Working Part-Time: Earnings Penalties Among People with Disabilities Across Occupational Groups in France

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ABSTRACT

Although part-time work can provide important accommodations and flexibility for people with disabilities, the rise of contingent labor has left many of these workers in lower-paid jobs that are often associated with manual labor or routine service work. Why do people with disabilities work part-time? What are the benefits and drawbacks of part-time work, and do these vary across occupations? Using data from the 2013–2019 French Labor Force Survey ($N = 122{,}033$), we find that people with disabilities are more likely to work part-time across occupations, citing health reasons or the lack of full-time work opportunities. These higher rates of part-time work contribute to disability-related earnings gaps, but even among part-time workers, people with disabilities earn less than those without disabilities and experience wage penalties that can vary across occupations. By focusing on the reasons for part-time work and its effects across occupational groups, our analysis highlights structural factors—beyond disability status—that shape employment outcomes and are not fully addressed by equal pay policies for part- and full-time workers.

KEYWORDS

Disability; gender; income inequality; part-time work; occupations

Introduction

Across the European Union (EU), approximately 17% of workers were employed part-time in 2023, working less than 35 hours per week for a range of reasons (Eurostat 2023a). Some individuals seek out part-time work for its flexibility and shorter hours, which is why it is often considered "voluntary" rather than "involuntary" (Webber and Williams 2008b). For instance, women often work part-time to help balance childcare demands (Pech, Klainot-Hess, and Norris 2021). Similarly, for many people with disabilities, part-time work serves as a form of accommodation allowing for greater flexibility and control over scheduling (Hotchkiss 2004; Pagán 2007; Vedeler and Høj Anvik 2020). Many other individuals, however, work part-time hours because they are unable to secure suitable full-time positions—a situation that Pech, Klainot-Hess, and Norris (2021) find disproportionately affects women. In a similar vein, disabilities or health conditions may force workers into part-time work when they do not receive adequate accommodations in full-time jobs (Jette and Badley 2002). When members of marginalized groups work part-time only because they face additional structural and attitudinal barriers in full-time work, this creates ambivalence around the term "voluntary" (Bardasi and Gornick 2008; Webber and Williams 2008a).

Researchers often question the voluntary nature of part-time work because, across different national contexts, the disadvantages of part-time work tend to outweigh any potential advantages (Horemans, Marx, and Nolan 2016). The so-called flexibility offered by part-time jobs does not necessarily alleviate work-life conflicts or add more control over scheduling (Kincaid and Reynolds 2024). Moreover, while part-time work is associated with wage penalties, some studies suggest that involuntary part-time workers face greater disadvantages (Horemans, Marx, and Nolan 2016; Maestripieri 2023) compared to those who voluntarily seek out part-time work and who often have other sources of income. However, few surveys differentiate between voluntary and involuntary part-time employment, nor do they consider the reasons behind taking on part-time work.

In addition to workers' different reasons for engaging in part-time employment, working conditions also vary across occupations (Eurostat 2023a). This variation is partly driven by differences in industry and employer demand for cheaper, more flexible labor (Fernández-Kranz and Rodriguez-Planas 2011). Although some professional or managerial positions offer well-paying part-time work, most part-time jobs are clustered in certain segments of the labor market associated with routine non-manual and semi-skilled and unskilled work—often consisting of low pay with poor compensation packages (Kalleberg 2000; Warren 2015). Additionally, occupational segregation by social status groups intersects with self-selection dynamics, helping to explain why women are overrepresented in the part-time labor force in almost all national contexts (Briard 2019; Webber and Williams 2008a) and why part-time work is also more common among individuals with disabilities (Eurostat 2014).

Extant research suggests a need to better understand the reasons why individuals from different groups work part-time while situating part-time work within broader occupational contexts. Building on previous research, this study examines experiences of voluntary and involuntary part-time work across occupational groups with a focus on people with disabilities in France. People with disabilities tend to experience greater unemployment and, when they do work, earn less than similarly situated people without disabilities (Bouchet 2021; Maroto, Pettinicchio, and Patterson 2019). They are also more likely to require accommodations and flexibility at work, which, for some, might make part-time work more attractive, especially in occupations with limited scheduling autonomy.

We therefore address the following questions: How do rates of and reasons for employment in part-time work vary by disability status? How does the prevalence of part-time work vary by occupational groups, shaping the likelihood of part-time work for people with disabilities? To what extent do part-time workers with disabilities experience lower earnings compared to part-time workers without disabilities? How does this variation contribute to occupation-based disability wage gaps?

We analyze pooled 2013–2019 data from the French Labor Force Survey ($N = 122{,}033$) with a focus on variation across occupations. Drawing from Connelly, Gayle, and Lambert's (2016) occupational grouping scheme based on Erikson and Goldthorpe (1992), we consider the extent to which the disadvantages of working part-time for people with disabilities vary across six occupational groups—higher-grade service (I), lower-grade service (II), higher-grade routine non-manual employees (IIIa), lower-grade routine non-manual employees (IIIb), lower-grade technicians and skilled manual employees (V + VI), and unskilled manual workers (VIIab). This allows us to provide a better understanding of how larger structural and occupational factors might influence employment outcomes for people with disabilities.

We find that rates of part-time work were much higher for people with disabilities across all major occupational groups, but these were highest in lower-grade, non-manual employment. In addition, compared to individuals without disabilities, people with disabilities were much more likely to report being in part-time work for health reasons or because full-time positions were not available. Part-time workers with disabilities also faced additional wage penalties across occupations. After controlling for key demographic and work variables, wage penalties followed a gradient with moderate disability wage penalties for higher-grade routine non-manual employees (IIIa) and larger penalties for lower-grade routine non-manual employees (IIIb), lower-grade technicians and skilled manual workers (V + VI) and unskilled manual workers (VIIab). These positions are characterized by poorer working conditions and demands for high productivity (Jaehrling and Méhaut 2013), implying less security and autonomy over scheduling (Ganault 2020).

Our findings shed light on the prevalence and impact of part-time work across different occupations on an already economically precarious group often thought to self-select into part-time positions. Contrary to the idea that wage gaps between people with and without disabilities are primarily due to the overrepresentation of the former in part-time jobs, we show that disability-related inequalities exist even among part-time workers, and they are especially pronounced for individuals in certain occupational groups. Our results shed light on how certain forms of part-time work are more normative than others, particularly in low-paid occupations such as lower-grade routine non-manual jobs and skilled or unskilled manual work, contributing to wage gaps.

Inequalities in Part-Time Work and Occupational Segregation

The prevalence of part-time work varies across Europe, reflecting different economic, social, and policy contexts (Miežienė, Krutulienė, and Gruževskis 2021; Pettinicchio and Maroto 2024). In 2023, Austria had the largest number of part-time workers, with several continental and Scandinavian countries also reporting large numbers. Bulgaria, Romania and Croatia had some of the lowest rates. Among these countries, France, the focus of this study, is close to the EU average with 16.6% of its workers being part-time (Eurostat 2024).

