, people with disabilities in Canada have the lowest employment rates, and the employment rates of people

with no disabilities and people with disabilities have widened over time (Holland, Burström, et al., 2011). People with disabilities face problems not only in the workplace but also around it. For example, blind or low-vision workers in Canada have difficulties attending social events with their coworkers outside the workplace and attending conferences that can help them to grow their professional network (Naraine & Lindsay, 2011). People with disabilities are more likely to be under-employed than people without disabilities in Canada. The employment rate of Canadians with disabilities is approximately 44 percent (in 2005), Moreover, the employment rates between Canadians without disabilities and Canadians with disabilities has widened over time (Holland, Burström, Whitehead, Diderichsen, Dahl, Barr, Nylén, Chen, Thielen, van der Wel, Clayton, & Uppal, 2011). Canadians with disabilities are more likely to be employed in lower-skilled jobs and less likely to be employed in managerial and professional jobs (Employment and Social Development Canada, 2014). A recent study demonstrated that there is significant pay discrimination against people with disabilities in Canada (Gunderson & Lee, 2016).

The employment inequalities experienced by people with disabilities is not an outcome of their reluctance to work or their preference for a different type of job (Ali, Schur, & Blanck, 2011). Ali et al. (2011) found that people with disabilities and people without disabilities do not differ regarding the type of job they want. One reason people with disabilities experience employment inequalities is discrimination. Indeed, it is found that workplace and employer discrimination

may be among the significant factors that prevent the hiring and retaining of people with disabilities (Shier, Graham, & Jones, 2009). It was found that only half of the labour force participation rate and employment income differences between people with disabilities and people with no disabilities can be associated with lower productivity related with disability (Kidd, Sloane, & Ferko, 2000). In other words, 50 percent of wage and labour force participation rate difference between people with disabilities and people with no disabilities cannot be explained by productivity, which can be an indicator of work discrimination (Kidd et al., 2000). The discrimination against people with disabilities might be evolutionary. Individuals perceive outgroup members with physical differences such as disability and obesity as pathogen carriers and try to avoid them for avoiding contagious diseases (Schaller & Park, 2011; Van Vugt & Park, 2009) even if there is no actual threat of disease (Neuberg & Schaller, 2016).

Employment outcomes indicate not only financial wellbeing but also life satisfaction of people with disabilities (Konrad, Moore, Ng, Doherty, & Breward, 2012b). Konrad et al. (2012b) demonstrated that whether people with disabilities are in labour force, employed, and the degree of their perception of skill utilization are associated with their life satisfaction. Similarly, a Canadian study found that unemployment of people with disabilities lowers their happiness (Uppal, 2006). It was found that workers with disabilities held more negative views on how managers treated workers and had lower job satisfaction and organizational commitment compared workers with no disabilities (Jones, 2013).

Immigrants with disabilities

While the worldwide number of IwD is not known, it is estimated that there are more than 500,000 IwD in Canada (Statistics Canada, 2013a). With the aging Canadian population and the increasing number of immigrants to Canada, this number is expected to grow. Despite the growing number of IwD, there are very few studies on IwD in Canada or elsewhere. The number of studies that focuses on the employment of IwD is even lower. There is a need to understand the different perspectives of IwD and the difficulties they face (Stienstra, 2002). Furthermore, there is little recognition of the skills and contributions of IwD can offer to organizations by the employers (Sweet et al., 2014). Thus, studying IwD can contribute to a more nuanced understanding of the difficulties the separate groups of immigrants and people with disabilities face in the labour market.

One of the reasons why IwD have been overlooked in the literature could be due to a phenomenon known as the "healthy immigrant effect." Upon their arrival to their host countries, most immigrants initially have at least as good health characteristics as Canadian-born (Hyman, 2007). Nevertheless, in time, immigrants' health condition converges to that of Canadian-born which is known as "healthy immigrant effect" (De Maio, 2010; Gushulak, 2007). A number of social, economic and health-related factors such as immigrants' higher risk of acquiring injuries at work (Premji & Krause, 2010; Premji, Duguay, Messing, & Lippel, 2010; Salminen, 2011; Smith, Chen, & Mustard, 2009; Turchick Hakak &

Al Ariss, 2013), self-selection of healthier individuals as a result of mandatory medical exam as a part of immigration application (Gushulak, 2007), and acculturation of immigrants to the culture of their host country (De Souza & Fuller-Thomson, 2013) are potential explanations behind this effect.

However, the healthy immigrant effect might have led to a widespread belief that immigrants are not likely to have a disability. Nevertheless, this effect is stronger for recent immigrants but not for established immigrants (Vang, Sigouin, Flenon, & Gagnon, 2015). A recent study by Newbold and Simone (2015) demonstrates that recent immigrants are less likely to have a disability compared to immigrants who have lived in Canada longer, and I argue, perhaps, the latter group acquired the impairment in the country. IwD might also be overlooked because prospective immigrants might have hidden their disabilities to prevent from being denied entry into Canada and continue to hide their disabilities. Another reason is that disability has different definitions in different cultures (Thomas, 2014) and especially recent immigrants might not self-identify as having a disability although they might be considered having a disability in the Canadian context.

One way immigrants might acquire disability is through occupational health and safety risks. On average, immigrants face a higher risk of work injury than natives in the U.S. (Bell et al., 2010) and Canada (Smith & Mustard, 2009; Smith & Mustard, 2010). Furthermore, the higher rates of unemployment and underemployment hurt the mental and physical health of immigrants (Dean &

Wilson, 2009). Labour force participation, employment, and health of immigrants are interrelated. Premji, Duguay, Messing, and Lippel (2010) found that immigrants are more likely to have jobs with a higher level of risk, which increases the possibility of severe injuries and chronic illnesses and eventually acquiring a disability. Furthermore, IwD experience more difficulties with dealing with the medical and legal aspects of work injuries compared to Canadian-born with disabilities (CwD) (Gravel et al., 2010).

The employment outcomes of IwD are extremely understudied. In one of the rare studies conducted in the U.S., it was found that IwD were more likely to be employed compared to US-born workers with disabilities (Xiang, Shi, Wheeler, & Wilkins III, 2010). Furthermore, it was shown that IwD were more likely to receive higher employment income than U.S.-born with disabilities (Morgan, 2011). Nevertheless, IwD faced a higher risk for poor access to care than U.S.-born with disabilities (Morgan, 2011) which can hurt their capability to participate in the labour force and find a job. A recent Canadian study found that there was no significant difference in employment between IwD and CwD, but that InD were more likely to be employed than IwD (Beiser & Hou, 2014). Another study conducted in Canada demonstrated that employers are reluctant to hire IwD or interested in hiring them at lower salaries (Sweet, Adamuti-Trache, Anisef, & Stone, 2014).

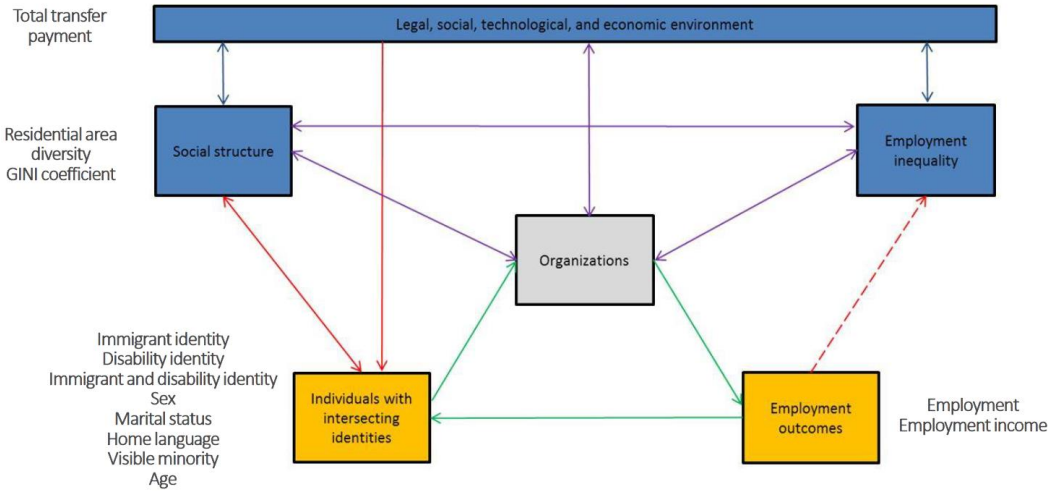
Two studies on identity, employment, and inequality: immigrants with disabilities

In this section, I focus on the two studies of my thesis integrating the SIT, double jeopardy hypothesis, intergroup contact theory, and theory of minority group threat in examining identity, employment, and inequality issues for IwD. These two studies are analyzed with the multi-level model of employment inequality that I have developed in the previous pages (see Figure 2). The Study 1 variables are demonstrated within this multi-level model in Figure 3. The Study 2 variables are demonstrated within the multi-level model in Figure 4. Each study fulfills an objective of the second purpose of this thesis: to build on the previous research that take Canada as its context, and immigrants and people with disabilities as groups of focus to provide a more nuanced understanding of employment inequalities experienced by IwD.

Study 1: Intersecting identities, residential area diversity, and employment inequalities: the case of immigrants with disabilities

While most of the management studies on inequality focus on employment income, employment is also an important determinant of social inequality for a simple reason: individuals must be first employed to receive wages or salaries. Furthermore, unemployment is both social and individual problem in that it shapes not only income levels of individuals but also their well-being (Chandler, 2017). For example, Konrad et al. (2012b) found that unemployment of people

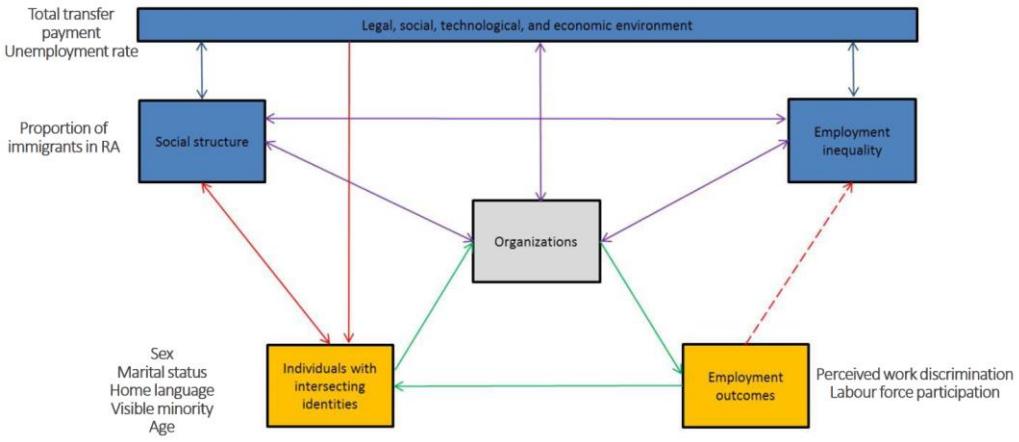
Figure 3. *Study 2 variables demonstrated within the multi-level model of employment inequality for workers with multiple identities*



with disabilities hurts their well-being. This finding is not surprising since being unemployed might accompany the social stigma of being considered unsuccessful (Chandler, 2017). Since employment rates differ across different social groups, it is imperative to examine how and why employment of social groups differ (Chandler, 2017). As shown in Figure 2, employment outcomes have multiple level determinants. This study brings together micro-level (i.e., workers with intersecting immigrant and disability identities) and macro-level (i.e., residential area diversity as an indicator of social structure) determinants of employment outcomes to examine two employment outcomes: employment and employment income.

According to the SIT, individuals tend to exaggerate the difference between ingroup and outgroup individuals and ingroup members favoured over the

Figure 4. *Study 2 variables demonstrated within the multi-level model of employment inequality for workers with multiple identities*



outgroup members (Hogg & Abrams, 1988) and outgroups help to maintain ingroup identity (Brewer, 2001). As presented in the earlier sections, once outgroups are perceived to threaten the access to sources, intergroup competition and discrimination start (Brewer, 2001). There is abundant literature on the employment of immigrants and people with disabilities demonstrating that both identities are disadvantaged regarding their employment outcomes compared to native-born and people with no disabilities. According to the double jeopardy hypothesis, the disadvantages of these two identities will accumulate. Thus, immigrant and disability intersection will have a negative impact on employment and employment income.

While the focus of this study and thesis is on IwD, I start with testing and confirming inequalities experienced by immigrants and people with disabilities as the previous literature shows. I use these results to compare the outcomes of the

intersection of these two identities, immigration and disability, from a relational perspective. I develop the following hypotheses based on the SIT, double jeopardy hypothesis, and the literature review:

> *H_1a: Immigrants will have a lower likelihood of employment than Canadian-born.*
>
> *H_1b: People with disabilities will have a lower likelihood of employment than people with no disabilities.*
>
> *H_1c: The intersection of immigrant and disability will be negatively associated with employment.*
>
> *H_2a: Immigrants will have lower employment income than Canadian-born.*
>
> *H_2b: People with disabilities will have lower employment income than Canadian-born.*
>
> *H_2c: The intersection of immigrant and disability will be negatively associated with employment income.*

The hypotheses developed above correspond to Figure 2's micro-level components (i.e., individuals with intersecting identities and employment outcomes) and macro-level components (i.e., social structure). Organizations do not exist independently from the social structure, that is, RAs (e.g., cities, towns) in which they are located. While organizations have boundaries, they are not

immune from their environment. This ‘embeddedness’ of organizations implies that the RAD might shape organizational diversity and its related outcomes (Brief et al., 2005; Leslie, 2017).

An important implication of the intergroup contact theory is that as a community gets more diverse, there will be more opportunities for intergroup contact (Blau, 1977b). Thus, there will be a lower level of ingroup bias in diverse communities (Brewer, 2001). A study conducted in Germany and England confirmed this hypothesis and found that neighbourhood diversity was negatively associated with ingroup bias and social distance (Schmid, Hewstone, & Al Ramiah, 2013). Another study found that individuals tend to be more prosocial in racially diverse neighbourhoods (Nai, Narayanan, Hernandez, & Savani, 2017). Brief et al. (2005) found that diversity-related conflicts in community spilled over to organizations. Thus, the RAD moderates the level of organizational attractiveness perceived by minority job applicants (Olsen & Martins, 2016). For example, negative public opinion about people with disabilities was associated with a salary gap (Hendricks & Broadbent, 1997).

The individuals living in diverse RAs will have more opportunities to have contact with other individuals from other groups. As intergroup contact becomes more frequent, the prejudice for outgroup members and preference for ingroup members will decrease, resulting in lower discrimination, as the intergroup contact theory states (Pettigrew & Tropp, 2006). Individuals’ intergroup

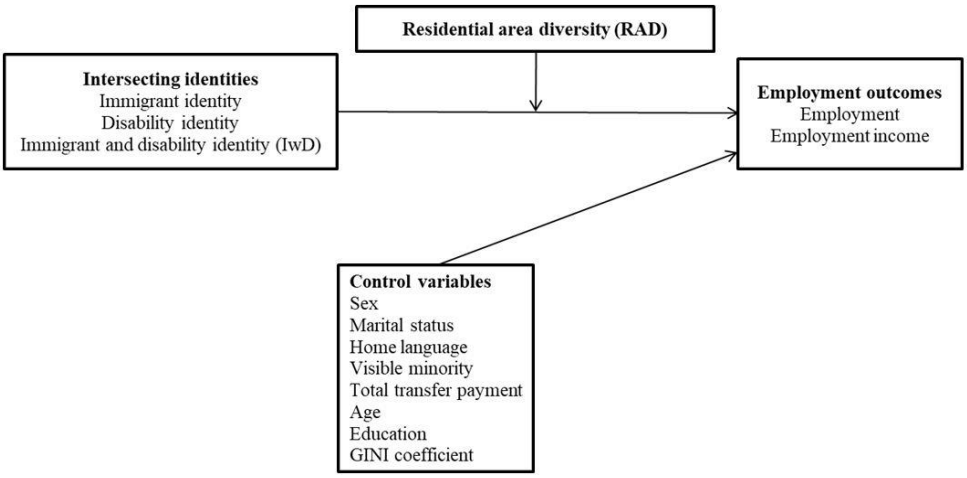
experiences outside work are carried into the workplace and guide the norms of intergroup behaviour in the workplace (Gonzalez, 2013; Joshi, Liao, & Roh, 2011; Pettigrew, 1998). For example, the level of inclusiveness of the local community is positively related to inclusion efforts in organizations (Humberd, Clair, & Creary, 2015). The positive impact of intergroup contact in the community will spill over to the organizations and improve the employment outcomes of IwD. Thus, I posit:

H_3a: As the RAD increases, employment likelihood of IwD will increase.

H_3b: As the RAD increases, the level of employment income of IwD will increase.

The model can be seen in Figure 3. Control variables included in the model refer to factors known in the literature as associated with the employment outcomes of immigrants and people with disabilities or include variables such as GINI coefficient that I consider as relevant for the study and should be controlled (see Methods section for more information on control variables).

Figure 5. *Study 1 model: Intersecting identities, residential area diversity, and employment inequalities: the case of immigrants with disabilities*



Study 2: The asymmetrical impact of proportion of immigrants in a residential area on perceived work discrimination and labour force participation: the case of immigrants with disabilities and Canadian-born with disabilities

Study 2 examines perceived work discrimination as a mediator between labour force participation and immigrant percentage by RA. Increasing the labour force participation of disadvantaged groups is key to reducing inequality (Keeley, 2015). Participating in the labour force depends on a number of individual and structural factors such as education (Contreras, de Mello, & Puentes, 2011; Muench, van Wijnbergen, & Lejour, 2009), health (Cai & Kalb, 2006; Worthington, O'Brien, Zack, McKee, & Oliver, 2012), socioeconomic status (Schuring, Robroek, Otten, Arts, & Burdorf, 2013), income inequality

(Semyonov, 1980), employment regulations and labour market policies (Bonoli, 2010; Börsch-Supan, 2000; Worthington et al., 2012), and unemployment rate (Gitter, 1982). Some of these factors are available in my dataset and are included in my model as control variables (see Figure 4).

Furthermore, labour force participation is an indicator of social inclusion (Chandler, 2017). Factors that prevent people with disabilities from participating in the labour market exclude them not only from employment but also social life. Research shows that disability impedes labour force participation (Campolieti, 2002; Schuring et al., 2013).

One factor potentially related to labour force participation that is yet to be examined is the social structure. This study brings together micro-level variables (i.e., labour force participation of IwD and CwD) and macro-level variables (i.e., proportion of immigrants in RA as an indicator of social structure) as seen in Figure 2. There is no research on whether demographic characteristics of an RA might shape labour force participation of the residents. In this study, I develop and test the model presented in Figure 4 using the theory of minority threat. According to the theory of minority group threat, as the number of minorities in an RA increases, the majority group will be more likely to perceive the minority group as a threat and will start discriminating against the minority group gradually (Blalock, 1967). Mechanisms such as social closure will be more prominent when the size of the minority group increases (Sidanius & Pratto, 1999). Extant research

demonstrates that the proportion of immigrants in an RA is positively related to the native-born's perceptions of threat which in turn leads to anti-immigrant attitudes (Schlueter & Scheepers, 2010). Blalock (1967) asserts that objective discrimination and perceived discrimination are strongly correlated. Because it is immigrants who are perceived as a threat, I argue that IwD will perceive work discrimination. Furthermore, it is found that immigrants had a stronger perception of workplace discrimination than Canadian-born (Banerjee, 2008). Based on the theory of minority group threat and the empirical literature that shows immigrants are seen as a threat, I argue that IwD will perceive work discrimination. Thus, I posit that:

> *H_4a: The proportion of immigrants in the RA will be positively associated with perceived work discrimination of IwD.*

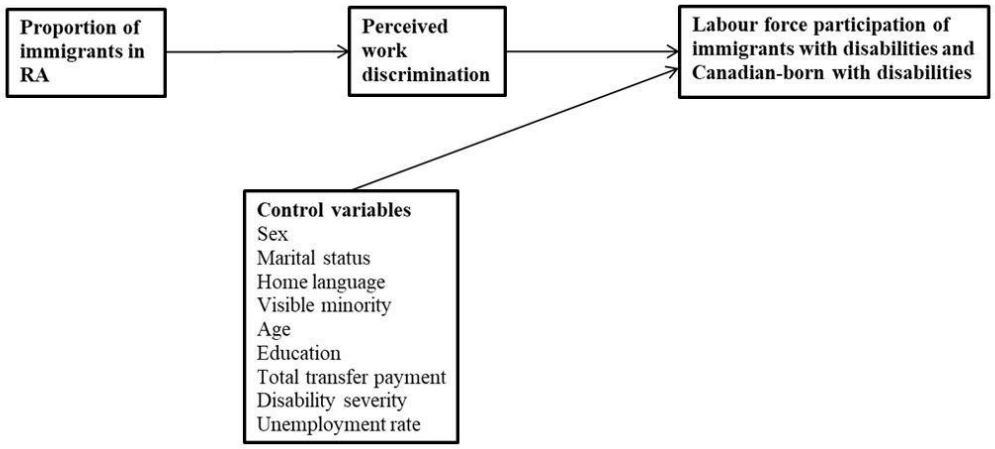
While the literature shows that CwD experience perceived and actual work discrimination, there is no logical reason for CwD's perceived work discrimination to be associated with the percentage of immigrants in an RA. Thus, I hypothesize that:

> *H_4b: The proportion of immigrants in the RA will not have a significant association with perceived work discrimination of CwD.*

These relationships are shown in Figure 4.

Figure 6. *Study 2: The asymmetrical impact of the proportion of immigrants in a residential area on perceived work discrimination and labour force participation:*

the case of immigrants with disabilities (IwD) and Canadian-born with disabilities (CwD)



While the determinants of labour force participation of people with disabilities are understudied, a factor that is specially examined rarely is perceived work discrimination and its association with labour force participation of IwD. Perceived work discrimination has severe consequences for workers such as mental health problems (Bhui et al., 2005; Wadsworth et al., 2007), stress (Din-Dzietham, Nembhard, Collins, & Davis, 2004), physical and emotional health (Pavalko, Mossakowski, & Hamilton, 2003), lower organizational commitment, job satisfaction, and organizational citizenship behaviour (Ensher, Grant-Vallone, & Donaldson, 2001; Villanueva-Flores, Valle, & Bornay-Barrachina, 2017). Few studies on the topic show that perceived work discrimination is a determinant of labour force participation (Aldrich & Callanan, 2011; Castillo, 1998). People with disabilities who are out of labour force have a higher perception of work

discrimination than those who are employed (Konrad et al., 2012a). Thus, as I show in Figure 4, regardless of their immigrant identity, people with disabilities' labour force participation should be negatively associated with perceived work discrimination:

> *H_5: Perceived work discrimination will have a negative association with labour force participation for both IwD and CwD.*

Bringing H_4a, H_4b, and H_5 together, I argue that perceived work discrimination will be a mediator for the proportion of immigrants in RA and labour force participation association, and develop the following hypotheses:

> *H_6a: Perceived work discrimination will mediate the association between the proportion of immigrants in the RA and labour force participation for IwD.*

However, as presented above, I argue that the proportion of immigrants in an RA will have no association with CwD's perceived work discrimination and thus:

> *H_6b: Perceived work discrimination will not mediate the association between the proportion of immigrants in the RA and labour force participation for CwD.*

Methods

Research design

The research design of this thesis is guided by intersectionality using quantitative research methods. While most of the intersectionality studies are conducted using qualitative methods (Mercer, Paludi, Helms Mills, & Mills, 2017), quantitative research with an intersectionality focus can identify structural inequalities that might be difficult to see with qualitative analysis (Scott & Siltanen, 2012). Furthermore, quantitative intersectionality research can identify inequality patterns that can lead to policy evaluation and advancement (Mercer et al., 2017; Woodhams, Lupton, & Cowling, 2015a).

There are three main decisions to make when conducting quantitative intersectionality research: which identities to include, which statistical techniques to be applied, and whether to use an interaction or additive approach. As McCall (2005) suggests, the emphasis is on examining the patterns of differences in employment outcomes for workers with multiple identities, that is immigrant and disability. In this thesis, I focus on IwD as compared to InD, CwD, and CnD. Informed by an intersectionality perspective, the analysis in this thesis will start with more traditional statistical analysis where descriptive statistics, correlations, and inferential analysis are conducted to test hypotheses. When necessary, groups will be analyzed separately and comparatively. If any unexpected results emerge, post-hoc analysis will be conducted to unveil processes and patterns shaping

employment (Bamberger & Ang, 2016). Finally, in this thesis, a multiplicative approach is preferred over an additive approach as the analytical strategy to analyzing multiple identities.

Measuring inequality

There are multiple measures used for measuring inequality such as the Gini index, Atkinson index, and the P90/P10 ratio (Beal, Astakhova, & Conaway, 2017; Cobb, 2016). Most inequality measures calculate the dispersion of a continuous variable such as employment income. In this thesis, the dependent variables that examine employment outcomes are at the individual level. These variables are aggregated at the national-level to calculate the employment inequalities at their average values. There are two reasons for this choice. First, two of the three dependent variables, labour force participation and employment are dichotomous variables, and thus, it is not possible to measure their dispersion. Second, the central question of this thesis is about whether employment outcomes differ among individuals with intersecting identities. How their employment income might be distributed in their respective groups is not the focus of the thesis.

Data

I use Statistics Canada's 2012 Canadian Survey on Disability (CSD) linked with the 2011 National Household Survey (NHS). The data for CSD (2012) was collected from September 2012 to January 2013. The CSD (2012) has a sample of 21,026 people with disabilities representing 3,775,914 people in Canada. The

overall response rate of the CSD is 74.6 percent. There is no significant difference between the likelihood of survey response of people with disabilities and people with no disabilities; therefore, there is no reason to consider any nonresponse bias due to disability (Hendershot, 2004).

The CSD (2012) respondents were drawn from respondents of the 2011 National Household Survey (NHS) who reported an activity limitation (Statistics Canada, 2014). Thus, the CSD (2012) links to content from the NHS (2011) on topics such as immigration, demographics, employment, and language, but the variables related to disability originate from the CSD (2012). Using the NHS (2011) as a sampling frame allows for comparisons between people with disabilities and people without disabilities. The NHS (2011) surveys all people who live in Canada including those on Indian reserves, permanent residents, and non-permanent residents. The number of respondents to NHS (2011) was 6,719,688, which indicates a weighted response rate of 77.2 percent (Smith, 2015).

Both the NHS (2011) and CSD (2012) data were collected using computer assisted telephone interviews in both English and French across Canada as well as in Inuktitut for the respondents in Nunavut (Statistics Canada, 2014). For the data collection of the CSD (2012), Statistics Canada put effort into accommodating the respondents with disabilities who needed assistive devices or other aids to respond to the questions such as providing a telecommunications device for those

with hearing impairments and a Braille insert for those with the visual impairments (Statistics Canada, 2014).

Population and sample

Study 1 includes all respondents regardless of their immigrant and disability identities. Study 2 excludes the respondents with no disabilities because of Study 2's sole focus on workers with disabilities.

Study 1. The entire NHS (2011) population except for the respondents who were not at the working-age (i.e., between 18 and 65), who were self-employed, and who do not participate in the labour force at the time of response is included in Study 1 sample. That is to say, all employed and unemployed working age respondents in the NHS (2011), regardless of their immigrant or disability identity, are included in the analysis. Among the respondents who are in labour force, both employed and unemployed are included when regressing on the first dependent variable, 'employment.' Because receiving an employment income requires being employed, the second dependent variable, 'employment income,' is analyzed only with the respondents who were working at the time of data collection.

Study 2. Study 2 includes only the respondents with disabilities therefore only the CSD (2012) respondents are included in the sample. Because the dependent variable is 'in labour force,' all respondents are included in the sample regardless of their employment statuses. Because some respondents might not be in labour

force due to their voluntary retirement, those who did not hold at least one week of employment within the five years from the time of data collection are excluded from the sample.

Variables

The full list of variables can be seen in Table 2.

Dependent variables

Employment. This variable indicates whether the respondent had a paid employment at the time of the interview. The variable is coded as 1 = employed, 0 = otherwise. The variable is taken from the NHS (2011) and used in Study 1.

Employment income. 'Employment income' is the sum of all wages and salaries the respondents received during 2010. The variable is available in the NHS (2011). 'Employment income' was collected from two sources: tax records and self-report. 73.2 percent of the respondents gave consent to Statistics Canada to access their tax records (Statistics Canada, 2013c). The remaining 26.9 percent self-reported their employment income. 'Employment income' is in Canadian dollar units. The values of this variable are divided to 1,000 for the analysis of this thesis. This variable is used as a dependent variable in Study 1.

In labour force. Respondents who participate in the labour force are those who are employed or unemployed. Those who do not participate in the labour force are those who are not employed and do not seek employment. Since a

respondent can either participate or not participate in labour force, this variable includes every respondent in the selected sample. The variable is available in the NHS (2011) and is coded as 1 = in labour force, 0 = otherwise. 'In labour force' is the dependent variable of the Study 2.

Independent variables

Immigrant. According to Statistics Canada, permanent residents and citizens who are not born in Canada are immigrants. It is an NHS (2011) variable and coded as 1 = immigrant, 0 = otherwise.

Disability. The social model of disability was used in the CSD and states that disability, while biological, stems from the interaction between functional limitations and environmental barriers that include social and physical impediments (Statistics Canada, 2014). In other words, the social model of disability differentiates impairment, which is a condition of the body or mind, and disability, which are limitations with community integration as compared to people without disabilities (Burchardt, 2004). The main goal of this model is to remove the social and environmental barriers met by people with disabilities (Gilson & Depoy, 2000). Gilson and Depoy (2000) also state that in the social model of disability, disability is considered a dimension of diversity and not a problem to be fixed or cured.

Table 2. *Summary of variables in Study 1 and Study 2*

Derived variables	Data source	Original variables	Study 1	Study 2	Coding	Explanation / question
Employment	NHS (2011)	lftag	x		1 = yes, 0 = otherwise	Has paid employment at the time of interview
Employment income	NHS (2011)	empin	x		original values divided by 1,000	Sum of all wages and salaries
In labour force	NHS (2011)	lftag		x	1 = yes, 0 = otherwise	Either employed or unemployed but looking for employment at the time of interview
Immigrant	NHS (2011)	age_imm	x		1 = yes, 0 = otherwise	Includes permanent residents and citizens who were not born in Canada
Disability	NHS (2011)	ddis_fl	x		1 = yes, 0 = otherwise	Disability defined by the CSD (2012)
Residential area diversity (RAD)	NHS (2011)	age_imm, ddis_fl, cma	x		N/A	Calculated with the Blau index; minimum 0, maximum 1
Percentage of immigrants in residential area	NHS (2011)	age_imm, cma		x	0 = less than 10% immigrant in the residential area, 1 = between 10% and 20% immigrant in the residential area, 2 = between 20% and 30% immigrant in the residential area, 3 = between 30% and 40% immigrant in the residential area, 4 = between 40% and 50% immigrant in the residential area, 5= more than 50% immigrant in the residential area	categorized to eliminate skewness

Perceived work discrimination	CSD (2012)	edi_04, edi_05		x	edi_04+edi_05	Index variable calculated by summing up the following questions with dichotomous responses: "Do you consider yourself to be disadvantaged in employment because of your condition?", "Do you believe that your current employer/any potential employer would be likely to consider you disadvantaged in employment because of your condition?"
Sex	NHS (2011)	sex	x	x	1 = yes, 0 = otherwise	
Marital status	NHS (2011)	marst	x	x	1 = yes, 0 = otherwise	Marital status. Married/in common-law or single/widowed/divorced
Home language	NHS (2011)	hlndr	x	x	1 = yes, 0 = otherwise	Dichotomized
Visible minority	NHS (2011)	dvismin	x	x	1 = yes, 0 = otherwise	Categorized
Age (18-24)	NHS (2011)	ref_age	x	x	1 = yes, 0 = otherwise	Age in 2011, dichotomized
Age (25-34)	NHS (2011)	ref_age	x	x	1 = yes, 0 = otherwise	Age in 2011, dichotomized
Age (35-44)	NHS (2011)	ref_age	x	x	1 = yes, 0 = otherwise	Age in 2011, dichotomized
Age (45-54)	NHS (2011)	ref_age	x	x	1 = yes, 0 = otherwise	Age in 2011, dichotomized
Age (55-64)	NHS (2011)	ref_age	x	x	1 = yes, 0 = otherwise	Age in 2011, dichotomized
Less than highschool	NHS (2011)	hcdd	x	x	1 = yes, 0 = otherwise	Highest level of education, dichotomized
Highschool graduate	NHS (2011)	hcdd	x	x	1 = yes, 0 = otherwise	Highest level of education, dichotomized
College or vocational diploma	NHS (2011)	hcdd	x	x	1 = yes, 0 = otherwise	Highest level of education, dichotomized
Bachelor’s degree	NHS (2011)	hcdd	x	x	1 = yes, 0 = otherwise	Highest level of education, dichotomized
Graduate degree	NHS (2011)	hcdd	x	x	1 = yes, 0 = otherwise	Highest level of education, dichotomized
Government transfer payments	NHS (2011)	gtrfs	x	x	original values divided by 1,000	Total payments made by the federal, provincial, territorial and municipal governments including both disability and non-disability related payments such as employment insurance benefits
Severe disability	CSD (2012)	dclass		x	1 = yes, 0 = otherwise	Dichotomized as 'severe' disability if severe or very severe, 'not severe' if mild or moderate disability

GINI coefficient	Statistics Canada CANSIM table 206-0033	N/A	x		N/A	included in the analysis at the provincial level; accessed at http://www5.statcan.gc.ca/cansim/a26?id=2060033
Unemployment rate	Statistics Canada CANSIM table 282-0123	N/A		x	N/A	included in the analysis at the economic region level; accessed at http://www5.statcan.gc.ca/cansim/a26?lang=eng&retrLang=eng&id=2820123&tabMode=dataTable&p1=1&p2=50&srchLan=-1&pattern=unemployment+2011

In the CSD (2012), the respondents were identified as people with disabilities if they stated that they experienced limitations in their daily activities sometimes, often, or always (Statistics Canada, 2014). The only exception was that respondents who stated experiencing a daily limitation rarely but with a very significant level of difficulty (i.e., 'a lot of difficulty' or 'cannot do') were also identified as people with disabilities. The types of disabilities examined in the CSD (2012) were seeing, hearing, mobility, flexibility, dexterity, pain, learning, developmental, mental/psychological, and memory (Statistics Canada, 2014). In this thesis, 'disability' is coded as 1 = yes and 0 = otherwise.

Residential area diversity (RAD). In line with the focus of this thesis, the RAD is calculated in terms of the size of the four groups of interest: IwD, CnD, InD, CwD. The RAD is measured using Blau index of heterogeneity (Blau, 1977b). The formula is as follows:

$$1 - \frac{\sum x_i^2}{x^2}$$

where x_i is the number of people in each group and x is the total number of people in the RA. While this formula is widely used in management and other disciplines, it has one shortcoming: it is affected by the group size. Biemann and Kearney (2010) demonstrated that the values of Blau index can be problematic especially for groups with less than 20 members. While the total sample size of

this thesis significantly larger than 20, this number can significantly be lower especially for IwD who reside in less populated RAs (e.g., rural areas). This issue can be fixed by using the corrected formula developed by Harrison and Klein (2007):

$$1 - \sum \frac{x_i(x_i - 1)}{x(x - 1)}$$

Where x_i is the number of people in each group and x is the total number of people in the RA. The theoretical range of the index is between 0 where the RA would be entirely homogenous and 1 which indicates perfect heterogeneity in the RA. The actual range of the values might differ (Solanas, Selvam, Navarro, & Leiva, 2012).

This NHS (2011) variable is calculated for all RAs in Canada with at least 10,000 population.

***Proportion of immigrants in RA*.** This variable is derived from the NHS (2011) variables for all RAs with 10,000 population or more. Following Schlueter and Scheepers (2010), this variable is categorized to reduce the skewness. The variable is categorized as follows: 0 = less than 10% immigrant in the RA, 1 = between 10% and 20% immigrant in the RA, 2 = between 20% and 30% immigrant in the RA, 3 = between 30% and 40% immigrant in the RA, 4 = between 40% and 50% immigrant in the RA, 5 = more than 50% immigrant in the RA.

Perceived work discrimination. 'Perceived work discrimination' is an index variable that is calculated by summing the responses of the following NHS (2011) questions: "Do you consider yourself to be disadvantaged in employment because of your condition?" and "Do you believe that your current employer/any potential employer would be likely to consider you disadvantaged in employment because of your condition?"

Control variables.

Sex. This NHS (2011) variable denotes the sex of the respondents and is coded as 1 = female, 0 = male. Being a female is negatively associated with employment income (International Labour Organization, 2016).

Marital status. This variable indicates the marital status of the respondents and is an NHS (2011) variable. It is coded as 1 = married/common law, 0 = otherwise (i.e., single, widowed, or divorced).

Home language. This variable is derived from the NHS (2011) question about the languages spoken most often at home and recoded as 1 = official languages (English and or French) and 0 = non-official languages. Immigrants who are from countries with a similar language compared to that of their host country are more likely to find jobs that match their education level (Piracha & Vadean, 2013). Knowing non-official languages has no impact on employment outcomes whereas knowing at least one official language has a positive impact on immigrants' employment (Javdani, Jacks, & Pendakur, 2012).

Visible minority. This variable is coded as a dichotomous where 1 = visible minority and 0 = not a visible minority. The ethnicity of individuals might affect employment discrimination and employment outcomes in tandem with immigration identity (Bell, Marquardt, & Berry, 2014). The increase of immigrant intake and more immigrants coming from non-Western countries such as China and India have increased the ethnic diversity in Canada (Reitz & Banerjee, 2007). Visible minority immigrants experience greater inequality than European immigrants (Reitz & Banerjee, 2007)

Age. Due to the employment focus of this thesis, only working-age individuals (i.e., between the ages of 18 and 64) are included. Age is coded into five categories: 18-24, 25-34, 35-44 (reference group), 45-54, 55-64. Each age category is coded as 1 = yes, 0 = other age group. The variable is taken from the NHS (2011).

Education. The literature shows that education is important both for people with disabilities and immigrants. There are several studies demonstrating that post-secondary education is an important enabler for persons with disabilities in finding employment (Crawford, 2012; La France, Ringaert, Watters, Rasmussen, & Friedrich, 2004; Morris-Wales, 2010). Education level (Hogan, Kyaw-Myint, Harris, & Denronden, 2012) as well as the quality of education—measured by where the degree was obtained (Sweetman, 2004)—is an important determinant of labour market outcomes for people with disabilities. Similarly,

level and origin of education are enablers of highly-skilled work for immigrants (Thompson, 2000). While the employment rate of Canadians with disabilities is lower than that of Canadians with no disabilities, the employment gap decreases for university graduates (Turcotte, 2014). Education variables indicate the highest level of education the respondents received and is obtained from the NHS (2011). Five categorical variables are created: less than high school, high school degree, college/vocational diploma, bachelor's degree (reference group), graduate/professional degree. Each variable is coded as 1 = yes, 0 = otherwise.

Government transfer payments. Government support is an essential determinant of labour force participation and employment of groups who consistently face employment barriers, to which both immigrants and people with disabilities belong. Holland et al. (2011) examined the benefits of welfare on the employment of people with disabilities in the Nordic countries, Canada, and the United Kingdom. They found that while welfare benefits were higher in the Nordic countries than in Canada and the United Kingdom, they did not lower employment rates. In fact, the United Kingdom, which had the least generous welfare benefits, had the lowest employment rate. Therefore, it cannot be concluded that generous welfare benefits motivate people with disabilities to stay unemployed. Furthermore, in Canada, it was found that the lack of well-paying jobs rather than the level of disability benefits had a stronger impact on the low employment rate of people with disabilities (Barr et al., 2010). One possible explanation is that low level of financial support might lead to a trajectory of

cumulative disadvantage which is caused by the vicious cycle of financial problems, health problems, and little opportunity to develop skills that might increase employment chances (Holland, Burström, Whitehead, Diderichsen, Dahl, Barr, Nylén, Chen, Thielen, van der Wel, Clayton, Uppal, et al., 2011). To account for government support in our analysis, we include total government financial support as a variable. This variable contains all government transfers including disability-related benefits.