Part-time work, which often involves lower-paying jobs (Rubery, Smith, and Fagan 1998), is also unequally distributed across groups. In particular, women, racial and ethnic minorities, and people with disabilities tend to be overrepresented in part-time work (Eurostat 2024; Horemans, Marx, and Nolan 2016; Mumtaz, Roscigno, and Sobering 2025; Schur 2003; Tilly 1996). They are also more likely to work in occupations that are often associated with seasonal or fixed-term employment (Kretsos and Livanos 2016; Vosko 2000). Women, specifically, tend to be clustered in undervalued occupations and jobs with few full-time opportunities (Pech, Klainot-Hess, and Norris 2021). Men from ethnic minority groups and men with disabilities are also overrepresented in low-level women-dominated work (Woodhams, Lupton, and Cowling 2015a).

This occupational segregation leaves many groups in work that is part-time, precarious, and low-paid. Theories of gendered occupational segregation suggest that certain jobs are devalued because of the status groups who work in them (Cohen and Huffman 2003), especially in low-skilled occupations (Li 2023). In addition, societal perceptions about gender-appropriate jobs—along with educational disadvantages and early socialization—contribute to the concentration of women in certain roles. Similar stereotypes, combined with economic necessity and discrimination, also shape the over-representation of other disadvantaged groups in specific occupations, including people with disabilities whose work is often devalued in the labor market (Woodhams, Lupton, and Cowling 2015a; Maroto and Pettinicchio 2014).

Disability and Part-Time Work

Across national contexts, employment in part-time and nonstandard work has grown for people with disabilities since the 1990s. In 2022, one out of ten French part-time workers stated that the main reason for their part-time work involved illness or disability, compared to 1 out of 16 in 2013 (Eurostat 2023b). This growth is likely a combination of both employer demands and supply-side worker practices (Hotchkiss 2004; Jones 2008; Schur 2003). Variation is also evident across occupations reflecting different types of work and the employment of people with disabilities in these different jobs (Collet and Lhommeau 2022; Kessler Foundation and National Organization on Disability 2010; Maroto and Pettinicchio 2014).

Demand-side explanations for the prevalence of part-time work may account for employers' reluctancy to hire full-time workers with disabilities due to job specific preferences, job requirements, and certain attitudes and beliefs. One of the most cited concerns in hiring a person with disabilities is "the nature of the work" or job demands (Kessler Foundation and National Organization on Disability 2010). Construction, manufacturing, and retail are most likely to cite challenges while financial, professional, and information service industries are least likely even though more than half of employers in these latter occupations still cite those concerns.

Supply-side factors also account for overrepresentation in part-time jobs. People with disabilities often face barriers to obtaining important skills and education, which in turn affects job choices (Blanck et al. 2007) and could preclude people from entering full-time jobs. Some people with disabilities require more time off from their jobs for health-related reasons and they are less able to work for continuous periods of time (Foster and Wass 2012). Moreover, many workers experiencing barriers to full-time employment, especially in the absence of adequate employment and income supports, have no choice but to participate in contingent labor or face total exclusion from the labor market (Anxo et al. 2007).

People with disabilities disproportionately occupy part-time positions and part-time positions are more prominent in some occupations than in others (Maroto and Pettinicchio 2014). In France, people with disabilities are underrepresented in the higher-grade and lower-grade service classes and overrepresented in manual or non-manual routine employment (Collet and Lhommeau 2022). These jobs are often held on a part-time basis and are typically low paying (Briard 2019). Given their different representation across occupations, *we expect that workers with disabilities in France will have higher rates of part-time work (Hypothesis 1a), and these rates will vary by occupational groups based on Erikson and Goldthorpe's (1992) and Connelly, Gayle, and Lambert's (2016) occupational classifications (Hypothesis 1b).*

"Involuntary" and "Voluntary" Part-Time Work

An important debate around part-time work and labor market inequality involves whether workers choose to take part-time jobs (Fagan et al. 2014). Although France's overall rate of part-time work is similar to the European average, the share of involuntary part-time workers is higher in France than in other European countries. In 2022, over one quarter of part-time workers in France reported working part-time because they could not find full-time employment compared to one fifth of all part-time workers in the EU (Eurostat 2023a). Sometimes, however, part-time work can be viewed as an opportunity for marginalized groups to engage with the labor market. Using CPS data, Hotchkiss (2004) showed that workers with disabilities found part-time work attractive because they may otherwise not work at all. Similarly, using data from the European Community Household Panel for the period 1995–2001, Pagán (2007) found that workers with disabilities preferred part-time work because it is treated as an accommodation. In these cases, part-time work may genuinely offer employment opportunities, better working conditions, and needed workplace accommodations, flexibility, and accessibility—provided that sufficient effort is made to support and integrate part-time workers into the workplace by ensuring equal access and implementing universal design principals (Vedeler and Høj Anvik 2020).

Yet, what is considered "voluntary" part-time work may not always reflect a genuine preference for such work. Existing research on gender and part-time work highlights structural constraints influencing the "choice" of part-time work (Hakim 1995; Walters 2005). Many women engage in part-time employment to manage the workloads created by child and family care obligations (Acker 1990). The characteristics of many women-dominated occupations also create challenges to finding full-time work. Women employed in care work tend to have unpredictable schedules and struggle to secure full-time hours, and thus are forced to work fewer hours which also negatively affects their income (Pech, Klainot-Hess, and Norris 2021).

Similarly, people with disabilities may not fit the model of the "ideal worker" expected to work long shifts leading them to choose so-called voluntary part-time work (Foster and Wass 2012). Many workers with disabilities who are unable to secure jobs that provide adequate supports involuntarily turn to more precarious part-time jobs with few benefits and where they earn less, contributing to income inequality and lower economic wellbeing (Vedeler and Høj Anvik 2020). Thus, factors beyond individual impairment linked to work environments and often weak accommodation efforts contribute to taking on so-called "voluntary" part-time work (Jette and Badley 2002).

We therefore expect that workers with disabilities will be more likely than those without disabilities to report employment in both involuntary part-time work due to lack of access to full-time employment and in so-called "voluntary" part-time work for health-related reasons (Hypothesis 2).

The Effects of Part-Time Work on Disability Earnings

When people with disabilities work, they generally earn less than similarly situated people with disabilities. For instance, a study based on a large UK company found pay penalties of 12% for people with disabilities—similar to those faced by women and twice as high as those experienced by ethnic minorities (Woodhams, Lupton, and Cowling 2015b). These disparities persist even after accounting for differences in age, education, and work hours (Bouchet 2021; Gunderson and Lee 2016; Kruse et al. 2017).