This variable is calculated by summing up all government transfer payments which includes the total income from all transfer payments (including disability-related and not non-disability related) from federal, provincial, territorial, or municipal governments. Canada Pension Plan benefits, child benefits, and Ontario Disability Support Program are examples of the sources of transfer payments. Among these support programs, there are programs relevant to immigrants and people with disabilities. Data for this variable are obtained from the NHS (2011) responses. For this thesis's analysis, The NHS (2011) values of this variable are calculated in Canadian dollar divided by 1,000.

Severe disability. The severity of the disability is an essential determinant of the employment of people with disabilities. Turcotte (2014) found that there is a negative relationship between the severity of disability and employment. Furthermore, there is also a negative association between the severity of disability and labour force participation (Oguzoglu, 2009). 'Severe disability' is categorized

as 1= severe if the reported disability is severe or very severe, and as 0 = not severe if the reported disability is mild or moderate.

GINI coefficient. GINI coefficient is one of the most common income inequality measures. I use this variable in Study 1 to control for the income inequality at the provincial level (i.e., macro level) while examining individual-level employment inequalities. This variable is at the provincial level and obtained from the publicly available Statistics Canada CANSIM table 206-0033.

Unemployment rate. The macroeconomic environment should be considered when studying labour force participation of people with disabilities (Holland, Burström, Whitehead, Diderichsen, Dahl, Barr, Nylén, Chen, Thielen, van der Wel, Clayton, Uppal, et al., 2011) and immigrants (OECD, 2014). Immigrants have been found to be more sensitive to business cycles and economic crises than native-born workers (Bratsberg, Raaum, & Røed, 2008; Green & Worswick, 2009). Yelin (1997) found that macro trends affect employment outcomes of people with disabilities differently depending on gender. Specifically, the author found that growing job insecurity at the macroeconomic level resulted in lower employment rates of men with disabilities but higher employment rates of women with disabilities. I include unemployment rate and participation rate as control variables in our model to examine the impact of the macroeconomic context. The economic region unemployment and labour force participation rates are added to the analysis to control for macroeconomic

environmental factors. These aggregate economic region level variables were obtained publicly and matched at the economic region level to the CSD dataset (Statistics Canada, 2012). Regional unemployment is an essential determinant of employment and receiving disability benefit (Benítez-Silva, Disney, & Jiménez-Martín, 2010). This variable is obtained from Statistics Canada's CANSIM table 282-0123 at the economic region level.

Weights

Because of exogenous factors such as geography, demographic characteristics of respondents, deaths, emigration, survey design, and non-response, a sample might not be representative of its population. Furthermore, in sample surveys, such as the NHS (2011) and CSD (2012), each respondent represents other individuals who are not sampled. Weights are used to ensure the representativeness of sample surveys. This thesis uses the weights provided by Statistics Canada for both the NHS (2011) and CSD (2012) to make the findings representative of the target samples and sub-samples for both surveys (Statistics Canada, 2014).

Analyses

The data were accessed at the Statistics Canada Research Data Centre (RDC) at McMaster University. STATA 14 was used for analysis.

Study 1. Ordinary logistic regression was used for the first dependent variable, 'employment.' Multivariate regression was applied for the second dependent

variable, ‘employment income.’ Many researchers who use survey data to examine different strands of diversity, such as race and sex, consider each dimension separately and disregard any simultaneous interactions that occur between dimensions (Steinbugler et al., 2006). In line with the guidelines of the quantitative intersectionality (Hancock, 2007; McCall, 2005), the intersection of being an immigrant and having a disability was modeled by interacting the immigrant identity variable with the disability variable. When examining interactions, it is important to differentiate and understand the impact of the partial and full effects. Because it is not possible to understand the full effect of interaction (e.g., comparing IwD with CnD) thus far in our analysis, marginal effects analysis is conducted. Examining marginal effects is useful to interpret the practical significance of the results because marginal effects can be used to compute predicted or expected values for hypothetical cases (Williams, 2012). That is to say, marginal effects analysis can be used to compare multiple groups in different contexts or scenarios.

Study 2. Path analysis with maximum likelihood estimation technique is used for the analysis. In line with the hypotheses on the asymmetrical impact on the proportion of immigrants in the RA on people with disabilities, CwD and IwD are analyzed separately.

Results

The summary of the hypotheses and the results can be seen in Table 3.

Study 1

Using the SIT, double jeopardy thesis, and intergroup contact theory, Study 1 brings together micro and macro level variables to examine the relationship between the intersection of immigrant and disability identities and employment inequalities by including all working-age Canadian population (i.e., IwD, CnD, InD, CwD).

Descriptive statistics. The mean and standard deviation for the whole sample and subsamples can be seen in Table 4. The total sample size is 51,163. The largest subsample is CnD with a sample size of 38,744 and weighted percentage of 70.28. The smallest subsample is IwD with a sample size of 427 and weighted percentage of 1. CnD has the highest employment rate followed by InD, IwD, and CwD. CnD has the highest employment income followed by InD, IwD, and CwD. Compared to the immigrant subgroups (i.e., InD and IwD), Canadian-born subgroups (i.e., CnD and CwD) appear to be living in RAs with lower rates of diversity, have lower proportion of females, married or common-law partners, has a higher proportion of homes where the official languages are spoken most often, has lower proportion of visible minorities, are younger, and have a lower rate of post-secondary education. Compared to the disability group (i.e., CwD and IwD), the non-disability subgroups (i.e., CnD and InD) have lower a proportion of females, are older, and receive less government transfer payments. The GINI

coefficient has the same averages for all subgroups indicating that the respondents do not differ regarding the income equality of their province.

Correlations. 'Immigrant,' 'disability,' and 'RAD' are negatively and significantly correlated with 'employment.' 'Employment income' has a significant and negative correlation with 'immigrant' and 'disability,' and significant positive correlation with 'RAD.' Being married or in a common law relationship, living in a house where the official languages are spoken most often, being older, having a bachelor's or graduate degree are positively correlated with both dependent variables.

Being a visible minority, being younger, not having a post-secondary degree, and receiving government transfer payments are negatively correlated with both dependent variables. 'Immigrant' and 'disability' are significantly and negatively correlated. 'RAD' is positively and significantly correlated with 'immigrant,' and negatively and significantly correlated with 'disability.' Other correlations can be seen in Table 5.

Inferential analysis. The inferential analysis of Study 1 includes regressions and marginal effects analyses conducted separately for both dependent variables. First, the role of immigrant and disability identities are examined with an 'immigrant' and 'disability' interaction while controlling for 'RAD' (see Tables 6 and 7). Since 'employment' is a dichotomous variable, ordinary logistic regression is used for analysis with a sample size of 51,163 (pseudo-R^2 = 0.09).

Pseudo-R^2 of .09 or lower is common for studies using large data. 'Employment' is negatively associated with 'immigrant' ($\beta = -0.32$, $p < 0.01$) and 'disability' ($\beta = -0.74$, $p < 0.01$). Thus, H_1a and H_1b are supported.

The 'immigrant' and 'disability' interaction is positive and significant ($\beta = 0.83$, $p < 0.05$) thus H_1c is rejected. The association between 'RAD' and 'employment' is not significant ($\beta = -0.40$, $p > 0.10$). Multivariate regression is used for 'employment income' with a sample size of 47, 057 ($R^2 = 0.24$). 'Employment income' is negatively associated with 'immigrant' ($\beta = -3.52$, $p < 0.05$) and 'disability' ($\beta = -6.78$, $p < 0.01$), supporting H_2a and H_2b. The 'immigrant' and 'disability' interaction has a positive association with 'employment income' ($\beta = 4.16$, $p < 0.10$) thus H_2c is rejected. 'RAD' is positively associated with 'employment income' ($\beta = 7.78$, $p < 0.05$). The results can be seen in Tables 6 and 7.

Second, the intersection of immigrant and disability identities in the RA context is examined by interacting 'immigrant,' 'disability,' and 'RAD.' In three-way interactions, all two-way interaction terms and single variables are included in the analysis. As Table 1 demonstrates, in the first regression, 'employment' has an insignificant association with 'immigrant' ($\beta = -0.46$, $p > 0.10$) and negatively associated with disability ($\beta = -0.93$, $p < 0.10$). 'RAD' is not significantly associated with 'employment' ($\beta = -0.46$, $p > 0.10$). The two-way interactions among 'immigrant,' 'disability,' and 'RAD' are not significant ('immigrant *

disability' $\beta = 0.81$, $p > 0.10$; 'immigrant * RAD' $\beta = 0.26$, $p > 0.10$; 'disability * RAD' $\beta = 0.38$, $p > 0.10$). The three-way interaction is also not significant ($\beta = 0.01$, $p > 0.10$). Therefore, none of the interaction terms are significant.

A similar pattern can be observed for the 'employment income' analysis in Table 10 ($R^2 = 0.24$). 'Employment income' is not significantly associated with 'immigrant' ($\beta = -0.07$, $p > 0.10$), negatively associated with 'disability' ($\beta = -12.64$, $p < 0.01$), and positively associated with 'RAD' ($\beta = 7.90$, $p < 0.05$). None of the interactions produce significant results ('immigrant * disability' $\beta = 25.32$, $p > 0.10$; 'immigrant * RAD' $\beta = -6.36$, $p > 0.10$; 'disability * RAD' $\beta = 12.10$, $p > 0.10$; 'immigrant * disability * RAD' $\beta = -40.24$, $p > 0.10$).

While it is a common practice to drop an insignificant interaction term or interpreting the lack of significance of the interaction term as an indication of no significant effect of the interacting variables on the dependent variable, such practices are erroneous. It is possible that interactions with insignificant terms might still have marginal effects on dependent variables (Brambor, Clark, & Golder, 2006). Therefore, it is necessary to examine the marginal effects of the interaction term after regression analysis to understand the impact of interactions (Berry, DeMeritt, & Esarey, 2010).

The marginal effect analysis results can be seen in Table 9 and 11 and their corresponding Figures 5 and 6. Employment and employment income of each subgroup are calculated with respect to 'RAD.'

Table 3. *Summary of hypotheses and results of Study 1 and Study 2*

Study	Hypothesis		Status
Study 1	H_1a	Immigrants will have a lower likelihood of employment than Canadian-born.	Support
	H_1b	People with disabilities will have a lower likelihood of employment than people with no disabilities.	Support
	H_1c	The intersection of immigrant and disability will be negatively associated with employment.	Reject
	H_2a	Immigrants will have lower employment income than Canadian-born.	Support
	H_2b	People with disabilities will have lower employment income than Canadian-born.	Support
	H_2c	The intersection of immigrant and disability will be negatively associated with employment income.	Reject
	H_3a	As the RAD increases, employment likelihood of IwD will increase.	Support
	H_3b	As the RAD increases, the level of employment income of IwD will increase.	Reject
Study 2	H_4a	The proportion of immigrants in the RA will be positively associated with perceived work discrimination for IwD.	Support
	H_4b	The proportion of immigrants in the RA will not have a significant association with perceived work discrimination for CwD.	Support
	H_5	Perceived work discrimination will have a negative association with labour force participation for both CwD and IwD.	Support
	H_6a	Perceived work discrimination will mediate the association between the proportion of immigrants in the RA and labour force participation for IwD.	Support
	H_6b	Perceived work discrimination will not mediate the association between the proportion of immigrants in the RA and labour force participation for CwD.	Support

Table 4. *Descriptive statistics for Study 1 for the total sample and subsamples*

	Total sample		CnD		InD		CwD		IwD	
Variables	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
Employment	0.93	0.26	0.93	0.25	0.91	0.28	0.87	0.34	0.91	0.29
Employment income	48.24	47.01	49.15	47.35	46.72	48.37	42.43	34.15	43.63	28.57
Immigrant	0.25	0.44								
Disability	0.05	0.22								
RAD	0.50	0.10	0.48	0.11	0.55	0.06	0.48	0.10	0.55	0.06
Sex	0.47	0.50	0.48	0.50	0.46	0.50	0.53	0.50	0.53	0.50
Marital status	0.51	0.50	0.45	0.50	0.69	0.46	0.46	0.50	0.67	0.47
Home language	0.88	0.33	0.99	0.12	0.56	0.50	0.99	0.12	0.68	0.47
Visible minority	0.22	0.41	0.06	0.24	0.68	0.47	0.03	0.18	0.69	0.46
Age (18-24)	0.14	0.35	0.17	0.37	0.07	0.26	0.08	0.28	0.02	0.14
Age (25-34)	0.24	0.43	0.26	0.44	0.21	0.40	0.15	0.36	0.07	0.26
Age (35-44)	0.23	0.42	0.22	0.41	0.27	0.45	0.22	0.41	0.17	0.37
Age (45-54)	0.25	0.43	0.23	0.42	0.28	0.45	0.30	0.46	0.30	0.46
Age (55-64)	0.14	0.35	0.13	0.33	0.16	0.37	0.23	0.42	0.43	0.50
Less than high school	0.09	0.28	0.09	0.28	0.08	0.28	0.11	0.31	0.14	0.35
High school degree	0.26	0.44	0.27	0.44	0.22	0.41	0.27	0.44	0.17	0.37
College/vocational diploma	0.38	0.48	0.39	0.49	0.32	0.47	0.47	0.50	0.45	0.50
Bachelor’s degree	0.18	0.38	0.17	0.38	0.21	0.41	0.11	0.31	0.11	0.31
Graduate/professional degree	0.10	0.30	0.08	0.27	0.16	0.37	0.05	0.21	0.13	0.34
Government transfer payments	2.27	4.42	2.17	4.30	2.31	4.27	3.49	6.28	3.05	5.85

GINI coefficient	0.31	0.01	0.31	0.01	0.31	0.01	0.31	0.01	0.31	0.01
N	51,163		38,744		8,460		3,532		427	
% (weighted)	100.00		70.28		24.42		4.32		1.00	

Note: Percentages might not add up to 100 due to rounding. The sample sizes (N) demonstrate the number of respondents in each subgroup. The corresponding percentages for each subgroup are weighted to reflect the valid estimates of subgroup proportions in Canadian population.

Table 5. *Bivariate correlations between the dependent, independent, and control variables of Study 1*

Variables	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1. Employment									
2. Employment income	.								
3. Immigrant	**-0.03**	**-0.02**							
4. Disability	**-0.04**	**-0.03**	**-0.04**						
5. RAD	**-0.02**	**0.05**	**0.31**	**-0.01**					
6. Sex	0.00	**-0.18**	**-0.02**	**0.03**	0.01				
7. Marital status	**0.08**	**0.18**	**0.20**	-0.01	**0.09**	**-0.03**			
8. Home language	**0.03**	**0.07**	**-0.57**	**0.04**	**-0.22**	**0.03**	**-0.16**		
9. Visible minority	**-0.05**	**-0.07**	**0.65**	**-0.04**	**0.30**	0.00	**0.11**	**-0.51**	
10. Age (18-24)	**-0.12**	**-0.25**	**-0.12**	**-0.05**	**-0.02**	**0.02**	**-0.38**	**0.06**	**-0.02**
11. Age (25-34)	**0.02**	**-0.07**	**-0.05**	**-0.06**	**0.01**	**-0.01**	**-0.15**	**0.00**	**0.05**
12. Age (35-44)	**0.02**	**0.08**	**0.05**	**-0.01**	**0.03**	-0.01	**0.15**	**-0.04**	**0.04**
13. Age (45-54)	**0.04**	**0.13**	**0.05**	**0.03**	-0.01	0.00	**0.19**	**-0.02**	**-0.02**
14. Age (55-64)	**0.03**	**0.07**	**0.05**	**0.09**	**-0.01**	0.00	**0.15**	0.00	**-0.06**
15. Less than high school	**-0.05**	**-0.09**	0.00	**0.02**	**-0.02**	**-0.06**	**-0.03**	**-0.04**	**-0.02**
16. High school degree	**-0.04**	**-0.15**	**-0.05**	0.00	0.01	**0.00**	**-0.09**	**0.02**	**-0.04**
17. College/vocational diploma	**0.02**	**-0.03**	**-0.07**	**0.04**	**-0.08**	0.00	**0.03**	**0.08**	**-0.05**
18. Bachelor's degree	**0.05**	**0.12**	**0.05**	**-0.04**	**0.06**	**0.05**	**0.03**	**-0.04**	**0.07**
19. Graduate degree	**0.02**	**0.20**	**0.12**	**-0.03**	**0.07**	**0.01**	**0.08**	**-0.08**	**0.08**
20. Government transfer payments	**-0.16**	**-0.22**	0.01	**0.06**	**-0.04**	**0.16**	0.01	-0.01	**0.02**
21. GINI coefficient	0.00	**0.10**	**0.13**	**0.02**	**0.48**	**-0.01**	**0.12**	**-0.09**	**0.14**

Variables	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20
11. Age (25-34)	**-0.22**										
12. Age (35-44)	**-0.22**	**-0.30**									
13. Age (45-54)	**-0.23**	**-0.32**	**-0.31**								
14. Age (55-64)	**-0.16**	**-0.23**	**-0.22**	**-0.23**							
15. Less than high school	**0.02**	**-0.05**	**-0.03**	**0.02**	**0.05**						
16. High school degree	**0.21**	**-0.07**	**-0.08**	**-0.02**	0.00	**-0.18**					
17. College/vocational diploma	**-0.08**	0.01	**0.03**	**0.02**	0.00	**-0.24**	**-0.46**				
18. Bachelor's degree	**-0.06**	**0.08**	**0.05**	**-0.03**	**-0.05**	**-0.14**	**-0.28**	**-0.36**			
19. Graduate degree	**-0.11**	**0.02**	**0.04**	**0.02**	**0.01**	**-0.10**	**-0.20**	**-0.26**	**-0.16**		
20. Government transfer payments	**-0.08**	**0.05**	**0.10**	**-0.06**	**-0.04**	**0.04**	**-0.03**	**0.05**	**-0.02**	**-0.04**	
21. GINI coefficient	0.00	**0.02**	0.00	**-0.02**	0.00	**-0.02**	**0.05**	**-0.05**	**0.02**	0.01	**-0.07**

Note: Correlations in bold are significant at $p < 0.05$

The figures indicate that as the RAD increases, the likelihood of employment increases for IwD and decreases for CnD, InD, and CwD. Thus, H_3a is supported. This pattern is reversed for employment income: IwD's employment income decreases with the RAD whereas the employment income of CnD, InD, and CwD increase as the RAD increases. Thus, H_3b is rejected.

Post-hoc analysis. I conduct post-hoc analysis to have a better understanding of the inferential analysis results. The post-hoc analyses are conducted for the following variables: sex, industry and occupation, type of disability, ethnicity, and socioeconomic level.

Sex. There are systematic differences between the employment outcomes of women and men (Baldridge et al., 2017). Findings from an earlier meta-analysis demonstrate that men with disabilities face more negative hiring decisions than women with disabilities (Ren et al., 2008). On the other hand, another study finds that women with disabilities experience double jeopardy because of being discriminated because of their gender and disability (Baldwin & Johnson, 1995). Thus, the inconclusive findings from previous studies call for a more in-depth intersectional examination of sex on the employment outcomes.

Table 6. *Ordinary logistic regression results with employment as dependent variable in Study 1*

	Employment		
Independent variables	β	Sig.	Standard error
Immigrant	-0.32	***	0.12
Disability	-0.74	***	0.18
Immigrant * Disability	0.83	**	0.35
RAD	-0.40		0.35
Sex	0.17	**	0.07
Marital status	0.44	***	0.09
Home language	0.09		0.12
Visible minority	-0.31	***	0.11
Age (18-24)	-1.03	***	0.13
Age (25-34)	-0.01		0.13
Age (45-54)	-0.02		0.13
Age (55-64)	-0.03		0.14
Less than high school	-0.80	***	0.14
High school degree	-0.59	***	0.10
College/vocational diploma	-0.30	***	0.11
Graduate/professional degree	-0.34	**	0.14
Total government transfer	-0.10	***	0.01
GINI coefficient	-1.71		2.53
Constant	4.00	***	0.74
Pseudo R-squared	0.09		
N	51,163		

* $p < 0.10$; ** $p < 0.05$; *** $p < 0.01$

Reference group: Canadian-born, no disability, male, single, does not speak an official language at home, not visible minority, age (35-44), holds a bachelor's degree.

Table 7. *Multivariate regression results with employment income as dependent variable in Study 1*

	Employment income		
Independent variables	β	Sig.	Standard error
Immigrant	-3.52	**	1.41
Disability	-6.78	***	1.18
Immigrant * Disability	4.16	*	2.48
RAD	7.78	**	3.39
Sex	-14.73	***	0.67
Marital status	6.05	***	0.81
Home language	11.87	***	1.26
Visible minority	-7.05	***	1.17
Age (18-24)	-31.06	***	0.94
Age (25-34)	-12.21	***	0.93
Age (45-54)	3.30	***	1.13
Age (55-64)	0.24		1.28
Less than high school	-26.09	***	1.26
High school degree	-22.12	***	1.12
College/vocational diploma	-15.09	***	1.07
Graduate/professional degree	12.64	***	1.98
Government transfer payments	-2.12	***	0.07
GINI coefficient	333.71	***	24.45
Constant	-39.27	***	7.07
R-squared	0.24		
N	47,057		

* $p < 0.10$; ** $p < 0.05$; *** $p < 0.01$. Reference group: Canadian-born, no disability, male, single, does not speak an official language at home, not visible minority, age (35-44), holds a bachelor's degree.

Table 8. *Ordinary logistic regression results with employment as dependent variable and residential area diversity (RAD) as moderator in Study 1*

	Employment		
Independent variables	β	Sig.	Standard error
Immigrant	-0.46		0.50
Disability	-0.93	*	0.53
Immigrant * Disability	0.81		1.85
RAD	-0.46		0.39
Immigrant * RAD	0.26		0.97
Disability * RAD	0.38		1.2
Immigrant * Disability * RAD	0.01		3.63
Sex	0.17	**	0.07
Marital status	0.44	***	0.09
Home language	0.09		0.12
Visible minority	-0.31	**	0.11
Age (18-24)	-1.03	***	0.01
Age (25-34)	-0.01		0.13
Age (45-54)	-0.02		0.13
Age (55-64)	-0.03		0.14
Less than high school	-0.80	***	0.14
High school degree	-0.49	***	0.10
College/vocational diploma	-0.30	***	0.11
Graduate/professional degree	-0.34	**	0.14
Government transfer payments	-0.10	***	0.11
GINI coefficient	-1.75		2.51
Constant	4.04	***	0.74
Pseudo R-squared	0.09		
N	51,163		

* $p < 0.10$; ** $p < 0.05$; *** $p < 0.01$. Reference group: Canadian-born, no disability, male, single, does not speak an official language at home, not visible minority, age (35-44), holds a bachelor's degree.

Table 9. *Marginal effect analysis with employment as dependent variable and residential area diversity (RAD) as moderator in Study 1*

RAD		Margins	Sig.
0	CnD	94.562	***
	InD	91.832	***
	CwD	87.9199	***
	IwD	90.9228	***
0.2	CnD	94.0996	***
	InD	91.5551	***
	CwD	87.7746	***
	IwD	91.2224	***
0.4	CnD	93.6016	***
	InD	91.2701	***
	CwD	87.6278	***
	IwD	91.5133	***
0.6	CnD	93.0661	***
	InD	90.9768	***
	CwD	87.4796	***
	IwD	91.7958	***
0.8	CnD	92.4908	***
	InD	90.6749	***
	CwD	87.3299	***
	IwD	92.0699	***
1	CnD	91.8734	***
	InD	90.3644	***
	CwD	87.1787	***
	IwD	92.336	***

N = 51,163, *** p < 0.01

Figure 7. *Employment as a function of residential area diversity (RAD) in Study 1*

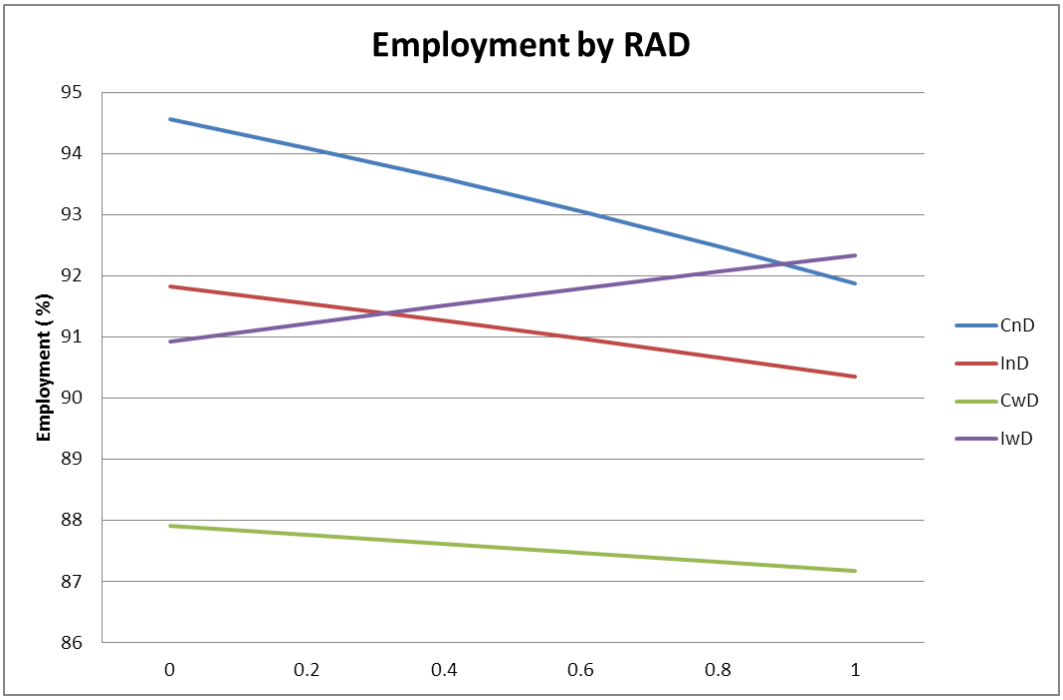


Table 10. *Multivariate regression results with employment income as dependent variable and residential area diversity (RAD) as moderator in Study 1*

	Employment income		
Independent variables	β	Sig.	Standard error
Immigrant	-0.07		5.69
Disability	-12.64	***	3.96
Immigrant * Disability	25.32		16.96
RAD	7.90	**	3.59
Immigrant * RAD	-6.36		11.48
Disability * RAD	12.10		8.71
Immigrant * Disability * RAD	-40.24		31.45
Sex	-14.74	***	0.67
Marital status	6.06	***	0.81
Home language	11.81	***	1.27
Visible minority	-6.99	***	1.19
Age (18-24)	-31.05	***	0.94
Age (25-34)	-12.21	***	0.93
Age (45-54)	3.32	***	1.13
Age (55-64)	0.25		1.28
Less than high school	-26.08	***	1.26
High school degree	-22.12	***	1.12
College/vocational diploma	-15.09	***	1.07
Graduate/professional degree	12.62	***	1.98
Government transfer payments	-2.12	***	0.07
GINI coefficient	333.93	***	24.43
Constant	-39.36	***	7.06
R-squared	0.24		
N	47,057		

* $p < 0.10$; ** $p < 0.05$; *** $p < 0.01$

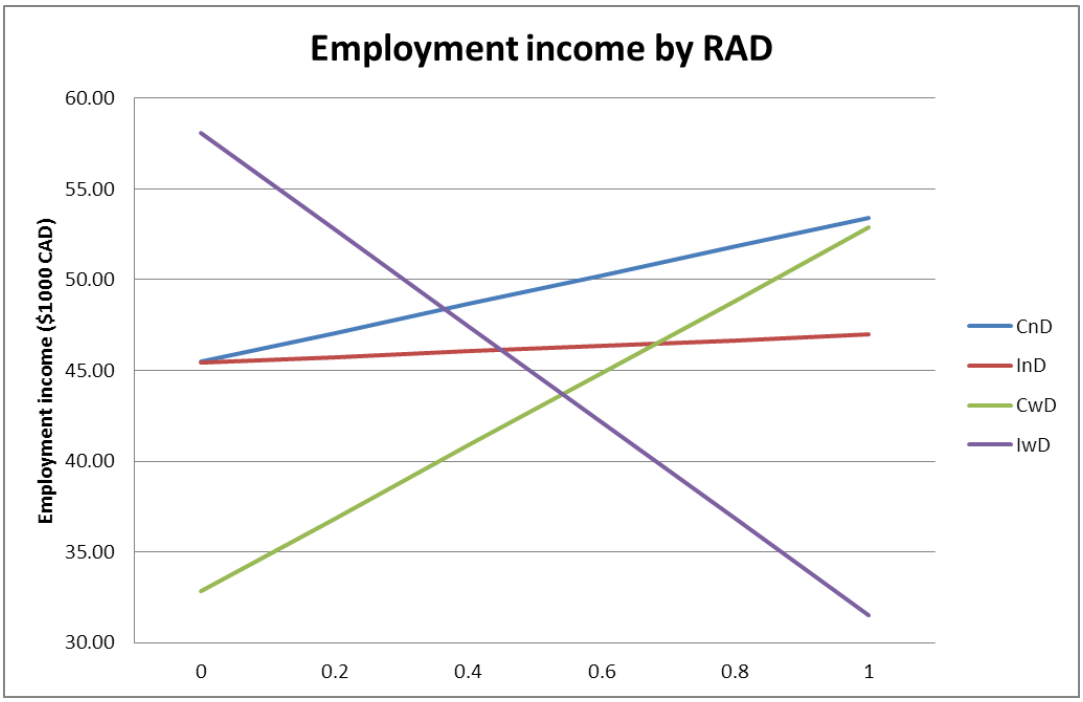
Reference group: Canadian-born, no disability, male, single, does not speak an official language at home, not visible minority, age (35-44), holds a bachelor's degree

Table 11. *Marginal effect analysis with employment income as dependent variable and residential area diversity (RAD) as moderator in Study 1*

RAD		Margins	Sig.
0	CnD	45.49	***
	InD	45.42	***
	CwD	32.85	***
	IwD	58.09	***
0.2	CnD	47.07	***
	InD	45.73	***
	CwD	36.85	***
	IwD	52.78	***
0.4	CnD	48.65	***
	InD	46.04	***
	CwD	40.85	***
	IwD	47.46	***
0.6	CnD	50.23	***
	InD	46.35	***
	CwD	44.85	***
	IwD	42.14	***
0.8	CnD	51.82	***
	InD	46.66	***
	CwD	48.85	***
	IwD	36.82	***
1	CnD	53.40	***
	InD	46.97	***
	CwD	52.85	***
	IwD	31.50	**

N = 47,057, *** p < 0.01

Figure 8. *Employment income as a function of residential area diversity (RAD) in Study 1*



Thus, I first explore the impact of sex on the immigrant and disability intersection. I remove the variable 'sex' from the 'employment' regression in Table 12 and regress on employment for female and male samples separately. I find that the interaction of immigrant and disability is significant only for females and insignificant for males. This result demonstrates that there is an intersectional effect of immigrant and disability only for women but not for men. In other words, having a disability might have a positive employment outcome for

immigrant women but not for immigrant men. The same pattern is also observed with employment income, which can be seen in Table 12.

Industry and occupation. Second, demographic characteristics shape employment outcomes because such characteristics might channel individuals to certain types of jobs (Ensminger Vanfossen, 1979). Industry and occupation are contextual factors that might have a substantial impact on the employment of people with disabilities (Maroto & Pettinicchio, 2014). Thus, occupational and industrial segregation of workers based on their sex can be the factor that can explain why immigrant and disability interaction is positively significant only for females and insignificant for males. Therefore, I control for the industry and occupation to see if the impact of sex on immigrant and disability interaction stay positive and significant. Since 'employment' variable is analyzed with employed but also unemployed respondents, I conduct this analysis with only 'employment income.' The industry is controlled using the NHS (2011) variable, 'naics7s.'

Table 12. *Ordinary logistic regression results for female and male samples with employment as dependent variable in Study 1*

	Employment					
	Female			Male		
Independent variables	β	Sig.	Standard error	β	Sig.	Standard error
Immigrant	-0.43	**	0.19	-0.22		0.16
Disability	-0.99	***	0.28	-0.46	**	0.19
Immigrant * Disability	1.10	**	0.44	0.61		0.57
RAD	-1.22	**	0.54	0.14		0.46
Marital status	0.24	*	0.13	0.63	***	0.12
Home language	0.18		0.16	0.01		0.17
Visible minority	-0.20		0.16	-0.41	***	0.14
Age (18-24)	-1.09	***	0.17	-0.97	***	0.18
Age (25-34)	-0.01		0.18	-0.01		0.17
Age (45-54)	0.11		0.18	-0.12		0.18
Age (55-64)	-0.08		0.22	0.03		0.18
Less than high school	-0.71	***	0.22	-0.84	***	0.19
High school degree	-0.49	***	0.15	-0.48	***	0.14
College/vocational diploma	-0.26	*	0.16	-0.34	**	0.15
Graduate/professional degree	-0.44	**	0.19	-0.25		0.19
Government transfer payments	-0.09	***	0.01	-0.12	***	0.01
GINI coefficient	-1.43		3.96	-1.43		3.28
Constant	4.45	***	1.15	3.69	***	0.97
Pseudo R-squared	0.08			0.10		
N	25,101			26,062		

* $p < 0.10$; ** $p < 0.05$; *** $p < 0.01$Reference group: Canadian-born, no disability, single, does not speak an official language at home, not visible minority, age (35-44), holds a bachelor's degree

Table 13. *Multivariate regression results for female and male samples with employment income as dependent variable in Study 1*

	Employment income					
	Female			Male		
Independent variables	β	Sig.	Standard error	β	Sig.	Standard error
Immigrant	-2.28		1.50	-4.84	**	2.27
Disability	-3.94	***	1.02	-8.73	***	2.31
Immigrant * Disability	6.28	**	2.60	2.48		4.73
RAD	7.81	**	3.25	6.81		5.61
Marital status	0.47		0.83	10.62	***	1.38
Home language	8.41	***	1.46	14.44	***	1.95
Visible minority	-3.26	**	1.37	-10.82	***	1.81
Age (18-24)	-28.50	***	1.08	-33.35	***	1.46
Age (25-34)	-8.66	***	1.02	-15.15	***	1.46
Age (45-54)	3.06	**	1.21	3.93	**	1.80
Age (55-64)	-2.84	**	1.17	3.36		2.14
Less than high school	-24.52	***	1.25	-26.35	***	2.05
High school degree	-19.80	***	1.17	-22.95	***	1.90
College/vocational diploma	-13.41	***	1.08	-16.59	***	1.85
Graduate/professional degree	8.27	***	1.85	17.12	***	3.44
Total government transfer	-1.67	***	0.07	-3.16	***	0.18
GINI coefficient	207.96	***	26.47	451.50	***	39.10
Constant	-13.70	*	7.63	-76.15	***	11.36
R-squared	0.25			0.22		
N	23,203			23,854		

* $p < 0.10$; ** $p < 0.05$; *** $p < 0.0$; Reference group: Canadian-born, no disability, single, does not speak an official language at home, not visible minority, age (35-44), holds a bachelor's degree

This categorical variable is based on the North American Industry Classification System (NAICS) 2007. For controlling occupation, 'noc11brd' is obtained from the NHS (2011). 'noc11brd' uses the National Occupation Categories (2011) to categorize occupations. The results indicate that 'immigrant' and 'disability' interaction is significant for the whole sample after controlling for industry ($\beta = 4.20$, $p < 0.10$) and occupation ($\beta = 4.43$, $p < 0.10$). When the regressions are conducted within the female and male subgroups, the same pattern emerges: 'immigrant' and 'disability' interaction is significant only for females ($\beta = 6.35$, $p < 0.05$) but not for males ($\beta = 2.01$, $p > 0.10$) when controlled for industry. I find similar results after controlling for occupation (females: $\beta = 6.87$, $p < 0.05$, males: $\beta = 2.60$, $p > 0.10$). Thus, I conclude that 'immigrant' and 'disability' interaction is significant for females but not for males after controlling for industry and occupation. In other words, the intersection of immigrant, disability, and sex produces the same result even after controlling for industry and occupation. The results can be seen in Tables 14 and 15.

Type of disability. The type of disability can moderate the relationship between hiring decisions and performance expectations. For example, mental disabilities had a stronger negative impact compared to physical disabilities (Ren et al., 2008). I run the regression analysis separately for 10 samples of people with disabilities with different types of disabilities. These types of disabilities are hearing, seeing, mobility, flexibility, dexterity, pain, learning, developmental, mental or psychological, memory, and unknown (i.e., other) type of disabilities.

Having known the impact of sex on disability and immigrant interaction, I examine the immigrant and sex interaction. The regression tables can be seen in Appendix A to Appendix T. In summary, the results indicate that immigrant and sex interaction is significant and positive for the employment of people with disabilities who experience dexterity, flexibility, and learning issues. The remaining types of disabilities do not have a significant immigrant and sex interaction. For employment income, I find positive immigrant sex interaction only for those who have pain disabilities. Those who have other types of disabilities do not have a significant immigrant sex interaction.

Ethnicity. The impact of ethnicity on employment outcomes are well documented (e.g., Nakhaie, 2015; Gonzalez, 2012; Browne & Misra, 2003). The previous results demonstrating the intersectionality of immigrant and disability identity were produced while controlling for ethnicity. I conduct an in-depth analysis of the three largest ethnic groups in the NHS (2011): South Asians, Chinese, and Blacks. The rest of the groups are not analyzed due to their small sample size. The results indicate that only in the Chinese sample there is a positive relationship between disability and employment and negative relationship between immigrant and disability identities' interaction. Besides this result, other ethnic samples do not produce any statistically significant result of immigrant or disability identities or immigrant disability interaction for either dependent variables (i.e., employment and employment income). The results can be seen in Appendices U, V, W, X, Y, and Z.

Table 14. *Multivariate regression results for female and male samples and controlled for industry with employment income as dependent variable in Study 1*

	Employment income								
	Total			Female			Male		
Independent variables	β	Sig.	Standard error	β	Sig.	Standard error	β	Sig.	Standard error
Immigrant	-3.70	***	1.42	-2.31		1.50	-5.15	**	2.30
Disability	-6.68	***	1.18	-3.94	***	1.02	-8.36	***	2.29
Immigrant * Disability	4.20	*	2.49	6.35	**	2.61	2.01		4.66
RAD	7.47	**	3.40	7.62	**	3.25	7.20		5.59
Sex	-14.06	***	0.70						
Marital status	6.01	***	0.81	0.45		0.83	10.59	***	1.38
Home language	11.96	***	1.25	8.43	***	1.46	14.62	***	1.94
Visible minority	-6.87	***	1.18	-3.24	**	1.37	-10.40	***	1.84
Age (18-24)	-30.88	***	0.94	-28.48	***	1.08	-32.95	***	1.46
Age (25-34)	-12.19	***	0.93	-8.64	***	1.02	-15.19	***	1.46
Age (45-54)	3.37	***	1.13	3.08	**	1.21	3.96	**	1.79
Age (55-64)	0.39		1.28	-2.81	**	1.17	3.60	*	2.14
Less than high school	-26.74	***	1.28	-24.64	***	1.26	-27.39	***	2.08
High school degree	-22.53	***	1.14	-19.88	***	1.18	-23.61	***	1.93
College/vocational diploma	-15.34	***	1.07	-13.44	***	1.08	-17.13	***	1.87
Graduate/professional degree	12.88	***	1.96	8.29	***	1.85	17.65	***	3.42
Government transfer payments	-2.13	***	0.07	-1.67	***	0.07	-3.18	***	0.19
GINI coefficient	330.30	***	24.47	208.20	***	26.44	440.39	***	39.30

Industry	-0.08	***	0.02	-0.02	0.02	-0.12	***	0.03
Constant	-33.96	***	7.31	-12.70	7.81	-66.62	***	11.86
R-squared	0.24			0.25		0.22		
N	47,057			23,203		23,854		

* p < 0.10; ** p < 0.05; *** p < 0.01; Reference group: Canadian-born, no disability, male, single, does not speak an official language at home, not visible minority, age (35-44), holds a bachelor's degree

Table 15. *Multivariate regression results for female and male samples and controlled for occupation with employment income as dependent variable in Study 1*

	Employment income								
	Total			Female			Male		
Independent variables	β	Sig.	Standard error	β	Sig.	Standard error	β	Sig.	Standard error
Immigrant	-3.01	**	1.39	-1.73		1.43	-4.30	*	2.25
Disability	-6.37	***	1.15	-3.90	***	1.01	-8.09	***	2.25
Immigrant * Disability	4.43	*	2.41	6.87	***	2.56	2.60		4.62
RAD	5.15		3.36	6.54	**	3.17	3.74		5.59
Sex	-16.91	***	0.69						
Marital status	5.41	***	0.80	-0.12		0.81	10.02	***	1.37
Home language	10.41	***	1.24	6.83	***	1.41	13.15	***	1.95
Visible minority	-7.12	***	1.15	-3.14	**	1.30	-10.95	***	1.79
Age (18-24)	-28.77	***	0.92	-25.62	***	1.06	-31.66	***	1.44
Age (25-34)	-11.67	***	0.92	-8.47	***	1.01	-14.45	***	1.45
Age (45-54)	3.26	***	1.12	2.50	**	1.16	4.22	**	1.78
Age (55-64)	0.22		1.26	-3.10	***	1.13	3.48		2.12
Less than high school	-20.87	***	1.23	-19.64	***	1.20	-20.96	***	2.03
High school degree	-18.74	***	1.08	-17.46	***	1.11	-18.87	***	1.88
College/vocational diploma	-12.71	***	1.03	-12.80	***	1.05	-13.01	***	1.80
Graduate/professional degree	12.87	***	1.97	8.74	***	1.83	17.27	***	3.44
Government transfer payments	-2.03	***	0.07	-1.60	***	0.07	-3.01	***	0.18
GINI coefficient	338.86	***	24.43	200.82	***	26.14	461.79	***	39.14

Occupation	-2.33	***	0.13	-2.72	***	0.16	-1.96	***	0.19
Constant	-28.37	***	7.13	1.11		7.53	-69.53	***	11.46
R-squared	0.25			0.29			0.22		
N	47,057			23,203			23,854		

* p < 0.10; ** p < 0.05; *** p < 0.01; Reference group: Canadian-born, no disability, male, single, does not speak an official language at home, not visible minority, age (35-44), holds a bachelor's degree

Socioeconomic status. The socioeconomic level is an important indicator of health (De Maio, 2010). Socioeconomic status is a theoretical concept and cannot be measured directly, and there is a need to use proxies for the measurement of socioeconomic status (Kolenikov and Angeles, 2009). Two common socioeconomic status indicators are education level and income (Braveman et al., 2001). Since education level is already controlled, I use the income level of the respondents as a proxy for their socioeconomic status.