The effects of part-time work on earnings may be experienced differently by women, older people, migrants, and people with disabilities who are usually more likely to be employed precariously across national contexts (Green and Livanos 2017; Kretsos and Livanos 2016; Miežienė, Krutulienė, and Gruževskis 2021). Although part-time work is often associated with a pay penalty (Nightingale 2019), most research on the disability pay gap does not distinguish between full-time and part-time employment. Rather, studies typically control for only the number of hours worked as a contributing factor to wage inequality and as a potentially discriminatory practice which limits earnings (Bouchet 2021; Gunderson and Lee 2016).

A handful of studies address how part-time work might specifically affect the economic well-being of workers with disabilities. These emphasize how the concentration of people with disabilities in part-time employment leaves them with lower hourly wages and fewer benefits than full-time workers (Schur 2003). Part-time work can contribute to economic insecurity and in-work poverty if individuals are working fewer hours and getting paid lower wages (Horemans, Marx, and Nolan 2016). Across Europe, working fewer hours is an important contributor to economic precarity and in-work poverty among people with disabilities even when disability cash benefits mitigate some of part-time work's negative effects on earnings (Mussida and Sciulli 2024).

In some countries, including France, disability and social welfare benefits can supplement earned income, provided that personal or household income remains below specific thresholds, which are adjusted annually for inflation. However, this situation is relatively rare, as the eligibility criteria are highly restrictive. In 2013, only 18% of recipients of the adult disability allowance (*Allocation aux Adultes Handicapés*, AAH) were employed, most often in sheltered workshops not covered by the labor code (Remila 2017). Moreover, for employed individuals, disability and social welfare benefits decrease as earned income increases.[1] Overall, these benefits do not fully compensate for the gap in earned income: the average monthly disposable income per person is €1,747 for households with a working-age person with disabilities, compared to €2,175 for other households (Drees 2024).

The disability earnings gap is also partly explained by occupational segregation—the disproportionate concentration of workers with disabilities in lower-skill, lower-paying occupations offering greater part-time and nonstandard work positions. For example, Maroto and Pettinicchio (2014) found that people with cognitive disabilities were more likely than other workers to be employed in food preparation and service occupations where the average annual earnings are less than half the average across all occupations. This type of occupational segregation contributes to wage inequality and suggests that employment in occupations with more part-time work positions could have a negative effect on earnings (Pech, Klainot-Hess, and Norris 2021). *We therefore expect that part-time workers with disabilities will earn less than part-time workers without disabilities (Hypothesis 3). We also expect that the magnitude of the disability wage gap will vary by occupation, with proportionally larger wage gaps in occupations such as unskilled manual work or lower-grade routine non-manual occupations, where the quality of part-time jobs is low (Hypothesis 4).*

Methods

Data

We analyze data from the 2013–2019 waves of the French Labor Force Survey conducted by the French Statistical Institute (Institut national de la statistique et des études économiques). As the French counterpart to the European Labor Force Survey (LFS), the survey covers households with people aged 15–89 with each household surveyed for six consecutive quarters and one-sixth of the sample renewed each quarter. The dataset includes information on employment status, occupation, working conditions, disability status and other demographic characteristics.

We begin our analysis in 2013 when the survey added a question on disability status. Our analysis ends in 2019 before the survey revised the questionnaire. Our first sample includes working-age individuals (15–64 years old, following the ILO standard) with paid employment who completed full questionnaires for the variables of interest (*i.e.*, occupation, monthly wages, or employer). We exclude self-employed persons and agricultural workers. We use this first sample ($N = 122{,}033$) to calculate the share of part-time work by occupational groups and the relative risks of working part-time compared to working full-time. We use a sub-sample of these data restricted to part-time workers ($N = 24{,}459$) for our analysis of earnings.

Measures

We treat part-time work as a binary variable of full-time or part-time status for our descriptive analyses of overall rates of part-time work by occupational groups. Typically, in France, full-time is defined as working at least 35 hours per week, 151.67 hours per month, or 1,607 hours per year. Our first outcome of interest relates to *self-reported reasons for working part-time*. We coded this variable into four categories: full-time worker (referent), part-time due to the unavailability of full-time work, part-time for health reasons, and all other reasons, such as caring for children or a dependent person, pursuing training, or wanting free time, grouped under "other." This variable is then included as a control variable in the second part of the analysis.

Notably, certain structural factors associated with disability can limit the flexibility of part-time work initiated by individuals, potentially blurring the distinction between "voluntary" and "involuntary" work arrangements. However, based on the data we use, the only instance where part-time work can be unequivocally classified as involuntary is when the respondent claims that they work part-time because there are no full-time positions available, as this indicates their "true" preference for full-time work. In contrast, other reported reasons for working part-time lack the same level of clarity.

Our second outcome variable is logged *earnings*. This variable refers to the respondent's net monthly salary[2] in euros. This value is initially self-reported by the respondent and then cross-referenced and adjusted using tax information. This method ensures that the variable is complete with no missing values.

We examine variation across *occupational groups* by recoding the French occupational classification scheme (Bouchet-Valat 2015; Veljkovic 2022) using Erikson and Goldthorpe's categories (1992; see also Connelly, Gayle, and Lambert 2016). We include the following six categories: higher-grade service class (I), lower-grade service class (II), higher-grade routine non-manual employees (IIIa), lower-grade routine non-manual employees (IIIb), lower-grade technicians and skilled manual employees (V + VI), and unskilled manual workers (VIIab).

Disability status, derived from the Global Activity Limitation Indicator (GALI), a core variable in European surveys, is our primary predictor of both part-time work and wage gaps. It is based on the following question: "Have you been limited because of a health problem in activities people usually do, for at least 6 months?" Response options include "Yes, severely limited," "Yes, but not severely limited," and "No, not limited at all." Any level of activity limitation counts as disability.[3] Developed alongside the World Health Organization's most recent classification of disability—the International Classification of Functioning, Disability and Health—the GALI indicator captures multiple essential dimensions of disability (Robine, Jagger, and Euro-REVES Group 2003). It incorporates the notion of restriction (i.e., long-standing activity limitation), which is central to the concept of disability, and links this restriction both to a health-related factor (health problems) and to social norms and environments (activities people usually engage in). This indicator provides a synthetic measure of disability, correlated with both objective measures—such as maximum grip strength and walking speed—and subjective measures—including limitations in activities of daily living (ADLs), such as washing, dressing, eating, and getting in and out of bed (Berger et al. 2015; Jagger et al. 2010; Pettinicchio and Lee Maroto 2021).