I employ a construct used in Statistics Canada's surveys since 1959: low income cut-offs (Statistics Canada, 2015b). Low income cut-off (LICO) is a threshold that indicates low income status of individuals and families. For the NHS (2011) LICO is indicated at the individual level hence it is an appropriate measure to indicate whether a respondent has a low-income status or not. Specifically, compared to an individual who lives in an RA with a similar population, individuals who are below LICO spend more than 20 percent of their income on food, shelter, and clothing. Thus, there is less income available for education and cultural expenses, which are determinants of socioeconomic level. 9.03% of the NHS (2011) sample were below the LICO whereas 90.97% of the sample was above the LICO. I run regression analysis for both dependent variables while separating the sample into two: respondents who are below LICO and respondents who are at or above LICO. The results indicate that immigrant and disability identities are negatively associated with employment whereas there is a positive association between immigrant-disability interaction with employment for

respondents who are at or above LICO has a negative association (see Appendix AA to Appendix DD). For the respondents who are below LICO, only disability identity has a negative interaction with employment. The only significant association with the second dependent variable, employment income, are the negative associations with immigrant identity and disability identity for the respondents who are at or above LICO. Thus, the intersection of immigrant and disability identities are positive only for those who are not in low income status.

Study 2

This study's sample consists of the respondents with disabilities (i.e., IwD and CwD) regardless of their employment status. Specifically, all respondents with disabilities who participate and do not participate in labour force are analyzed in this study. The dependent variable is 'in labour force' and the independent variable is 'proportion of immigrants in RA.' The model includes 'perceived work discrimination' as the mediator between the dependent and independent variables. While 'in labour force' and 'perceived work discrimination' are micro-level variables, 'proportion of immigrants in RA' is a macro-level variable.

Descriptive statistics. The descriptive statistics can be seen in Table 16. 79 percent of CwD participate in the labour force whereas 76 percent of IwD are in the labour force. More IwD live in RAs with a higher proportion of immigrants than CwD. On average, CwD perceive more work discrimination than IwD.

Correlations. Among the key variables, 'proportion of immigrants in RA' is not significantly associated with 'in labour force' and has a positive and significant association with 'perceived work discrimination.' The bivariate correlations can be seen in Table 17.

Inferential analysis. The path analysis is conducted with the CwD and IwD samples separately. The regressions results for the IwD sample show that 'proportion of immigrants in RA' and 'perceived work discrimination' are significantly and positively associated ($\beta = 0.13$, $p < 0.01$). Thus, H_4a is supported. The path analysis for IwD can be seen in Table 18 and the path analysis for CwD can be seen in Table 19. The analysis in the CwD sample demonstrate that 'proportion of immigrants in RA' and 'perceived work discrimination' are not significantly associated ($\beta = 0.03$, $p > 0.10$). Thus, H_4b is supported. 'Proportion of immigrants in RA' is positively and significantly associated with 'perceived work discrimination' for both CwD ($\beta = -0.05$, $p < 0.01$) and IwD ($\beta = -0.11$, $p < 0.01$). Thus, H_5 is supported. The indirect effect between 'proportion of immigrants in RA' and 'in labour force' is negative and significant for IwD ($\beta = -0.01$, $p < 0.01$) and H_6a is supported. The indirect effect between 'proportion of immigrants in RA' and 'in labour force' is not significant for CwD ($\beta = 0.13$, $p < 0.01$) and H_6b is supported.

Table 16. *Descriptive statistics for Study 2 for total sample and subsamples*

	Total sample		**CwD**		**IwD**	
Variables	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
In labour force	0.78	0.41	0.79	0.41	0.76	0.43
Proportion of immigrants in RA	2.17	1.53	1.91	1.40	3.36	1.52
Perceived work discrimination	0.83	0.88	0.85	0.87	0.75	0.89
Sex	0.56	0.50	0.56	0.50	0.59	0.49
Marital status	0.51	0.50	0.48	0.50	0.63	0.48
Home language	0.95	0.21	0.99	0.11	0.80	0.40
Visible minority	0.14	0.34	0.04	0.19	0.60	0.49
Age (18-24)	0.07	0.25	0.07	0.26	0.04	0.20
Age (25-34)	0.12	0.32	0.13	0.33	0.07	0.25
Age (35-44)	0.18	0.39	0.19	0.39	0.16	0.37
Age (45-54)	0.30	0.46	0.31	0.46	0.28	0.45
Age (55-64)	0.30	0.46	0.28	0.45	0.42	0.49
Less than high school	0.14	0.34	0.14	0.35	0.11	0.31
High school degree	0.27	0.45	0.29	0.45	0.22	0.41
College/vocational diploma	0.44	0.50	0.44	0.50	0.44	0.50
Bachelor’s degree	0.10	0.30	0.10	0.30	0.12	0.32
Graduate/professional degree	0.05	0.23	0.04	0.20	0.12	0.32
Government transfer payments	4.22	6.85	4.41	6.98	3.34	6.15
Severe disability	0.38	0.48	0.39	0.49	0.32	0.47
Unemployment rate	7.15	1.84	7.06	1.88	7.56	1.57
N	3,565		3,202		363	
% (weighted)	100.00		81.89		18.11	

Note: Percentages might not add up to 100 due to rounding. The sample sizes (N) demonstrate the number of respondents in each subgroup. The corresponding percentages for each subgroup are weighted to reflect the valid estimates of subgroup proportions in Canadian population.

Table 17. *Bivariate correlations between dependent, independent, and control variables of Study 2*

Variables	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1. In labour force	**1.00**									
2. Proportion of immigrants in RA	0.02	**1.00**								
3. Perceived work discrimination	**-0.17**	**0.04**	**1.00**							
4. Sex	**-0.05**	-0.01	**-0.05**	**1.00**						
5. Marital status	0.00	0.02	**-0.07**	-0.01	**1.00**					
6. Home language	-0.03	**-0.21**	**0.12**	0.03	**-0.06**	**1.00**				
7. Visible minority	0.01	**0.38**	**-0.08**	0.00	0.03	**-0.39**	**1.00**			
8. Age (18-24)	**-0.08**	**0.06**	-0.02	-0.01	**-0.26**	-0.01	**0.09**	**1.00**		
9. Age (25-34)	0.02	0.00	**0.09**	**-0.05**	**-0.18**	**0.04**	0.00	**-0.10**	**1.00**	
10. Age (35-44)	**0.11**	0.03	-0.01	-0.01	0.01	**-0.10**	-0.01	**-0.13**	**-0.17**	**1.00**
11. Age (45-54)	**0.10**	0.00	**0.04**	**-0.04**	**0.11**	0.02	0.01	**-0.18**	**-0.24**	**-0.31**
12. Age (55-64)	**-0.11**	**-0.06**	**-0.08**	**0.10**	**0.15**	0.03	**-0.04**	**-0.18**	**-0.24**	**-0.31**
13. Less than high school	**-0.15**	**-0.04**	0.02	0.01	0.00	0.03	-0.01	**0.08**	0.00	**-0.03**
14. High school degree	**-0.11**	0.00	**0.05**	**0.05**	0.01	0.01	**-0.06**	**0.15**	-0.01	**-0.11**
15. College/vocational diploma	**0.14**	**-0.04**	-0.02	**-0.05**	0.00	0.02	0.01	**-0.15**	**-0.04**	**0.11**
16. Bachelor's degree	**0.06**	**0.06**	-0.02	0.00	**-0.04**	**-0.04**	**0.05**	**-0.04**	**0.10**	0.00
17. Graduate/professional degree	**0.07**	**0.06**	**-0.08**	-0.01	0.03	**-0.05**	**0.04**	**-0.05**	-0.03	0.02
18. Government transfer payments	**-0.24**	**-0.08**	**0.17**	0.01	**-0.04**	**0.04**	**-0.05**	**-0.07**	0.00	**0.14**
19. Severe disability	**-0.11**	**-0.05**	**0.39**	**0.05**	-0.03	**0.08**	**-0.14**	**-0.08**	-0.02	-0.01
20. Unemployment rate	**-0.04**	**0.18**	**0.06**	0.03	0.01	**-0.07**	**0.09**	0.00	0.01	**0.06**

	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19
11. Age (45-54)	**1.00**								
12. Age (55-64)	**-0.44**	**1.00**							
13. Less than high school	-0.03	0.02	**1.00**						
14. High school degree	-0.01	**0.04**	**-0.24**	**1.00**					
15. College/vocational diploma	**0.06**	**-0.05**	**-0.35**	**-0.54**	**1.00**				
16. Bachelor's degree	-0.02	**-0.04**	**-0.13**	**-0.21**	**-0.30**	**1.00**			
17. Graduate/professional degree	-0.02	**0.05**	**-0.10**	**-0.15**	**-0.21**	**-0.08**	**1.00**		
18. Government transfer payments	**-0.04**	**-0.09**	**0.04**	-0.03	**0.08**	**-0.08**	**-0.08**	**1.00**	
19. Severe disability	**0.04**	**0.04**	0.00	**0.04**	**0.04**	**-0.08**	**-0.06**	**0.20**	**1.00**
20. Unemployment rate	0.00	**-0.05**	0.01	-0.03	0.01	0.02	-0.10	**0.06**	**0.04**

Note: correlations in bold are significant at $p < 0.05$

Table 18. *Path analysis for immigrants with disabilities (IwD) sample in Study 2*

	Perceived work discrimination			**In labour force**								
	Direct effects			Direct effects			Indirect effects			Total effects		
Independent variables	β	Sig.	Standard error	β	Sig.	Standard error	β	Sig.	Standard error	β	Sig.	Standard error
Perceived work discrimination	n/a			-0.11	***	0.04	n/a			-0.11	***	0.04
Proportion of immigrants in RA	0.13	***	0.04				-0.01	**	0.01	-0.01	**	0.01
Sex	-0.02		0.12	-0.04		0.06	0.00		0.01	-0.04		0.06
Marital status	0.12		0.11	-0.04		0.06	-0.01		0.01	-0.05		0.06
Home language	0.36	**	0.15	-0.06		0.06	-0.04	*	0.02	-0.10		0.07
Visible minority	-0.14		0.12	0.01		0.06	0.02		0.01	0.03		0.06
Age (18-24)	0.01		0.36	-0.49	***	0.12	0.00		0.04	-0.49	***	0.14
Age (25-34)	0.15		0.23	-0.07		0.12	-0.02		0.03	-0.09		0.12
Age (45-54)	-0.19		0.18	-0.01		0.08	0.02		0.02	0.02		0.08
Age (55-64)	-0.27	*	0.14	-0.10		0.07	0.03		0.02	-0.07		0.08
Less than high school	0.37	*	0.23	-0.07		0.11	-0.04		0.03	-0.11		0.11
High school degree	0.59	***	0.19	-0.25	**	0.11	-0.07	*	0.04	-0.32	***	0.12
College/vocational diploma	0.24		0.15	0.11		0.09	-0.03		0.02	0.08		0.09
Graduate/professional degree	0.03		0.19	0.03		0.11	0.00		0.02	0.02		0.10
Government transfer payments	0.02	***	0.01	-0.01		0.01	0.00	*	0.00	-0.01	*	0.01
Severe disability	0.60	***	0.13	-0.11		0.08	-0.07	**	0.03	-0.18	**	0.08
Unemployment rate	0.00		0.03	0.00		0.02	0.00		0.00	0.00		0.02

N = 363; * p < 0.10; ** p < 0.05; *** p < 0.01; Reference group: male, single, does not speak an official language at home, not visible minority, age (35-44), holds a bachelor's degree, does not have a severe disability

Table 19. *Path analysis for Canadian-born with disabilities (CwD)sample in Study 2*

	Perceived work discrimination			**In labour force**								
	Direct effects			Direct effects			Indirect effects			Total effects		
Independent variables	β	Sig.	Standard error	β	Sig.	Standard error	β	Sig.	Standard error	β	Sig.	Standard error
Perceived work discrimination	n/a			-0.05	***	0.02	no path			-0.05	**	0.02
Proportion of immigrants in RA	0.03		0.02	no path			0.00		0.00	0.00		0.00
Sex	-0.14	**	0.06	-0.03		0.03	0.01		0.00	-0.02		0.03
Marital status	-0.13	**	0.07	-0.01		0.03	0.01		0.00	0.00		0.03
Home language	0.60	***	0.18	0.03		0.06	-0.03	**	0.01	0.00		0.06
Visible minority	-0.11		0.11	-0.07		0.07	0.01		0.01	-0.06		0.08
Age (18-24)	0.01		0.11	-0.12	**	0.05	0.00		0.01	-0.12	**	0.05
Age (25-34)	0.21	*	0.12	-0.02		0.04	-0.01		0.01	-0.03		0.05
Age (45-54)	0.08		0.11	0.00		0.04	0.00		0.01	0.00		0.04
Age (55-64)	-0.04		0.10	-0.14	***	0.05	0.00		0.00	-0.14	***	0.05
Less than high school	-0.10		0.11	-0.18	**	0.07	0.00		0.01	-0.17	**	0.07
High school degree	-0.11		0.09	-0.07		0.05	0.01		0.00	-0.06		0.05
College/vocational diploma	-0.15	*	0.09	0.00		0.04	0.01		0.01	0.01		0.04
Graduate/professional degree	-0.23	*	0.14	0.04		0.05	0.01		0.01	0.05		0.05
Government transfer payments	0.01	**	0.00	-0.02	***	0.00	0.00	*	0.00	-0.02	***	0.00
Severe disability	0.67	***	0.07	0.01		0.03	-0.03	***	0.01	-0.02		0.03
Unemployment rate	0.01		0.01	0.00		0.01	0.00		0.00	0.00		0.01

N = 3,202; * p < 0.10; ** p < 0.05; *** p < 0.01; Reference group: male, single, does not speak an official language at home, not visible minority, age (35-44), holds a bachelor's degree, does not have a severe disability

Discussion and conclusion

Summary of the findings

Study 1. Using the SIT, double jeopardy thesis, and intergroup contact theory, Study 1 provides an overview of the impact of immigrant and disability intersection on employment inequalities by including all working-age Canadian population who are in the labour force regardless of their immigrant or disability identity. The results indicate that immigrant and disability, when examined independently, are negatively associated with employment and employment income. The intersection of these identities, however, is positively associated with employment and employment income. Further examination shows that the immigrant-disability intersection creates positive results only for females and not for males. The results are robust after controlling for industry and occupation. Further analysis shows that the type of disabilities might play a role. While the immigrant and disability identity interaction has a significant association with employment for those experience dexterity, flexibility, and learning issues, immigrant and disability identity interaction has a significant association with employment income for only pain disabilities.

Specifically, when the RAD is added to the intersection of immigrant and disability, it is found that as the RAD increases, the employment likelihood of IwD increases and the employment of CnD, InD, and CwD decrease. For employment income, an opposite effect is observed: as the RAD increases, the

employment income of IwD decreases whereas CnD, InD, and CwD's employment income increase.

Study 2. The sample of Study 2 consists of people with disabilities regardless of their employment status. The results demonstrate that the proportion of immigrants in the RA is not associated with perceived work discrimination for CwD and is positively associated with perceived work discrimination for IwD. Both CwD and IwD samples demonstrate a negative association between perceived work discrimination and labour force participation. Overall, it is shown that perceived work discrimination mediates the association between the proportion of immigrants in the RA and labour force participation for IwD but no such mediation is present for CwD.

Discussion

In this thesis, I bring together four theories, namely, the SIT, double jeopardy hypothesis, intergroup contact theory, and theory of minority group threat, to develop a multi-level model examining the complex relationships of individuals with intersecting identities, their employment outcomes, and structural employment inequalities. This model has three levels: micro, meso, and macro. At the micro-level, I examine individuals with intersecting identities and their employment outcomes. At the meso-level, there are organizations where all employment outcomes are shaped. At the macro-level, there are social structure; legal, social, technological, and economic environment in which individuals and

organizations operate, and employment inequalities, which is an outcome of the aggregation of employment outcomes of individuals. To test this model, I develop two empirical studies, Study 1 and Study 2, which are embedded in this multi-level model. Both Study 1 and Study 2 include micro- and macro-level variables as dependent, independent, and control variables. Since empirical examination of structural inequalities require societal level data, I use Statistics Canada's nationally-representative data, namely NHS (2011) and CSD (2012), for testing the hypotheses. Each study is discussed in detail below.

Study 1. Study 1 has four key findings. The first finding is that being an immigrant and having a disability is not positively correlated with employment outcomes but having both identities has a positive association with employment outcomes. According to Blau (1977a) there is an inverse relationship between the size of the group and the number of interactions its group members have on average. Since the number of IwD is drastically smaller than the rest of the groups, it is possible that IwD can interact more with individuals from other groups and this heightened contact has a positive impact on their employment outcomes. Furthermore, if the intersecting identities are not highly correlated with each other, that is, when the probability of Group A members to be members of Group B is low, this can lower the barriers to intergroup relationships (Blau, 1977b). Thus, IwD might be less prone to experience discrimination than InD and CwD. Finally, IwD might be considered ingroup by CwD and InD which lowers the probability of employment discrimination.

The complex nature of stereotypes of workers with multiple identities can also explain the first main finding. A recent study found that being gay and black had a positive impact on employment whereas being gay and white intersection had a negative effect (Pedulla, 2014). Pedulla (2014) claims that this could be an outcome of counteracting stereotypes of gay men (e.g., being effeminate) and black men (e.g., being threatening) leading to a dissipation of discrimination. Similarly, the stereotypes associated with being an immigrant and having a disability might be counteracting. Social comparison provides a third explanation for this finding. Brewer (2001) states that groups are prone to compare themselves to other similar groups because similar groups are more likely to have similar values and goals. According to the SIT, intergroup hostility occurs as a result of social comparison. Applying these principles, I suggest that CnD are more likely to compare themselves with CwD, where disability identity is the group difference (i.e., both groups are Canadian-born), and with InD, where immigrant identity is the only group difference (i.e., both group have no disabilities), than IwD where there are not one but two significant differences between the groups (i.e., immigrant and disability identity). In other words, because CnD are relatively less similar to IwD as opposed to CwD and InD, CnD are less likely to compare themselves to IwD and less likely to develop negative feelings and discriminate against them.