We account for a range of occupation-related variables that influence earnings. We control for part-time workers' *weekly work hours* as averaged over the year, categorized as under 17.5 hours, 17.5 hours, above 17.5 hours but under 28 hours, 28 hours, above 28 hours but under 35 hours.[4] *Sectors*, derived from the Statistical classification of economic activities in the European Community (NACE), include construction, transportation, manufacturing and materials, public administration, communication and professional activities, trade, finance/insurance/real estate, support service activities, arts/entertainment/recreation; housing and food services, education, health and social action and domestic work and other services. *Employer type* is coded as private, public, nonprofit or individual. *Contract type* includes categories of permanent, fixed-term, interim and apprenticeship. *Workplace region* refers to whether the individual works within or outside the Paris region. Finally, *job tenure* is coded as less than 2 years, 2–5 years, 5–10 years, 10–15 years, 15–20 years, 20–30 years, more than 30 years or unknown.

In addition to occupation-related variables, we also control for key sociodemographic variables including education, gender, migration status, age, and age squared. *Education* is measured as higher education, high school, professional school, less/no education or unknown. *Gender* includes categories of men or women. We measure *migration status*[5] with three categories: born in France with French-born parents, first-generation immigrant and second-generation immigrant. *Age* is a continuous variable measured in years.

Modelling Strategy

Our modeling strategy is two-fold. First, we apply multinomial logistic regression models to assess the reasons for the use of part-time work in relation to four categories: full-time work (referent), part-time work because full-time is not available, part-time work for health reasons and part-time work for other reasons. We examine differences between individuals with and without disabilities controlling for demographics, job characteristics, and differences between occupational groups. Occupational groups capture potential occupational norms that are likely to determine variation in part-time work among people with disabilities. Second, we explore wage inequality among part-time workers using linear regression models. Controlling for demographic variables and occupational characteristics, we first estimate disability gaps independently of occupation-based gaps. We then include interaction terms to capture whether the effect of disability status on wages is conditional on occupational group membership.[6]

For ease of interpretation, we present the results from multinomial logistic regression models as average marginal effects (AME) with estimates averaged across the population (Liao 1994; Menard 2002). We also present AMEs as percentages and average adjusted predictions (AAP) of earnings in euros by occupation and disability status. In these models, the wages of people with disabilities can be interpreted as a percentage of the wages of people without disabilities within each occupational group.

To account for how part-time work is organized for people with disabilities across occupations, we address (1) the prevalence of part-time work by occupational groups and disability status; (2) the varying reasons people with disabilities are in part-time work; and (3) the effects of part-time work on disability wage inequality.

Findings

Rates of Part-Time Work by Disability Status and Occupation

Between 2013 and 2019, about 18% of people without disabilities worked part-time in France, but almost 30% of people with disabilities worked part-time, which is in line with hypothesis 1a. As Table 1 illustrates, among workers with disabilities, part-time work rates were lowest among men-dominated occupations, such as the higher-grade service class (15.9%), and lower-grade technicians and skilled manual workers (11%). There were highest among lower-grade routine non-manual employees (53.9%).

Consistent with hypothesis 1b, the size of the disability gap in rates of part-time work varied across occupational groups both in absolute (percentage points) and relative (ratios) terms. In absolute terms, the gap was highest for lower-grade routine non-manual employees at 14.7% points. In relative terms, the gap was largest in occupations where part-time work was uncommon for workers without disabilities, such as lower-grade technicians and

Table 1. Rates of part-time work by sector and disability status (percentage).

		Percentage in part-time work	
	Percentage with disabilities	No disability	Any disability
Group I—Higher-grade service class	7.3	8.7	15.9
Group II—Lower-grade service class	9.6	20.1	26.2
Group IIIa—Higher-grade routine non-manual employees	11.7	21.8	32.3
Group IIIb—Lower-grade routine non-manual employees	13.7	39.2	53.9
Group V + VI—Lower-grade technicians and skilled manual workers	10.9	5.4	11.0
Group VIIab—Unskilled manual workers	13.7	14.4	27.5
N(unweighted)		108,065	13,968

Source: 2013–2019 French Labor Force Survey ($N = 122{,}033$)
People aged 15–64 living in households, in employment (apart from independent and/or agriculture work). Missing values filtered: people who do not declare either their sector, employer type, occupation, or monthly wage.

skilled manual workers (Group V + VI). For this occupational group, 11% of workers with disabilities reported part-time work, more than twice as high than for workers without disabilities.

Reasons for Part-Time Work by Disability Status and Occupation

In addition to examining rates of part-time employment, we were also interested in workers' reasons for engaging in this type of employment. We expected that workers with disabilities would be more likely to report working part-time due to health reasons and due to a lack of full-time opportunities, where the latter more clearly alludes to involuntary part-time work (Hypothesis 2). As Table 2 shows, self-reported reasons for part-time work differed between workers with and without disabilities across occupations, supporting this hypothesis. Overall, more workers with disabilities cited health reasons for part-time work, but this varied by occupation. Part-time work motivated by health conditions was more common among workers with disabilities in occupations where part-time work is rare, such as lower-grade technicians and skilled manual workers (58.6%), compared to those where it is common like lower-grade non-manual employees (25.4%).

In addition, for both workers with disabilities and workers without disabilities, working part-time due to a lack of full-time opportunities followed a gradient, with the highest rates among unskilled manual workers and lower-grade non-manual employees. This suggests that broader labor market factors, beyond disability status, can also influence whether individuals take on part-time work. The decline in full-time opportunities has been driven in part by the growth of service-oriented economies and employer preferences for cheaper, more precarious labor. These opportunities also vary depending on workers' positions within the occupational hierarchy. Notably, these lower-tier

Table 2. Reasons for part-time work by sector among part-time workers.

	Reasons for part-time work							
	No full-time available		Health reasons		Other		Average monthly earnings	
	No disability	Any disability	No disability	Any disability	No disability	Any disability	No disability	Any disability
Group I—Higher-grade service class	13.0	10.3	3.1	34.9	83.9	54.8	2,155	2,074
Group II—Lower-grade service class	26.8	21.3	2.2	33.7	71.0	45.0	1,413	1,394
Group IIIa—Higher-grade routine non-manual employees	30.9	24.8	3.4	39.8	65.7	35.4	1,192	1,088
Group IIIb—Lower-grade routine non-manual employees	58.1	47.8	3.0	25.4	38.9	26.8	772	746
Group V + VI—Lower-grade technicians and skilled manual workers	39.6	18.8	3.1	58.6	57.3	22.7	1,168	1,133
Group VIIab—Unskilled manual workers	62.6	44.4	3.5	40.4	33.9	15.2	744	710

Source: 2013–2019 French Labor Force Survey; Part-time workers ($N = 24{,}459$)
People aged 15–64 living in households, in part-time employment (apart from independent and/or agriculture work). Missing values filtered: people who do not declare either their sector, employer type, occupation, or monthly wage

occupations are where people with disabilities are most concentrated (Table 1), in a labor market where access to highly qualified professions remains very limited to people with disabilities (Collet and Lhommeau 2022).

Table 3 presents results from a multinomial logistic regression model that compares full-time work to part-time work due to unavailability of full-time work, part-time work for health reasons, and part-time work for other reasons, controlling for covariates.[7] In line with hypothesis 2, compared to workers without disabilities, workers with disabilities faced increased risks of part-time work due to the absence of full-time employment (i.e., "involuntary" part-time work). Their predicted probability of reporting part-time work for this reason was about 0.8% points higher than that of workers without disabilities. Given that, on average, about 7.5% of workers without disabilities were involuntary part-timers, this represents an increase of over 10%. This suggests that economic demand for labor market flexibility potentially provided by part-time work disproportionately impacts workers with disabilities.

Additionally, still consistent with hypothesis 2, workers with disabilities were significantly more likely than those without disabilities to report working part-time due to health reasons. The average marginal effect was 7.3% (0.073), with the predicted probability for workers with disabilities being roughly 15 times higher than the 0.5% average rate observed among workers without disabilities. This finding should be interpreted with caution. As the social model of disability posits (Barnes and Mercer 2005), certain situations commonly framed as caused by impairments are, in fact, the result of disabling work environments, which create needless obstacles, lack of accessibility, or inadequate accommodations. Along these lines, the lack of full-time jobs with adequate accommodations and built-in flexibilities contributes to a broader disabling environment that can drive people with disabilities to engage in part-time work.

Importantly, reasons for part-time work varied across occupational groups even when controlling for disability status and other covariates. Compared to unskilled manual workers (VIIab), the average marginal effect of working part-time due to lack of full-time work was higher for lower-grade non-manual employees (IIIb) and lower for all other occupations, with the largest difference in the higher-grade service class (I). Similar patterns were observed for health-motivated part-time work.

Finally, part-time work attributed to other reasons was more common for lower-grade service class workers (II), higher-grade non-manual employees (IIIa), and lower-grade non-manual employees (IIIb). As those are also women-dominated occupations, this may reflect the greater use of part-time work by women to balance employment with housework and childcare responsibilities which they disproportionately take on (Hakim 1995; Walters 2005).

In sum, individuals with disabilities were much more likely than those without disabilities to report part-time work for health reasons and to cite involuntary part-time work due to a lack of full-time positions. In addition, part-time work patterns varied across occupations in two key ways. First, fewer people worked part-time in men-dominated occupations, such as the higher-grade service class, lower-grade technicians, and skilled workers, and part-time work was more common in women-dominated occupations, such as lower-grade non-manual employees. Second, both involuntary part-time work and part-time work due to health reasons were particularly prevalent in low-paid occupations like unskilled manual work and lower-grade non-manual employment, where people with disabilities are over-represented. These findings also allude to the potential disproportionate effect of part-time work on earnings across groups.

Table 3. Average marginal effects derived from multinomial logistic regression predicting reasons for part-time work.

	In full-time employment	No full time available	Health reasons	Other
Disabilities (Ref: No disabilities)				
Ongoing disabilities	−0.0668*** (0.0013)	0.0085*** (0.0015)	0.0726*** (0.0015)	−0.0144*** (0.0021)
Age	−0.0024*** (0.0001)	0.0010*** (0.0001)	0.0005*** (0.0000)	0.0009*** (0.0001)
Gender (Ref: Man)				
Woman	−0.1688*** (0.0018)	0.0554*** (0.0013)	0.0096*** (0.0002)	0.1039*** (0.0016)
Migration status (Ref: Born in France, both parents born in France)				
Generation 1	−0.0041*** (0.0012)	0.0124*** (0.0017)	−0.0011*** (0.0001)	−0.0072*** (0.0015)
Generation 2	0.0019 (0.0018)	−0.0015 (0.0011)	0.0008*** (0.0001)	−0.0012 (0.0023)
Education (ref: less/no education)				
Professional school	0.0273*** (0.0017)	−0.0212*** (0.0015)	−0.0024*** (0.0001)	−0.0036** (0.0014)
High school	0.0178*** (0.0017)	−0.0315*** (0.0013)	−0.0034*** (0.0001)	0.0170*** (0.0015)
Higher education	0.0269*** (0.0014)	−0.0587*** (0.0009)	−0.0036*** (0.0001)	0.0353*** (0.0014)
Unknown education	−0.0287*** (0.0001)	0.0051*** (0.0001)	0.0035*** (0.0001)	0.0201*** (0.0002)
Occupational group (Ref: Group VIIab- Unskilled manual workers)				
Group I—Higher-grade service class	0.0929*** (0.0017)	−0.086*** (0.0008)	−0.0081*** (0.0002)	0.0013 (0.0017)
Group II—Lower-grade service class	0.0385*** (0.0017)	−0.0557*** (0.0011)	−0.0053*** (0.0001)	0.0224*** (0.0017)
Group IIIa—Higher-grade routine non-manual employees	0.0262*** (0.0018)	−0.0496*** (0.0012)	−0.0014*** (0.0001)	0.0248*** (0.0018)
Group IIIb—Lower-grade routine non-manual employees	−0.0372*** (0.0018)	0.0116*** (0.0016)	0.0014*** (0.0001)	0.0242*** (0.0016)
Group V + VI—Lower-grade technicians and skilled manual workers	0.0851*** (0.0007)	−0.0636*** (0.0006)	−0.0045*** (0.0001)	−0.017*** (0.0006)
Sector (Ref: Public administration)				
Construction	0.0972*** (0.0006)	−0.0836*** (0.0007)	−0.0026*** (0.0001)	−0.011*** (0.0002)
Transportation	0.0722*** (0.0005)	−0.0734*** (0.0006)	0.0027*** (0.0001)	−0.0015*** (0.0002)
Manufacturing, materials	0.1230*** (0.0009)	−0.093*** (0.0007)	0.0018*** (0.0000)	−0.0318*** (0.0008)
Communication and professional activities	0.0193*** (0.0007)	−0.0394*** (0.0003)	0.0012*** (0.0000)	0.0188*** (0.0008)
Trade	0.0512*** (0.0017)	−0.0499*** (0.001)	0.0018*** (0.0001)	−0.0030 (0.0020)
Finance, insurance, real estate	0.0663*** (0.0006)	−0.0691*** (0.0005)	0.0069*** (0.0001)	−0.0042*** (0.0003)
Support service activities	−0.0219*** (0.0004)	−0.0113*** (0.0006)	0.0055*** (0.0001)	0.0277*** (0.0006)
Arts, entertainment and recreation	−0.0644*** (0.0003)	0.0389*** (0.0004)	0.0014*** (0.0000)	0.0241*** (0.0003)
Housing and food service	−0.0106*** (0.0004)	−0.0187*** (0.0005)	0.0019*** (0.0000)	0.0275*** (0.0007)
Education	−0.016*** (0.0012)	0.0357*** (0.0012)	−0.0011*** (0.0000)	−0.0186*** (0.0012)
Health and social action	0.0279*** (0.002)	−0.0391*** (0.0014)	0.0047*** (0.0001)	0.0065*** (0.0018)

(*Continued*)

Table 3. (Continued).