The second finding is that when post-hoc analysis focusing on females and males separately is conducted, the first finding (i.e., immigrant and disability interaction

being positive) holds only for females. The immigrant and disability intersection does not produce any significant result for male workers. Thus, there seems to be a sex effect. There are at least two theories that can explain this result. The first theory that can help to explain this finding is the subordinate-male target hypothesis (SMTH). Bringing the psychology of gender and intergroup together, the SMTH asserts that the males in the subordinate group (i.e., IwD) are more likely to be the target of discrimination than females in the same group (Sidanius & Pratto, 1999). Several evolutionary psychology theories and experiments support the predictions of the SMTH (McDonald, Navarrete, & Sidanius, 2011; Navarrete et al., 2009; Navarrete, McDonald, Molina, & Sidanius, 2010; Van Vugt & Park, 2009). Facing less discrimination than their male counterparts, female IwD might be in a relatively advantageous position. Intersectional invisibility is another theory that can explain this result. Intersectional invisibility hypothesis states that multiple disadvantaged identities might intersect in a way that allows avoiding oppression (Purdie-Vaughns & Eibach, 2008). In other words, as the number of identities of an individual increase, it will be more difficult for other to fit the individuals to a stereotype. Thus, the negative impact of being stereotyped will be avoided–at least to a certain level. Therefore, while InD and CwD might suffer from the negative stereotypes, IwD might render themselves 'invisible' and hurt less from employment inequalities compared to InD and CwD.

The third finding is that the intersection of immigrant, disability, and sex does not hold for all types of disabilities. I show that only workers with dexterity, flexibility, and learning disabilities experience positive immigrant and sex intersection for employment. For employment income, only workers with pain disabilities experience positive immigrant and sex intersection. Unfortunately, the CSD (2012) does not provide further details on the respondents' disabilities. At this point, I can only speculate that some of these respondents have, perhaps, invisible disabilities and that is why there is a positive immigrant and sex intersection.

The fourth finding is that as the RAD increases, the likelihood of IwD's employment increases whereas the employment income decreases. The opposite holds for CnD, InD, and CwD. Here, an interesting pattern emerges. The RAD seems to have the opposite moderating impact on employment and employment income. Employment simply means an individual has a job; it does not say anything about the quality of the job. The literature on immigrant workers and workers with disabilities shows that both immigrants and people with disabilities are more likely to find lower quality jobs (e.g., Banerjee, 2009; Fortin, Lemieux, & Torres, 2016; Mitra and Krause, 2016; Schur et al., 2009).

It might be possible to explain this finding by extending the immigrant enclave theory to immigrants with disabilities. Immigrant enclave theory states that immigrants who have similar linguistic and ethnic background live and work in

clusters, and these clusters may help them to provide some job security (Wilson & Portes, 1980; Portes & Manning, 2012). Thus, this system partially resembles primary labour markets (Li, 2008). That said, recent studies show that immigrants working in the enclaves earn less than immigrants who work outside the enclaves (Li & Dong, 2007) and enjoy a lower rate of wage growth than immigrants who work outside the enclaves (Warman, 2005). This finding can be explained by recent research that demonstrates unskilled immigrants are more likely to live and work in ethnic enclaves to improve their chance of employment (Damm, 2009; Hou, 2009; Nakhaie & Kazemipur, 2013). In a similar vein, Pfeffer and Parra (2009) demonstrate that recent immigrants who hold unskilled jobs in their enclaves are more likely to find a job in the mainstream economy if they have adequate human capital. Thus, there seems to be self-selection of unskilled immigrants who might be working in their enclaves and skilled immigrants who prefer to move out of their enclaves to find better-paying jobs.

These findings from previous studies are in line with the second finding of Study 1. Thus, it might be the case that IwD, who might be experiencing double disadvantage as predicted by the double jeopardy hypothesis, might be more likely than CnD, InD, and CwD to accept lower quality jobs that pays less. While immigrants with no disabilities might have more mobility to find a job in another RA, IwD might have limited mobility (e.g., moving to or commuting daily to another RA) due to their disabilities. Thus, they might prefer to stay in their immigrant enclaves where finding a job and having some job security using their

social ties might be more reasonable as opposed to taking the risk to find a better-quality job at the expense of losing their job security in their enclaves. This can explain why IwD's likelihood of employment improves while their employment income declines as the RAD increases. Thus, intersecting identities might be advantageous or disadvantageous depending on which employment outcome is studied. This might be the reason why the double jeopardy hypothesis produces inconsistent results (e.g., Pedulla, 2014; Smith & Mustard, 2009).

The post-hoc analyses demonstrate that as the RAD increases, IwD have a higher chance of employment whereas for CwD, InD, and CnD, this relationship is inverse. Furthermore, the employment probability of CnD disabilities is more sensitive to the change in the RAD (i.e., higher slope) compared to that of InD, CwD, and IwD. For employment income, CnD have a higher sensitivity than InD. These results can be explained by the master status argument which indicates that individuals who are in the majority group will be more adversely affected by being in environments where the minority group members constitute the majority (i.e., minority-majority community) compared to minority individuals in environments where majority group members, the members of groups who are the majority in the country, indeed has the larger group size in that community (Skaggs & DiTomaso, 2004; Tolbert et al., 1999). The underlying reason is that the majority group has more psychological resources (e.g., status and prestige) to lose than minority group members (Peccei & Lee, 2005). Therefore, CnD are

more sensitive to the changes in the RAD since they have potentially more to lose compared to minority groups.

Study 2. The theory of minority group threat states that as the number of minorities increases in a region, the majority group perceives that there is increased competition for limited resources such as employment opportunities. As a result, there is an increased level of discrimination towards minority groups whose sizes are increasing. The two main findings of Study 2 confirm this prediction. The first finding demonstrates that there is a significant and positive association between the proportion of immigrants in the RA and IwD's perceived work discrimination. As predicted, there is no statistically significant relationship between the proportion of immigrants in the RA and CwD's perceived work discrimination. Thus, a demographic change (i.e., the increase of the proportion of immigrants) in a community has asymmetric perceptions for different populations (i.e., IwD and CwD).

This is an important finding for two reasons. First, it demonstrates how immigrant identity intersects with disability identity to create asymmetric perceptions of work discrimination for a group, that is, people with disabilities, which is considered homogenous by many stakeholders including researchers, practitioners, and policymakers. This finding implies that it is possible that IwD might be perceived in the workplace first as immigrants and then as workers with

disabilities. Thus, this finding provides an interesting example of how intersecting identities can shape the perceptions of workers.

Second, this finding is significant in that it demonstrates the equivocal relationship between communities' demographic structure (i.e., the proportion of immigrants in the RA) and the work discrimination of the workers who reside in those communities. It can be argued that the respondents might be residing and working in different RAs. As a response to this argument, while the data does not allow controlling for the location of work by RA, Statistics Canada states that in the NHS (2011), which is where the geographical data of this thesis comes from, most of the workers in Canada reside and work in the same RA (Statistics Canada, 2018). Indeed, Canadian data shows that immigrants who work with other immigrants from the same origin tend to live and work in the same RA (Li, 2008). Thus, it is reasonable to assume that workers at least partially derive threat perceptions from their RAs, possibly from their non-work lives, and transfer their perceptions to their workplace where they might be demonstrating discriminating behaviours, which are perceived by other workers. This complex relationship can also be taken as an interpretation of the multi-level model of employment inequality for workers with multiple identities I develop in this thesis. Specifically, this finding exemplifies the association between social structure, which is at the macro level, and the perceptions of individuals with intersecting identities, which is at the micro level.

The second finding confirms previous research (e.g., Konrad et al., 2012a) demonstrating the negative association between perceived work discrimination and labour force participation of people with disabilities. I demonstrate that both IwD and CwD are less likely to participate in the labour force if they have a perception of discrimination at work. Furthermore, this finding extends previous studies' results by demonstrating that perceived work discrimination and labour force participation association is stronger for IwD than CwD. Thus, as predicted by the double jeopardy hypothesis, there might be a negative intersectional effect of having both immigrant and disability identities as opposed having only the disability identity.

Implications

Theory. This thesis contributes to the theoretical development of inequality and diversity studies within the management literature in several ways. First, one reason management discipline has not produced many studies on income inequality is the difficulty of developing a multi-level theory that links organizations to inequalities (Beal & Astakhova, 2017). Furthermore, there is a contrast between inequality studies in management and other social sciences. On the one hand, most management studies consider inequality as an external consideration without examining how organizations shape inequalities and are shaped by them. On the other hand, most studies in economics and sociology do not include organizations in their models (Beal & Astakhova, 2017). By

developing a theoretical model that brings together four theories from different disciplines, namely the SIT, double jeopardy hypothesis, intergroup contact theory, and the theory of minority group threat, and framing organizations within the wider social and economic system, this thesis contributes to both management and social sciences literature.

Second, this thesis contributes to the enhancement of the four theories above. Extant studies using intergroup contact theory and the theory of minority group threat examine employment outcomes based on only a single identity. This thesis enhances the intergroup contact theory and theory of minority group threat by examining multiple groups formed by individuals with intersecting identities (i.e., IwD). Most management studies using the SIT and double jeopardy hypothesis examine only one employment outcome. This can be problematic in that examining employment inequality for workers with multiple identities at a single dimension (e.g., employment income) creates an implicit assumption that the inequality will exist in other employment outcome dimensions as well. This is not necessarily true. For example, as shown in this thesis, IwD have a higher chance of employment than CwD but receive lower employment income. This might be the reason why the SIT and double jeopardy hypothesis might be supported empirically in some contexts but do not hold in others. To overcome this limitation, unlike most management studies in the literature, I examine employment outcomes in three dimensions (i.e., labour force participation, employment, and employment income) which provides a more nuanced

understanding of the extent to which identities can be advantageous or disadvantageous for specific employment outcomes. Furthermore, I expand a rather limited understanding of the impact of the broader context that the organizations and workers are embedded in on workforce diversity and employment inequalities by including the RAD into the analysis while controlling for the unemployment rate and provincial-level income inequality. In short, I enhance the SIT, double jeopardy hypothesis, intergroup contact theory, and theory of minority group threat by clarifying the extent of their generalizability as determined by employment outcomes dimensions and context.

Third, the thesis contributes to the inequality and diversity literature by incorporating multiple and intersecting identities of workers rather than focusing on a single identity. With the workforce getting more diverse, it becomes more important to acknowledge the heterogeneity of social groups and conduct analysis accordingly. For example, while gender pay gap on average hurts women's employment outcomes, women who are perceived to have high potential might get paid more in organizations with an underrepresentation of women (Leslie, Flaherty Mancherster, & Dahm, 2017). People with disability are not a homogenous group (Woodhams & Corby, 2007; World Health Organization, 2011; Baldwin & Choe, 2014; Vernon, 1999) and there is a need to consider the heterogeneity of people with disabilities in management studies (Baldridge et al., 2017). Thus, this thesis offers a more nuanced understanding of the employment inequalities experienced by subgroups of people with disabilities.

Practice. What Walsh, Weber, and Margolis (2003) stated more than a decade ago still holds today: the management scholarship is yet to focus on organizations' role in the public interest. Studying the interrelationship between organizations and inequalities, for example, "[…] will require management scholars to question business orthodoxy regarding both the scope of management scholarship and the purpose and function of management practice." (Beal & Astakhova, 2017, p.5). While this thesis does not use organization-level data, and thus does not examine intra-organizational processes, it examines the employment outcomes shaped directly by organizations. In line with these perspectives, the results of this thesis has implications that can contribute to practitioner knowledge.

For organizations, one way of creating collective value, their raison d'etre (Donaldson & Walsh, 2015; Enderle, 2016) is to work towards lowering the inequality at the societal level. Organizations need to put effort on reducing employment inequalities for two reasons. First, lower inequality will help organizations to survive. Lower inequality means more and higher quality employment opportunities, and better employment opportunities allow workers to invest in their human capital by receiving further education, training, and work experience, which in turn, enhances organizational productivity and survival. Furthermore, lower employment inequalities will also decrease the level of social inequality (Tsui et al., 2017) which in turn makes the society more stable and creates a more favourable environment for business (Bapuji & Neville, 2015).

Moreover, employment inequality might harm social relationships in organizations (Bapuji, 2015) which hurts organizational effectiveness and chances of organizational survival.

Second, organizations are ethically responsible not only for themselves by ensuring the highest level of profit and survival but also for other stakeholders. The actions organizations take affect not only themselves but also other stakeholders such as their workers, customers, taxpayers, government, and environment. For example, not only the corporate tax rates have been decreasing in the world (Oxfam, 2017), the largest corporations are already paying a minimal amount of taxes. For example, Apple paid only 0.005 percent of its European profits in 2014 (Browning & Kocieniewski, 2016). If organizations have a role in increasing the level of inequalities, they have an ethical responsibility to address this issue (Bapuji, 2015; Beal et al., 2017). Modern organizations have the power to fight inequalities (Bapuji, 2015; Tsui et al., 2017; Pearce, 2005). Indeed, some organizations have more economic and political power than some countries. For example, the 10 largest corporations in the world had more revenue than the government revenue of 180 nations combined in 2016 (Oxfam, 2017). In short, organizations have the tools and the reasons to add lowering employment inequality as one of their goals.

Organizations can reduce employment inequalities in several ways. First, corporations can voluntarily adopt a living wage policy instead of only abiding by

the minimum wage laws. Such policy can lower economic inequality by increasing the income of those with lower income. It can also reduce social inequality indirectly by preventing the reinforcement of economic inequality in the next generation (Neckerman & Torche, 2007). Second, employment decisions such as hiring and promotion are made by managers, and employment inequalities depend on managerial decisions (Padavic & Reskin, 2002). Thus, organizations can actively aim to hire individuals who might be at an intersectional disadvantage. This would be beneficial not only for individuals and society by lowering social and economic inequality but also for corporations. For example, Herring (2009) demonstrated that an organization could increase its revenue and improve its customer base by diversifying its workforce. Third, corporations can support the improvement of employment outcomes of disadvantaged groups by providing them with training and education opportunities. For example, as shown in this thesis, there is a positive relationship between employment outcomes and the level of education. Such support for equality of opportunity may not only lower the barriers to social mobility of their employees but also present significant organizational advantages (Lane, 2000). In short, corporations can play a role in lowering inequality at the societal level and this would be beneficial for all stakeholders including the organizations themselves.

Developing organizational policies and programs can be useful in tackling employment inequalities. Research shows that formal human resource policies have a positive impact on the hiring of people with disabilities (Araten-Bergman,

2016). Thus, organizations should aim for developing formal human resource policies such as developing disability hiring policies. Diversity management policies can be a useful tool to tackle employment inequalities as well. It is important to underline that rather than applying any diversity management policy, choosing adequate diversity management practices are essential to lower employment inequalities. For example, Kalev et al. (2015) found that diversity training was not as effective as establishing responsibility for diversity in organizations. Furthermore, organizations should consider developing diversity management programs that do not treat their workers having only a single social identity (Hearn & Louvrier, 2017). With the increasing diversity of the workforce, organizations need to have a broader understanding of inclusion (Mor Barak & Travis, 2013). Organizations can actively reduce economic and social inequality by actively aiming to hire individuals who might be at an intersectional disadvantage and providing extra training and education opportunities. For example, the results of this thesis suggest that organizations can acknowledge the heterogeneity of immigrants and people with disabilities while developing diversity management programs.

There are many reasons for organizations to improve the employment outcomes of both IwD and CwD. IwD have unique life and professional experiences because of being both immigrant and having disabilities. The results of this thesis show that they are an untapped source for employers. Hiring, retaining, and accommodating people with disabilities are beneficial to organizations because of

accessing untapped skilled workers, higher profits, stronger organizational culture, and increased organizational legitimacy (Hartnett, Stuart, Thurman, Loy, & Carter Batiste, 2011). It was found that public views organizations that hire people with disabilities more favourably (Siperstein, Romano, Mohler, & Parker, 2006). Furthermore, hiring people with disabilities can help employers to reduce retention and productivity uncertainties (Baldridge et al., 2017). Moreover, workplace accommodations are positively associated with life satisfaction and negatively associated with perceived discrimination (Moore et al., 2011).

Creating an inclusive workplace environment and providing workplace accommodations explicitly supported by top managers are enablers of the employment of people with disabilities (Baldridge et al., 2017; Wright, 2001). Managerial perceptions play an important role in determining the inclusiveness of an organization (Williams-Whitt & Taras, 2010). Thus, change in organizational culture and societal attitudes is necessary for inclusion of people with disabilities in the workplace (Schur, Kruse, & Blanck, 2005; Vilà, Pallisera, & Fullana, 2007; Williams-Whitt et al., 2016). It was found that organizational climate and support for diversity and inclusion, matching people with disabilities efficiently with jobs, and employers' previous experience of managing diversity determined the level of openness to hiring and supporting people with disabilities (Baldridge et al., 2017; Gilbride & Stensrud, 2003). Regarding demand-side factors, hiring efforts are associated with organizational climate and whether a disability is included in diversity management programs, and organizations' commitment of hiring people

with disabilities is associated with knowledge of work disability legislation (Chan et al., 2010).

Society. Because of the embeddedness of organizations in their communities, diversity and inclusion cannot be managed in organizations only (Humberd et al., 2015). Indeed, intergroup relationships in organizations reflect intergroup relations in society (Joshi et al., 2011). Thus, for societies improving the intergroup relationships will be beneficial not only to the social environment of their communities but also to local economic performance.

Prejudices based on group membership most likely are subtle and pervasive thus more difficult to detect and change (Brewer, 2001). It is neither ethical nor possible to expect individuals to claim or reject their identities for lowering negative feelings among groups. That said, it might be possible to improve intergroup relations by creating opportunities for intergroup contact (Schmid & Hewstone, 2014). Thus, social contact can be precious in that it diminishes this subtle but strong effect without any active intervention. Brewer (2001) claims that it is possible to reduce discrimination by creating a more inclusive environment where outgroup individuals are included by extending group boundaries. Considering employment is an indicator of inclusion (Canadian Human Rights Commission, 2012), encouraging organizations to hire workers with disadvantaged identities such as immigrants and people with disabilities will enhance the overall social and economic wellbeing of communities.

Policy. While most organizations are affected by employment inequalities, organizations as individual actors can hardly have an impact, alone, on employment inequalities (Bapuji & Neville, 2015). This is a problem known as 'the tragedy of commons' which occurs when individual agents (individuals or organizations) act in their self-interest yet they deplete a resource that is vital for other agents by excessive use without replenishing (Ostrom, 2008). The resource in this instance is employment equality which is positively related to worker productivity and societal stability. As organizations do not pay attention to reducing employment inequality, the level of employment inequality increases, and organizations suffer as a result. Furthermore, while organizations have the responsibility and means to minimize employment inequalities, they function in the environment regulated by the government. Moreover, governments redistribute wealth by tax and other benefits systems which directly affect inequalities. Thus, it is the responsibility of policymakers to develop solutions against employment inequalities. This thesis demonstrates that immigrants with disabilities may experience employment inequalities based on their identities. Because of the decentralized policy structure and the complex nature of inequality, there is not one single solution for income inequality (Green et al., 2016).

It is imperative to examine the intersectionality of immigration and disability policies to understand the intersectionality of immigrant and disability identities. Historically, Canadian immigration policy has progressed over the years. Starting

from first Canadian immigration act in 1869, "An Act Respecting Immigrants and Immigration" to the Immigration and Refugee Protection Act (2001) which guides immigration policies today, immigration policies have gradually grown out of excluding immigrants because of their race, sex, religion, sexual orientation, and religion and moved towards more inclusive policies (Hanes, 2009). Nevertheless, Canadian immigration legislation still excludes persons with disabilities from immigration opportunities (Hanes, 2009). This is mainly due to the ableism in the immigration policies of Canada (El-Lahib & Wehbi, 2011). Furthermore, Canadian immigration policies which are based on the economic needs of Canada has an impact on the exclusion of persons with disabilities from becoming immigrants (El-Lahib & Wehbi, 2011). While the immigration policies of Canada historically discriminated against people with disabilities, there are signs that this exclusion might be becoming less severe. The immigration minister of Canada, Ahmed Hussen, announced in late 2017 that policies that rejected immigrants because of their disabilities would be terminated (Harris, 2017b). This could mean that it will be easier for people with disabilities to immigrate to Canada and the number of IwD might further increase soon. As a result, employment outcomes of IwD might change as their group size increases.