	In full-time employment	No full time available	Health reasons	Other
Domestic work and other services	−0.0790*** (0.0008)	0.0023 (0.0015)	0.0119*** (0.0002)	0.0648*** (0.0020)
Employer type (Ref: Private)				
Public	0.0165*** (0.0017)	−0.0197*** (0.0011)	−0.0023*** (0.0001)	0.0055*** (0.0015)
Nonprofit	−0.0483*** (0.0017)	0.0306*** (0.0015)	0.0061*** (0.0002)	0.0116*** (0.0021)
Employee of an individual	−0.0749*** (0.0009)	0.0299*** (0.0014)	−0.0038*** (0.0001)	0.0488*** (0.0016)
Workplace region (Ref: Outside Paris Region)				
Work in Paris Region	0.0486*** (0.0017)	−0.0314*** (0.0005)	0.0010*** (0.0001)	−0.0182*** (0.0020)
Type of contract (Ref: Permanent)				
Fixed-term	−0.0642*** (0.0016)	−0.0642*** (0.0016)	−0.0008*** (0.0001)	−0.0120*** (0.0014)
Interim	0.0673*** (0.0005)	0.0145*** (0.0003)	−0.0148*** (0.0003)	−0.0669*** (0.0005)
Apprenticeship	0.0802*** (0.0006)	−0.0673*** (0.0007)	−0.0130*** (0.0003)	0.0001 (0.0002)
Job tenure (Ref: Less than 2 years)				
2–5 years	0.0239*** (0.0018)	−0.0255*** (0.0021)	−0.0001 (0.0001)	0.0017 (0.0018)
5–10 years	0.0381*** (0.0022)	−0.0562*** (0.0018)	0.0011*** (0.0001)	0.0170*** (0.0019)
10–15 years	0.0478*** (0.0019)	−0.0775*** (0.0009)	0.0061*** (0.0001)	0.0272*** (0.0022)
15–20 years	0.0638*** (0.0019)	−0.0918*** (0.0008)	0.0061*** (0.0001)	0.0219*** (0.0023)
20–30 years	0.0983*** (0.0018)	−0.1045*** (0.0008)	0.0042*** (0.0001)	0.0020 (0.0019)
More than 30 years	0.1176*** (0.0012)	−0.1157*** (0.0009)	0.0055*** (0.0001)	−0.0074*** (0.0010)
Unknown years of service	−0.1169*** (0.0011)	−0.0120*** (0.0011)	0.0003*** (0.0000)	0.1286*** (0.0020)
AIC	130,761			
Pseudo R2 McFadden	0.2189			

*$p < 0.05$; **$p < 0.01$; *** $p < 0.001$; () standard error.
Scope : People aged 15–64 living in households in metropolitan France, in employment. $N = 122{,}033$
Source : French Labor Force Survey, 2013–2019
Average marginal effects derived from multinomial logistic regression predicting reasons for part-time work.

The Effects of Part-Time Work on Earnings

The disability wage gap is partly explained by the concentration of workers with disabilities in part-time jobs as shown in Figure 1. Average monthly earnings by disability status, occupational groups, and part-time work status, reveal a less pronounced gap when comparing workers with and without disabilities among part-timers instead of the entire workforce. For example, workers with disabilities in the higher-grade service class (I) earned 258 euros less per month than their counterparts without disabilities (top panel in Figure 1), but this disparity decreases to 81 euros when focusing on part-time workers (bottom panel in Figure 1).

This suggests that the overall disability wage gap partly stems from fewer working hours and, consequently, lower monthly wages for those with disabilities. However, across occupational groups, part-time workers with disabilities still earned less than

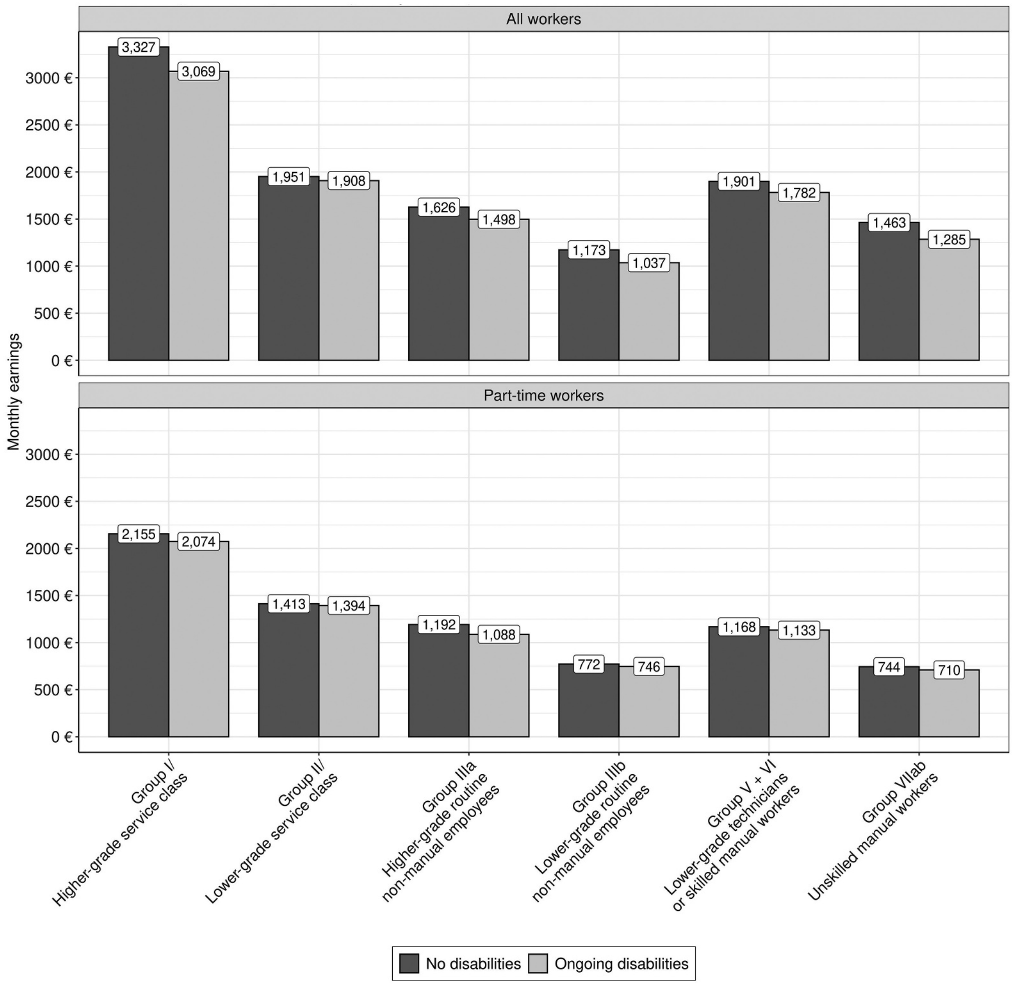

Figure 1. Average monthly earnings by disability status and part-time work. Source: 2013-2019 French Labor Force Survey, $N = 122{,}033$ (all workers); $N = 24{,}459$ (part-time workers) People aged 15-64 living in households, in employment (apart from self-employed and/or agriculture work). Missing values filtered: people who do not declare either their sector, employer type, occupation, or monthly wage.