Canadian disability policy has experienced a continuous change from income support programs to programs that focus on reintegration of people with disabilities in the labour market (Campolieti, Gomez, & Gunderson, 2009). Even though Canadian immigration legislation is ableist (Chouinard & Crooks, 2005;

El-Lahib, 2015; Hanes, 2009), both immigration and disability policies of Canada aim to integrate immigrants and people with disabilities into the labour market. Policy makers use benefits and supports as tools to reach the policy goals and determine who should receive benefits and support (Dunn, 2003). Holland et al. (2011) identified the need for a better understanding of not only types of labour market policies but also 'for whom and in what contexts' (p. 428). Therefore, it is imperative that we understand the needs and capabilities of target groups to create and apply appropriate policy tools. This thesis provides results with implications for both immigration and disability policies. When two diversities come together, there can be unexpected outcomes; thus, people who have multiple identities might have unforeseen and different needs. Therefore, policymakers are cautioned to focus not only on groups as silos but also to consider the needs and capabilities of people who stand at the crossroads of intersecting diversities.

Work disability policies are aimed at reducing the unemployment rate and employment discouragement of people with disabilities through workplace accommodations (Baldridge et al., 2017). Policies on disability accommodation in the workplace can be designed with two approaches: just-in-time and just-in-case (Baldridge et al., 2017). Just-in-time approach to disability accommodation is a reactive approach in that it requires workers with disabilities to make an accommodation request to start to accommodation process. This approach is subject to many impediments (Williams-Whitt, 2007). Just-in-case approach, on the other hand, is proactive in that it requires employers to adopt a universal

design for the workplace environment in case a person with a disability might be hired (Baldridge et al., 2017). The dominant approach to disability accommodation in North America is the just-in-time approach but there has been a gradual shift to just-in-case for the accommodation of customers with disabilities and students with disabilities in higher education institutions.

Legislation shapes the employment of people with disabilities at the provincial, national, and international level. The federal political system of Canada comes with difficulties creating comprehensive inequality strategies because policies regarding labour market, health, education, and welfare are under the responsibility of provinces (Banting & Myles, 2016). For example, the work disability policies that are in effect for Ontarians include Ontario Human Rights Code, Canadian Charter of Rights and Freedoms, Accessibility for Ontarians with Disabilities Act, Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities (Ontario Human Rights Commission, n.d.), and Employment Equity Act. While these regulations are interrelated, they are also independent of each other at least for a certain degree. For example, Ontario Human Rights Code has primacy over Accessibility for Ontarians with Disabilities Act yet complying with the latter does not necessarily result in complying with the former and employers need to comply with both (Ontario Human Rights Commission, n.d.). Thus, the lack of federal-level disability legislation in Canada might cause poor implementation of work disability policies because of the practical differences of policies at the provincial level (Kovacs Burns & Gordon, 2010).

Despite the renewal of the work disability policies in Canada since the 2000s, the actual content of the policies has not changed (Levesque, 2012). Policymakers can improve the lives of Canadians with disabilities by focusing on developing new work disability policies that are intersectional, that use consistent definitions of disability in Canada, and that are more standardized across different levels of governments.

Limitations, strengths, and future research directions

As it is in all management and organization studies research, this thesis has some limitations but also strengths which I will discuss here. I will also suggest future research directions.

First, while this thesis acknowledges and has implications for organizations' role of reducing inequalities as illustrated in the multilevel model (see Figure 2), it does not address the employment inequalities at the organizational level since the data are at the individual level and is not linked with organizations. This can be both a limitation and strength. On the one hand, it is a limitation because lack of organizational level data prevents the inclusion of organizational characteristics and processes to the analysis. On the other hand, it is a strength because linking inequality within organizations to macro-level inequality can be a difficult task (Beal et al., 2017). Davis and Cobb (2010) demonstrate that it is possible that organizational level inequality might not contribute to macro-level inequality. Aggregating employment outcomes at the organizational level to national level

might lead to erroneous results. Therefore, understanding the relationship between employment outcomes and macro-level employment inequalities can be best understood by aggregating individual-level employment outcomes created in organizations to the macro-level. This is the approach of this thesis.

Second, quantitative intersectionality is a methodology to capture the momentary condition of identities and while large datasets, such as the NHS (2011) and CSD (2012) I use in this thesis, can unveil structural inequalities, such data are not likely to be sufficient for in-depth analysis of micro-processes of inequalities that occur in everyday life. This thesis aimed to overcome this shortcoming by conducting post-hoc analysis when appropriate. Qualitative studies on the immigrant-disability identity intersection might contribute to a deeper understanding of the findings of this study. Longitudinal quantitative analysis also can help to explore the dynamic processes of inequality and resource allocation (Scott, 2010).

Third, despite the size of the datasets used in this thesis, there are some variables that would be adequate to be examined. For example, because the NHS (2011) and CSD (2012) does not have any data on the respondents' parents, it was not possible to examine the relationship of intergenerational mobility and employment inequalities. Another factor I was not able to examine is the extent to which the work experience of the respondents is obtained in Canada. Future

studies can investigate these two factors that potentially shape the employment inequalities experienced by IwD.

Along with the limitations summarized above, this thesis has several strengths. First, using a multi-level and multi-theory approach, this thesis develops a holistic theoretical model to understand the complex relationships between multiple of individuals, employment outcomes, and inequalities. Second, the NHS (2011) and CSD (2012) brought together constitute a national level dataset with a high number of variables that allows for controlling for many relevant factors, which reduces the effect of confounding variables. Furthermore, the nationally representative nature of this data allows the results of this thesis to be generalizable to the Canadian population. The generalizability of the findings allows meaningful implications for all Canadian stakeholders including researchers, practitioners, policymakers, and society.

Conclusion

The dissertation enhances our understanding of the complex relationship between individuals with multiple identities and employment inequalities. Employment inequality is examined in three dimensions: labour force participation, employment, and employment income. This multi-dimensional approach to employment inequality is supported by multiple theories, namely, the SIT, double jeopardy hypothesis, intergroup contact theory, and theory of minority group threat. This multi-dimensional and multi-theoretical approach offers a holistic

perspective to understanding the determinants of employment inequality at the societal, organizational, and individual level. The multilevel model developed in this thesis provides a comprehensive understanding of employment inequalities as an interaction of individuals, organizations, social structure, and governance spheres. This thesis demonstrates that having both immigrant and disability identities has a positive association with employment and employment income but as the RAD increases, IwD's likelihood of employment increases but employment income decreases. In addition, this thesis shows that the proportion of immigrants in an RA and perceived work discrimination are negatively associated with the likelihood of being in the labour force for IwD, and perceived work discrimination mediates this relationship. These findings examine the rarely studied intersection of immigrant and disability identities using nationally representative data and provide implications for practitioners, policymakers, and society.

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Appendix A

Ordinary logistic regression result for the employment of Canadians with dexterity

	Employment		
	Dexterity		
Independent variables	β	Sig.	Standard error
Immigrant	-1.78	**	0.78
Female	0.02		0.56
Immigrant * Female	2.88	**	1.41
RAD	1.26		2.16
Marital status	1.26	***	0.48
Home language	-2.23	**	1.01
Visible minority	-0.43		0.95
Age (18-24)	-0.25		0.92
Age (25-34)	0.91		0.73
Age (45-54)	1.64	**	0.81
Age (55-64)	1.05	*	0.60
Less than high school	0.35		1.25
High school degree	0.47		1.24
College/vocational diploma	-1.10		1.26
Graduate/professional degree	-1.59		1.63
Government transfer payments	-0.11	*	0.06
GINI coefficient	-16.01		20.07
Constant	8.28		5.78
Pseudo R-squared	0.34		
N	496		

* $p < 0.10$; ** $p < 0.05$; *** $p < 0.01$

Reference group: Canadian-born, no disability, male, single, does not speak an official language at home, not visible minority, age (35-44), holds a bachelor's degree

Appendix B

Ordinary logistic regression results for the employment of Canadians with flexibility disabilities

	Employment		
	Flexibility		
Independent variables	β	Sig.	Standard error
Immigrant	-1.22	**	0.55
Sex	-0.33		0.39
Immigrant * Sex	1.80	**	0.78
RAD	0.03		1.40
Marital status	0.91	**	0.37
Home language	-0.69		0.63
Visible minority	0.08		0.54
Age (18-24)	0.47		0.62
Age (25-34)	1.27	**	0.52
Age (45-54)	1.24	**	0.53
Age (55-64)	1.00	**	0.41
Less than high school	-1.01		0.69
High school degree	-0.75		0.66
College/vocational diploma	-1.28	**	0.65
Graduate/professional degree	-0.37		0.86
Government transfer payments	-0.06	***	0.02
GINI coefficient	-8.31		10.00
Constant	5.46	*	2.90
Pseudo R-squared	0.18		
N	1,427		

* $p < 0.10$; ** $p < 0.05$; *** $p < 0.01$; Reference group: Canadian-born, no disability, male, single, does not speak an official language at home, not visible minority, age (35-44), holds a bachelor's degree

Appendix C

Ordinary logistic regression results for the employment of Canadians with hearing disabilities

	Employment		
	Hearing		
Independent variables	β	Sig.	Standard error
Immigrant	-0.83		0.85
Sex	-0.57		0.51
Immigrant * Sex	1.68		1.07
RAD	-1.20		2.26
Marital status	1.36	**	0.61
Home language	1.11		0.74
Visible minority	0.89		0.75
Age (18-24)	0.56		0.98
Age (25-34)	-0.04		0.78
Age (45-54)	1.52	**	0.78
Age (55-64)	1.03		0.62
Less than high school	-1.47		1.14
High school degree	-1.85		1.11
College/vocational diploma	-1.67		1.05
Graduate/professional degree	1.44		1.35
Government transfer payments	-0.07	**	0.03
GINI coefficient	-16.00		16.57
Constant	7.04		4.76
Pseudo R-squared	0.27		
N	699		

* $p < 0.10$; ** $p < 0.05$; *** $p < 0.01$; Reference group: Canadian-born, no disability, male, single, does not speak an official language at home, not visible minority, age (35-44), holds a bachelor's degree

Appendix D

Ordinary logistic regression results for the employment of Canadians with learning disabilities

	Employment		
	Learning		
Independent variables	β	Sig.	Standard error
Immigrant	0.10		0.79
Sex	-0.08		0.39
Immigrant * Sex	2.61	**	1.14
RAD	-6.03	**	2.36
Marital status	2.09	***	0.64
Home language	1.72	*	0.95
Visible minority	0.89		0.82
Age (18-24)	0.42		0.58
Age (25-34)	0.64		0.66
Age (45-54)	0.88		0.77
Age (55-64)	0.98		0.81
Less than high school	-0.86		1.08
High school degree	-1.50		1.07
College/vocational diploma	-2.08	**	1.06
Graduate/professional degree	-1.77		1.32
Government transfer payments	-0.04		0.03
GINI coefficient	22.45	*	13.30
Constant	-3.57		3.70
Pseudo R-squared	0.22		
N	685		

* $p < 0.10$; ** $p < 0.05$; *** $p < 0.01$; Reference group: Canadian-born, no disability, male, single, does not speak an official language at home, not visible minority, age (35-44), holds a bachelor's degree

Appendix E

Ordinary logistic regression results for the employment of Canadians with memory disabilities

	Employment		
	Memory		
Independent variables	β	Sig.	Standard error
Immigrant	-0.62		1.08
Sex	0.31		0.51
Immigrant * Sex	1.00		1.32
RAD	-1.52		2.76
Marital status	1.94	***	0.59
Home language	0.94		1.11
Visible minority	0.69		0.93
Age (18-24)	1.35	**	0.69
Age (25-34)	0.04		0.84
Age (45-54)	1.90	*	1.06
Age (55-64)	0.37		0.68
Less than high school	-2.18		1.38
High school degree	-1.92		1.39
College/vocational diploma	-3.01	**	1.43
Graduate/professional degree	-1.20		1.56
Government transfer payments	-0.03		0.03
GINI coefficient	-12.95		20.51
Constant	6.19		5.71
Pseudo R-squared	0.24		
N	448		

* $p < 0.10$; ** $p < 0.05$; *** $p < 0.01$; Reference group: Canadian-born, no disability, male, single, does not speak an official language at home, not visible minority, age (35-44), holds a bachelor's degree

Appendix F

Ordinary logistic regression results for the employment of Canadians with mobility disabilities

	Employment		
	Mobility		
Independent variables	β	Sig.	Standard error
Immigrant	-1.44	**	0.59
Sex	-0.46		0.39
Immigrant * Sex	1.29		0.83
RAD	-1.33		1.60
Marital status	0.78	**	0.37
Home language	-1.13		0.76
Visible minority	0.57		0.60
Age (18-24)	0.48		0.59
Age (25-34)	0.51		0.54
Age (45-54)	1.56	**	0.63
Age (55-64)	1.10	**	0.46
Less than high school	-0.17		0.61
High school degree	-0.27		0.56
College/vocational diploma	-0.64		0.57
Graduate/professional degree	-0.47		0.76
Government transfer payments	-0.06	***	0.02
GINI coefficient	-1.86		11.46
Constant	4.14		3.41
Pseudo R-squared	0.16		
N	1,142		

* $p < 0.10$; ** $p < 0.05$; *** $p < 0.01$; Reference group: Canadian-born, no disability, male, single, does not speak an official language at home, not visible minority, age (35-44), holds a bachelor's degree

Appendix G

Ordinary logistic regression results for the employment of Canadians with pain disabilities

	Employment		
	Pain		
Independent variables	β	Sig.	Standard error
Immigrant	-0.65		0.61
Sex	-0.19		0.32
Immigrant * Sex	0.11		0.68
RAD	-0.49		1.10
Marital status	0.86	***	0.31
Home language	-0.07		0.66
Visible minority	0.98	**	0.44
Age (18-24)	0.11		0.46
Age (25-34)	0.23		0.48
Age (45-54)	1.23	**	0.48
Age (55-64)	0.92	**	0.41
Less than high school	0.12		0.56
High school degree	0.03		0.55
College/vocational diploma	0.16		0.54
Graduate/professional degree	0.34		0.68
Government transfer payments	-0.06	***	0.02
GINI coefficient	-2.82		8.06
Constant	2.43		2.30
Pseudo R-squared	0.13		
N	2,586		

* $p < 0.10$; ** $p < 0.05$; *** $p < 0.01$; Reference group: Canadian-born, no disability, male, single, does not speak an official language at home, not visible minority, age (35-44), holds a bachelor's degree

Appendix H

Ordinary logistic regression results for the employment of Canadians with developmental disabilities

	Employment		
	Developmental		
Independent variables	β	Sig.	Standard error
Immigrant	-0.21		1.33
Sex	0.07		0.90
Immigrant * Sex	-1.99		1.76
RAD	-3.02		3.30
Marital status	0.67		1.42
Home language	omitted	n/a	
Visible minority	-1.31		0.92
Age (18-24)	-1.14	*	0.65
Age (25-34)	0.16		1.00
Age (45-54)	-0.32		1.29
Age (55-64)	omitted	n/a	
Less than high school	-2.64	**	1.30
High school degree	-2.42	*	1.28
College/vocational diploma	-3.04	**	1.23
Graduate/professional degree	-4.08	**	2.06
Government transfer payments	-0.07		0.06
GINI coefficient	44.19	**	18.48
Constant	-7.39		5.20
Pseudo R-squared	0.18		
N	199		

* $p < 0.10$; ** $p < 0.05$; *** $p < 0.01$; Reference group: Canadian-born, no disability, male, single, does not speak an official language at home, not visible minority, age (35-44), holds a bachelor's degree

Appendix I

Ordinary logistic regression results for the employment of Canadians with mental disabilities

	Employment		
	Mental		
Independent variables	β	Sig.	Standard error
Immigrant	0.05		0.76
Sex	0.13		0.37
Immigrant * Sex	0.12		0.85
RAD	-1.53		1.72
Marital status	0.96	**	0.42
Home language	0.27		0.62
Visible minority	0.50		0.53
Age (18-24)	0.13		0.47
Age (25-34)	0.67		0.54
Age (45-54)	1.28	**	0.59
Age (55-64)	0.84	*	0.47
Less than high school	-0.18		0.55
High school degree	-0.48		0.58
College/vocational diploma	-1.10	**	0.52
Graduate/professional degree	-0.20		0.83
Government transfer payments	-0.04	*	0.02
GINI coefficient	-5.41		10.72
Constant	3.41		3.08
Pseudo R-squared	0.14		
N	1,195		

* $p < 0.10$; ** $p < 0.05$; *** $p < 0.01$; Reference group: Canadian-born, no disability, male, single, does not speak an official language at home, not visible minority, age (35-44), holds a bachelor's degree

Appendix J

Ordinary logistic regression results for the employment of Canadians with seeing disabilities

	Employment		
	Seeing		
Independent variables	β	Sig.	Standard error
Immigrant	-0.42		0.85
Sex	0.39		0.53
Immigrant * Sex	0.69		1.15
RAD	-1.34		2.47
Marital status	0.78		0.51
Home language	-1.31		1.12
Visible minority	0.11		0.67
Age (18-24)	1.97	***	0.73
Age (25-34)	1.53	**	0.74
Age (45-54)	1.55	**	0.71
Age (55-64)	1.21	**	0.54
Less than high school	-0.26		1.10
High school degree	-0.41		0.86
College/vocational diploma	-1.53	*	0.84
Graduate/professional degree	-1.24		1.17
Government transfer payments	-0.11	**	0.05
GINI coefficient	5.50		15.52
Constant	1.71	*	4.45
Pseudo R-squared	0.29		
N	543		

* $p < 0.10$; ** $p < 0.05$; *** $p < 0.01$; Reference group: Canadian-born, no disability, male, single, does not speak an official language at home, not visible minority, age (35-44), holds a bachelor's degree

Appendix K

Multivariate regression results for the employment income of Canadians with dexterity disabilities

	Employment income		
	Dexterity		
Independent variables	β	Sig.	Standard error
Immigrant	-1.82		6.81
Sex	-9.49	***	3.62
Immigrant * Sex	-2.45		9.86
RAD	22.79		15.00
Marital status	0.29		3.58
Home language	-14.86	**	7.37
Visible minority	-0.09		8.16
Age (18-24)	-31.08	***	5.70
Age (25-34)	-6.41		4.65
Age (45-54)	3.29	*	5.50
Age (55-64)	-9.82	**	4.78
Less than high school	-29.70	***	8.93
High school degree	-31.39	***	9.00
College/vocational diploma	-27.73	***	8.33
Graduate/professional degree	-0.86		11.25
Government transfer payments	-1.24	***	0.34
GINI coefficient	106.19		109.73
Constant	48.40		32.02
R-squared	0.43		
N	426		

* $p < 0.10$; ** $p < 0.05$; *** $p < 0.01$; Reference group: Canadian-born, no disability, male, single, does not speak an official language at home, not visible minority, age (35-44), holds a bachelor's degree

Appendix L

Multivariate regression results for the employment income of Canadians with flexibility disabilities

	Employment income		
	Flexibility		
Independent variables	β	Sig.	Standard error
Immigrant	0.76		5.20
Sex	-12.38	***	2.80
Immigrant * Sex	6.40		5.83
RAD	13.66		15.37
Marital status	1.67		2.63
Home language	11.19	**	5.24
Visible minority	-6.02		4.54
Age (18-24)	-23.43	***	3.07
Age (25-34)	-9.37	***	3.27
Age (45-54)	-0.05		3.28
Age (55-64)	0.25		3.25
Less than high school	-29.99	***	4.97
High school degree	-25.40	***	4.38
College/vocational diploma	-23.92	***	4.25
Graduate/professional degree	7.89		7.09
Government transfer payments	-1.15	***	0.15
GINI coefficient	162.69		101.32
Constant	6.48		27.90
R-squared	0.29		
N	1263		