those without disabilities with differences of up to 104 euros per month for higher-grade non-manual employees (IIIa). Consistent with hypothesis 3, this indicates that the wage gap is not solely due to part-time status, but it also involves more general supply-and-demand factors that account for differences in labor market outcomes. These include human capital, education, training, lack of bargaining power, employer preferences, and possible discrimination.[8] Wage penalties are even more important as they affect part-time jobs where people with disabilities are overrepresented, and where average pay is already low. For example, unskilled manual workers with disabilities in part-time jobs earn a monthly average of just 710 euros (744 euros for those without disabilities).

Table 4 presents results from two OLS regression models predicting logged monthly earnings, isolating disability gaps from other observed characteristics such as education, age and migration status among part-time workers. Model 1 estimates the disability effect on income independently of occupation-based effects. Controlling for key covariates, part-time workers with disabilities earned 7.2% ($e^{-0.0746} - 1 = 0.072$) less, on average, than part-time workers without disabilities. This disadvantage was similar in magnitude to that of female part-time workers compared to male part-time workers ($e^{-0.0798} - 1 = 0.077$). "Involuntary" part-time workers who could not find a full-time job were most penalized compared to part-time workers citing health or other reasons.

Model 2 shows that the effect of disability status on earnings depended on occupation, in line with hypothesis 4. Statistically significant earnings disparities between part-time workers with and without disabilities were present in all occupational groupings except for the higher-grade (I) and lower-grade (II) service class. Figure 2 illustrates these relationships presenting average marginal effects by disability status within occupational groups. The largest gap was among unskilled manual workers (Group VIIab); part-time workers with disabilities were predicted to earn about 13.3% less than their counterparts without disabilities (i.e., 86.7% of their earnings). Other significant gaps were found for lower-grade technicians and skilled manual workers, where part-time workers with disabilities were predicted to earn about 9.6% less (i.e., 90.4% of what their counterparts without disabilities earned); lower-grade non-manual employees, with a gap of 8.5% (91.5%); and higher-grade non-manual employees, with a gap of 5.9% (94.1%).

Figure 3 expands on these results by presenting average predicted monthly earnings within occupations. With estimates averaged across the population, the disability gap in monthly earnings was 52 euros for high-grade non-manual employees (827 vs. 879 euros), 68 euros for lower-grade non-manual employees (735 vs 803 euros), 85 euros for lower-

Table 4. Results from linear regression predicting logged wages.

	Model 1	Model 2
Disabilities (Ref: No disabilities)		
Ongoing disabilities	−0.0746*** (0.0084)	−0.1428*** (0.0215)
Reasons for part-time work (Ref: No full-time available)		
Health reasons	0.0763*** (0.0125)	0.0764*** (0.0126)
Other reasons	0.0251*** (0.0069)	0.0263*** (0.0069)
Occupational group (Ref: Group VIIab- Unskilled manual workers)		
Group I—Higher-grade service class	0.4835*** (0.0168)	0.4581*** (0.0179)
Group II—Lower-grade service class	0.2657*** (0.0143)	0.2408*** (0.0154)
Group IIIa—Higher-grade routine non-manual employees	0.1524*** (0.0133)	0.1342*** (0.0145)
Group IIIb—Lower-grade routine non-manual employees	0.0570*** (0.0124)	0.0441** (0.0135)
Group V + VI—Lower-grade technicians and skilled manual workers	0.1619*** (0.0155)	0.1515*** (0.0172)
Disabilities × Occupational group		
Ongoing disabilities × Group I		0.1380*** (0.0373)
Ongoing disabilities × Group II		0.1354*** (0.0287)
Ongoing disabilities × Group IIIa		0.0817** (0.0277)
Ongoing disabilities × Group IIIb		0.0537* (0.0243)
Ongoing disabilities × Group V/VI		0.0423 (0.0347)
Constant	5.2308*** (0.0402)	5.2447*** (0.0405)
Akaike Inf. Crit.	29,600	29,580
R^2	0.6203	0.6208

+$p < 0.1$; *$p < 0.05$; **$p < 0.01$; ***$p < 0.001$; () standard error.
Source: 2013–2019 French Labor Force Survey, $N = 24,459$
Results from logistic regression models predicting logged earnings. Models include controls for age, age squared, gender, migration status, education, employer type, sector, type of contract, weekly work hours, workplace region, and job tenure.