* $p < 0.10$; ** $p < 0.05$; *** $p < 0.01$; Reference group: Canadian-born, no disability, male, single, does not speak an official language at home, not visible minority, age (35-44), holds a bachelor's degree

Appendix M

Multivariate regression results for the employment income of Canadians with hearing disabilities

	Employment income		
	Hearing		
Independent variables	β	Sig.	Standard error
Immigrant	3.68		7.90
Sex	-9.58	**	4.32
Immigrant * Sex	13.01		10.39
RAD	-10.80		20.75
Marital status	5.17		5.00
Home language	5.29		6.99
Visible minority	-17.97	**	7.05
Age (18-24)	-29.79	***	6.46
Age (25-34)	-14.81	***	4.96
Age (45-54)	4.98		4.94
Age (55-64)	-9.38	**	4.53
Less than high school	-30.20	***	7.41
High school degree	-21.20	***	7.71
College/vocational diploma	-17.95	**	7.51
Graduate/professional degree	26.21	**	12.92
Government transfer payments	-1.69	***	0.31
GINI coefficient	413.97	***	140.60
Constant	-54.77		39.39
R-squared	0.40		
N	619		

* $p < 0.10$; ** $p < 0.05$; *** $p < 0.01$; Reference group: Canadian-born, no disability, male, single, does not speak an official language at home, not visible minority, age (35-44), holds a bachelor's degree

Appendix N

Multivariate regression results for the employment income of Canadians with learning disabilities

	Employment income		
	Learning		
Independent variables	β	Sig.	Standard error
Immigrant	-9.18		17.98
Sex	-6.09		4.70
Immigrant * Sex	8.54		21.30
RAD	37.77	**	18.40
Marital status	11.58	**	5.87
Home language	4.51		10.13
Visible minority	1.59		8.24
Age (18-24)	-20.20	***	4.47
Age (25-34)	-8.78	**	4.47
Age (45-54)	3.38		6.90
Age (55-64)	15.50		15.40
Less than high school	-4.01		5.89
High school degree	-1.61		6.19
College/vocational diploma	-0.04		6.32
Graduate/professional degree	47.14		30.49
Government transfer payments	-1.39	***	0.24
GINI coefficient	182.92		223.58
Constant	-39.21		58.43
R-squared	0.33		
N	544		

* $p < 0.10$; ** $p < 0.05$; *** $p < 0.01$; Reference group: Canadian-born, no disability, male, single, does not speak an official language at home, not visible minority, age (35-44), holds a bachelor's degree

Appendix O

Multivariate regression results for the employment income of Canadians with memory disabilities

	Employment income		
	Memory		
Independent variables	β	Sig.	Standard error
Immigrant	-8.36		22.40
Sex	-6.64		7.82
Immigrant * Sex	15.11		21.13
RAD	11.72		22.51
Marital status	6.98		5.24
Home language	7.05		15.17
Visible minority	-5.23		11.63
Age (18-24)	-24.87	***	5.71
Age (25-34)	-14.55	**	6.81
Age (45-54)	-4.22	*	7.07
Age (55-64)	-0.78		10.73
Less than high school	-1.26		7.48
High school degree	0.11		6.92
College/vocational diploma	-3.73		7.01
Graduate/professional degree	59.55		39.11
Government transfer payments	-0.99	***	0.23
GINI coefficient	503.58		322.13
Constant	-123.51		94.38
R-squared	0.27		
N	370		

* $p < 0.10$; ** $p < 0.05$; *** $p < 0.01$; Reference group: Canadian-born, no disability, male, single, does not speak an official language at home, not visible minority, age (35-44), holds a bachelor's degree

Appendix P

Multivariate regression results for the employment income of Canadians with mobility disabilities

	Employment income		
	Mobility		
Independent variables	β	Sig.	Standard error
Immigrant	0.80		5.37
Sex	-9.79	***	3.52
Immigrant * Sex	2.37		5.49
RAD	15.36		14.86
Marital status	1.79		2.92
Home language	9.76	*	5.32
Visible minority	-7.62		4.92
Age (18-24)	-19.56	***	4.55
Age (25-34)	-11.74	***	4.01
Age (45-54)	5.77		3.98
Age (55-64)	-2.51	*	4.21
Less than high school	-26.39	***	6.24
High school degree	-23.02	***	6.15
College/vocational diploma	-20.87	***	6.24
Graduate/professional degree	0.86		8.81
Government transfer payments	-1.24	***	0.17
GINI coefficient	193.05	*	110.37
Constant	-7.73		30.65
R-squared	0.29		
N	992		

* $p < 0.10$; ** $p < 0.05$; *** $p < 0.01$; Reference group: Canadian-born, no disability, male, single, does not speak an official language at home, not visible minority, age (35-44), holds a bachelor's degree

Appendix Q

Multivariate regression results for the employment income of Canadians with pain disabilities

	Employment income		
	Pain		
Independent variables	β	Sig.	Standard error
Immigrant	-5.76		4.91
Sex	-13.89	***	2.55
Immigrant * Sex	10.39	**	4.83
RAD	23.01	**	10.42
Marital status	-1.14		2.34
Home language	7.29		4.84
Visible minority	-5.16		3.30
Age (18-24)	-27.76	***	2.96
Age (25-34)	-13.84	***	2.53
Age (45-54)	0.29		2.58
Age (55-64)	-3.40		3.34
Less than high school	-27.71	***	3.69
High school degree	-27.44	***	3.45
College/vocational diploma	-22.44	***	3.47
Graduate/professional degree	13.32	*	7.40
Government transfer payments	-1.33	***	0.14
GINI coefficient	212.59	***	75.92
Constant	-3.50		22.07
R-squared	0.30		
N	2283		

* $p < 0.10$; ** $p < 0.05$; *** $p < 0.01$; Reference group: Canadian-born, no disability, male, single, does not speak an official language at home, not visible minority, age (35-44), holds a bachelor's degree

Appendix R

Multivariate regression results for the employment income of Canadians with developmental disabilities

	Employment income Developmental		
Independent variables	β	Sig.	Standard error
Immigrant	-1.04		12.75
Sex	-7.51		6.06
Immigrant * Sex	-3.49		13.05
RAD	33.98		26.71
Marital status	3.31		11.82
Home language	2.67		11.07
Visible minority	-2.65		5.10
Age (18-24)	-12.36	**	6.15
Age (25-34)	0.39		6.02
Age (45-54)	18.59	*	10.56
Age (55-64)	45.41	***	14.21
Less than high school	5.29		7.78
High school degree	-0.29		7.89
College/vocational diploma	23.22	**	10.34
Graduate/professional degree	73.84	***	11.75
Government transfer payments	-1.58	***	0.39
GINI coefficient	500.13	***	185.97
Constant	-147.93	**	63.20
R-squared	0.59		
N	161		

* $p < 0.10$; ** $p < 0.05$; *** $p < 0.01$; Reference group: Canadian-born, no disability, male, single, does not speak an official language at home, not visible minority, age (35-44), holds a bachelor's degree

Appendix S

Multivariate regression results for the employment income of Canadians with mental disabilities

	Employment income		
	Mental		
Independent variables	β	Sig.	Standard error
Immigrant	-3.33		9.09
Sex	-7.70	*	4.14
Immigrant * Sex	0.72		7.38
RAD	34.52	**	16.03
Marital status	3.31		3.75
Home language	-0.93		7.34
Visible minority	-7.48	*	4.32
Age (18-24)	-22.79	***	3.57
Age (25-34)	-10.23	***	3.55
Age (45-54)	2.59		4.47
Age (55-64)	5.18		5.54
Less than high school	-13.23	***	5.02
High school degree	-12.63	***	4.87
College/vocational diploma	-13.78	***	4.55
Graduate/professional degree	28.43	*	15.37
Government transfer payments	-1.09	***	0.17
GINI coefficient	122.40		148.95
Constant	1.67		40.38
R-squared	0.28		
N	993		

* $p < 0.10$; ** $p < 0.05$; *** $p < 0.01$; Reference group: Canadian-born, no disability, male, single, does not speak an official language at home, not visible minority, age (35-44), holds a bachelor's degree

Appendix T

Multivariate regression results for the employment income of Canadians with seeing disabilities

	Employment income		
	Seeing		
Independent variables	β	Sig.	Standard error
Immigrant	-5.58		12.51
Sex	-17.91	***	5.70
Immigrant * Sex	9.19		9.93
RAD	48.15	*	27.49
Marital status	6.43		4.97
Home language	11.07		7.17
Visible minority	-9.81		8.34
Age (18-24)	-21.31	***	5.79
Age (25-34)	-13.51	**	5.33
Age (45-54)	2.04		4.30
Age (55-64)	9.19		6.77
Less than high school	-34.96	***	7.41
High school degree	-23.88	***	7.43
College/vocational diploma	-24.77	***	6.42
Graduate/professional degree	28.89		26.22
Government transfer payments	-1.22	***	0.36
GINI coefficient	269.75		227.11
Constant	-43.28		64.49
R-squared	0.31		
N	472		

* $p < 0.10$; ** $p < 0.05$; *** $p < 0.01$; Reference group: Canadian-born, no disability, male, single, does not speak an official language at home, not visible minority, age (35-44), holds a bachelor's degree

Appendix U

Ordinary logistic regression results for the employment of South Asian respondents

	Employment South Asian Total		
Independent variables	β	Sig.	Standard error
Immigrant	-0.17		0.32
Disability	0.52		0.76
Immigrant * Disability	-1.19		0.90
RAD	-0.61		1.96
Sex	-0.33		0.23
Marital status	0.06		0.36
Home language	0.26		0.25
Age (18-24)	-1.67	***	0.42
Age (25-34)	0.24		0.40
Age (45-54)	-0.67	*	0.37
Age (55-64)	-0.67		0.48
Less than high school	-0.63		1.23
High school degree	-0.67	**	1.08
College/vocational diploma	-0.22		1.03
Graduate/professional degree	-0.68	*	1.97
Government transfer payments	-0.12	***	0.02
GINI coefficient	21.53		14.38
Constant	-2.67		4.57
R-squared	0.11		
N	1,802		

* $p < 0.10$; ** $p < 0.05$; *** $p < 0.01$

Reference group: Canadian-born, no disability, male, single, does not speak an official language at home, age (35-44), holds a bachelor's degree

Appendix V

Ordinary logistic regression results for the employment of Chinese respondents

	Employment		
	Chinese		
	Total		
Independent variables	β	Sig.	Standard error
Immigrant	0.14		0.27
Disability	3.93	***	1.19
Immigrant * Disability	-3.93	**	1.36
RAD	-1.59		2.21
Sex	-0.17		0.26
Marital status	1.06	**	0.37
Home language	0.83	***	0.03
Age (18-24)	-0.75		0.53
Age (25-34)	-0.47		0.49
Age (45-54)	-0.31		0.51
Age (55-64)	-0.05		0.59
Less than high school	-0.52		0.61
High school degree	-0.53		0.35
College/vocational diploma	-0.61	*	0.31
Graduate/professional degree	-0.59		0.43
Government transfer payments	-0.13	***	0.02
GINI coefficient	10.57		14.81
Constant	0.04		4.60
R-squared	0.11		
N	1,826		

* $p < 0.10$; ** $p < 0.05$; *** $p < 0.01$

Reference group: Canadian-born, no disability, male, single, does not speak an official language at home, age (35-44), holds a bachelor's degree

Appendix W

Ordinary logistic regression results for the employment of Black respondents

	Employment		
	Black		
	Total		
Independent variables	β	Sig.	Standard error
Immigrant	0.05		0.36
Disability	0.04		0.73
Immigrant * Disability	0.67		1.74
RAD	-3.85	*	2.33
Sex	0.28		0.32
Marital status	-0.14		0.37
Home language	0.09		0.42
Age (18-24)	-1.22	**	0.50
Age (25-34)	-0.03		0.44
Age (45-54)	0.51		0.47
Age (55-64)	0.79		0.61
Less than high school	-0.44		0.65
High school degree	0.02		0.55
College/vocational diploma	-0.18		0.55
Graduate/professional degree	-0.97		0.65
Government transfer payments	-0.08	*	0.02
GINI coefficient	14.01		12.41
Constant	0.04		3.66
R-squared	0.10		
N	974		

* $p < 0.10$; ** $p < 0.05$; *** $p < 0.01$

Reference group: Canadian-born, no disability, male, single, does not speak an official language at home, age (35-44), holds a bachelor's degree

Appendix X

Multivariate regression results for the employment income of South Asian respondents

	Employment income		
	South Asian		
	Total		
Independent variables	β	Sig.	Standard error
Immigrant	-5.13		4.69
Disability	-8.80		7.92
Immigrant * Disability	-1.25		8.60
RAD	-6.11		23.39
Sex	-5.27	**	2.56
Marital status	2.23		4.10
Home language	13.85	***	2.51
Age (18-24)	-36.64	***	4.34
Age (25-34)	-12.08	***	3.92
Age (45-54)	-5.69		3.54
Age (55-64)	-5.20		4.51
Less than high school	-11.88	*	6.21
High school degree	-13.38	***	2.90
College/vocational diploma	-7.84	**	3.04
Graduate/professional degree	7.76		5.27
Government transfer payments	-2.56	***	0.33
GINI coefficient	492.92	***	145.60
Constant	-89.92		42.90
R-squared	0.24		
N	1,616		

* $p < 0.10$; ** $p < 0.05$; *** $p < 0.01$

Reference group: Canadian-born, no disability, male, single, does not speak an official language at home, age (35-44), holds a bachelor's degree

Appendix Y

Multivariate regression results for the employment income of Chinese respondents

	Employment income		
	Chinese		
	Total		
Independent variables	β	Sig.	Standard error
Immigrant	-0.16		3.10
Disability	3.64		7.30
Immigrant * Disability	-7.71		9.00
RAD	-69.54	**	33.01
Sex	-8.11	**	2.71
Marital status	3.28		3.52
Home language	10.41	***	3.10
Age (18-24)	-31.25	***	4.65
Age (25-34)	-14.24	***	4.22
Age (45-54)	3.37		4.21
Age (55-64)	5.12		5.54
Less than high school	-23.34	***	5.07
High school degree	-20.35	***	3.23
College/vocational diploma	-12.84	***	3.31
Graduate/professional degree	13.95	***	5.25
Government transfer payments	-2.28	***	0.49
GINI coefficient	206.97		170.56
Constant	-89.92		55.68
R-squared	0.26		
N	1,647		

* $p < 0.10$; ** $p < 0.05$; *** $p < 0.01$

Reference group: Canadian-born, no disability, male, single, does not speak an official language at home, age (35-44), holds a bachelor's degree

Appendix Z

Multivariate regression results for the employment income of Black respondents

	Employment income		
	Black		
	Total		
Independent variables	β	Sig.	Standard error
Immigrant	-8.10		5.27
Disability	0.14		4.88
Immigrant * Disability	-2.17		8.07
RAD	12.02		22.84
Sex	-9.23	**	2.96
Marital status	1.73		3.79
Home language	0.10		5.62
Age (18-24)	-24.39	***	5.04
Age (25-34)	-9.99	**	4.22
Age (45-54)	1.37		4.87
Age (55-64)	12.77	*	6.79
Less than high school	-22.13	***	4.79
High school degree	-18.28	***	4.35
College/vocational diploma	-9.04	**	4.11
Graduate/professional degree	16.03		10.17
Government transfer payments	-1.47	***	0.25
GINI coefficient	284.65	*	149.87
Constant	-29.98		42.63
R-squared	0.26		
N	829		

* $p < 0.10$; ** $p < 0.05$; *** $p < 0.01$

Reference group: Canadian-born, no disability, male, single, does not speak an official language at home, age (35-44), holds a bachelor's degree

Appendix AA

Ordinary logistic regression results for the employment of the respondents who are at or above low income cut-off

	Employment Above LICO Total		
Independent variables	β	Sig.	Standard error
Immigrant	-0.36	**	0.13
Disability	-0.56	**	0.21
Immigrant * Disability	0.80	*	0.41
RAD	-0.19		0.38
Sex	0.13	*	0.08
Marital status	0.34	***	0.10
Home language	0.09		0.13
Visible minority	-0.16		0.12
Age (18-24)	-1.20	***	0.15
Age (25-34)	-0.02		0.14
Age (45-54)	-0.11		0.15
Age (55-64)	-0.16		0.16
Less than high school	-0.88	***	0.17
High school degree	-0.56	***	0.12
College/vocational diploma	-0.29	**	0.12
Graduate/professional degree	-0.34	**	0.15
Government transfer payments	-0.10	***	0.01
GINI coefficient	-5.48	**	2.62
Constant	5.33	***	0.76
R-squared	0.08		
N	48,344		

* $p < 0.10$; ** $p < 0.05$; *** $p < 0.01$

Reference group: Canadian-born, no disability, male, single, does not speak an official language at home, not visible minority, age (35-44), holds a bachelor's degree

Appendix BB

Ordinary logistic regression results for the employment of the respondents who are below low income cut-off

	Employment Below LICO Total		
Independent variables	β	Sig.	Standard error
Immigrant	0.12		0.26
Disability	-1.19	***	0.35
Immigrant * Disability	0.64		0.67
RAD	0.34		0.90
Sex	0.34	**	0.16
Marital status	0.14		0.27
Home language	-0.10		0.27
Visible minority	-0.54	**	0.22
Age (18-24)	-0.10		0.28
Age (25-34)	0.13		0.30
Age (45-54)	0.25		0.29
Age (55-64)	0.13		0.33
Less than high school	-0.11		0.30
High school degree	-0.03		0.24
College/vocational diploma	-0.15		0.25
Graduate/professional degree	-0.37		0.34
Government transfer payments	-0.09	***	0.02
GINI coefficient	5.05		7.20
Constant	-0.08		2.09
R-squared	0.06		
N	2,819		

* $p < 0.10$; ** $p < 0.05$; *** $p < 0.01$

Reference group: Canadian-born, no disability, male, single, does not speak an official language at home, not visible minority, age (35-44), holds a bachelor's degree

Appendix CC

Multivariate regression results for the employment income of the respondents who are at or above low income cut-off

	Employment income Above LICO Total		
Independent variables	β	Sig.	Standard error
Immigrant	-2.95	**	1.47
Disability	-7.01	***	1.19
Immigrant * Disability	3.81		2.48
RAD	10.86	**	3.46
Sex	-15.53	***	0.68
Marital status	4.77	***	0.82
Home language	11.74	***	1.31
Visible minority	-6.83	***	1.22
Age (18-24)	-31.64	***	0.95
Age (25-34)	-12.28	***	0.95
Age (45-54)	3.58	**	1.15
Age (55-64)	0.09		1.28
Less than high school	-26.90	***	1.29
High school degree	-22.93	***	1.15
College/vocational diploma	-15.50	***	1.09
Graduate/professional degree	13.02	***	2.01
Government transfer payments	-2.05	***	0.07
GINI coefficient	337.25	***	24.88
Constant	-39.17	***	7.19
R-squared	0.23		
N	44,987		

* $p < 0.10$; ** $p < 0.05$; *** $p < 0.01$

Reference group: Canadian-born, no disability, male, single, does not speak an official language at home, not visible minority, age (35-44), holds a bachelor's degree

Appendix DD

Multivariate regression results for the employment income of the respondents who are below low income cut-off

	Employment income Below LICO Total		
Independent variables	β	Sig.	Standard error
Immigrant	-0.05		0.71
Disability	0.21		0.76
Immigrant * Disability	-2.33		2.13
RAD	2.69		2.91
Sex	-0.80		0.57
Marital status	1.55	**	0.73
Home language	-0.09		0.90
Visible minority	0.72		0.70
Age (18-24)	-0.92		0.88
Age (25-34)	-0.31		0.80
Age (45-54)	0.02		0.91
Age (55-64)	0.64		1.79
Less than high school	-0.97		1.28
High school degree	-0.25		0.88
College/vocational diploma	-0.11		0.91
Graduate/professional degree	-0.36		1.19
Government transfer payments	-0.29	***	0.06
GINI coefficient	-20.92		25.73
Constant	15.11	*	7.91
R-squared	0.05		
N	2,070		

* $p < 0.10$; ** $p < 0.05$; *** $p < 0.01$

Reference group: Canadian-born, no disability, male, single, does not speak an official language at home, not visible minority, age (35-44), holds a bachelor's degree