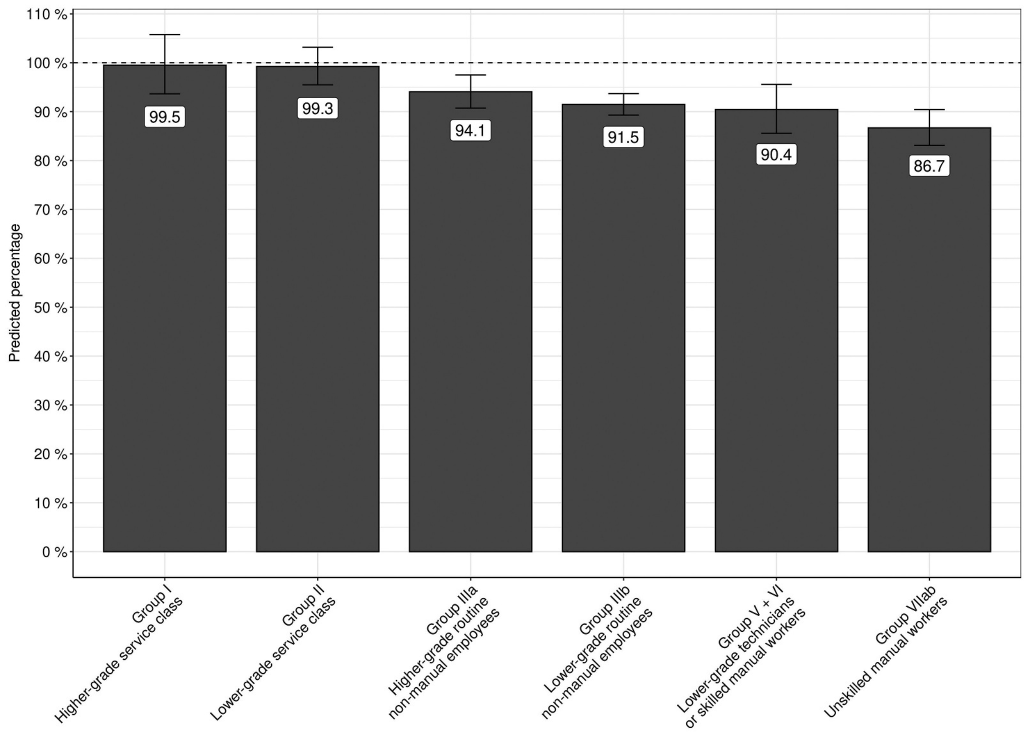

Figure 2. Average marginal earnings differences by disability across groups. Source: 2013-2019 French Labor Force Survey, Linear Regression Predicting Logged Wages (Table 4), $N = 24{,}459$ People aged 15-64 living in households, in part-time employment (apart from self-employed and/or agriculture work). Missing values filtered: people who do not declare either their sector, employer type, occupation, or monthly wage.

grade technicians and skilled manual workers (809 vs 894 euros) and 103 euros for unskilled manual workers (666 vs 769 euros). These findings indicate that disability-related wage penalties are most prevalent in low-paid occupations—where people with disabilities are disproportionately concentrated—highlighting different levels of disadvantage within already undervalued jobs.

Discussion

Expanding on research demonstrating the prevalence of part-time work among people with disabilities, this study examined the reasons behind part-time work across occupations and its contributions to earnings inequality based on disability status. Supporting our first and second hypotheses, we found that people with disabilities were more likely than those without disabilities to be employed in part-time work and to report health issues and a lack of full-time opportunities as reasons for doing so, although these patterns varied across occupations. Respondents were much more likely to report working part-time for health reasons in low-paid, women-dominated occupations, such as lower-grade routine non-manual jobs, and, to a lesser extent, in low-paid, men-dominated occupations like unskilled manual work, than in higher-paid, men-dominated service occupations. We also

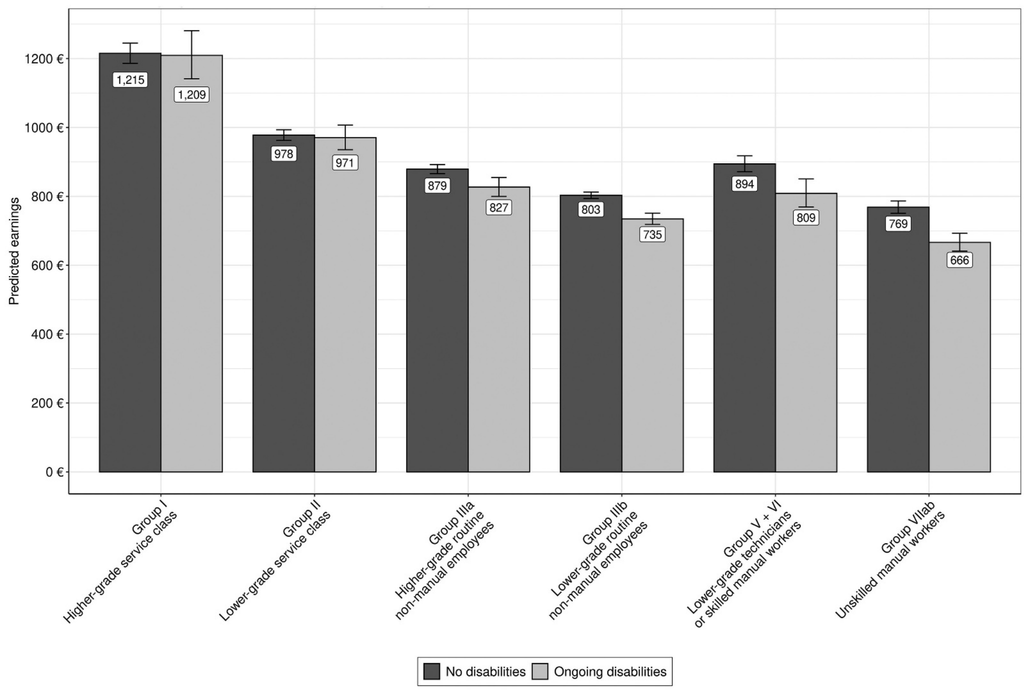

Figure 3. Averages predicted monthly earnings for Part-time workers with and without disabilities. Source: 2013-2019 French Labor Force Survey, Linear Regression Predicting Logged Wages (Table 4), N = 24,459 People aged 15-64 living in households, in part-time employment (apart from self-employed and/ or agriculture work). Missing values filtered: people who do not declare either their sector, employer type, occupation, or monthly wage.

found that workers with disabilities were more likely than those without disabilities to report working part-time instead of full-time due to the unavailability of full-time positions.

This result is partly explained by the concentration of workers with disabilities in low-skilled jobs, where involuntary part-time work is more common. However, even after controlling for occupation, we find that these disparities persist. We contextualize these findings through a social model of disability (Barnes and Mercer 2005), highlighting that impairment and health status alone do not account for labor market outcomes. Rather, our findings allude to the institutional barriers across occupational environments that shape individuals' experiences based on their status like gender and disability.

Supporting our third and fourth hypotheses, we found that although employment in part-time work contributes to the disability wage gap, it is not the only factor that matters. People with disabilities employed in part-time work still earn approximately 7% less than other part-time workers, which represents a gap similar to the gender wage gap among part-time workers.[9] After interacting disability status and occupation, we found that gaps remained in four occupational groups. Higher-grade non-manual employees experienced moderate gaps, while lower-grade non-manual employees, lower-grade technicians and skilled workers, and unskilled manual workers saw larger gaps.

Thus, we find that part-time work and disability-related earnings disparities are smaller in higher-grade and lower-grade service occupations. Although these occupational groups represent a range in the availability of part-time positions, they all share low wages and an overrepresentation of people with disabilities, regardless of whether part-time work is either common or scarce. Future research that incorporates more occupation-related variables—including required skills and rates of unionization, which have been shown to have an even greater effect on earnings for workers with disabilities (Pettinicchio and Lee Maroto 2021)—would help shed further light on why certain occupations matter more than others in explaining these gaps.

These findings contribute to broader understandings of the role of part-time work within the labor market. In addition to demonstrating a continued overrepresentation of people with disabilities in part-time work in France, we also show that the reasons for part-time employment vary across groups. Furthermore, our findings highlight wage disparities experienced by part-time workers with disabilities that differ across occupational groups. Although the clustering of people with disabilities in part-time work contributes to the overall disability wage gap, we show that it is not just the loss of work hours that matters. Even among part-time workers, people with disabilities employed in certain occupations still experience earnings penalties that persist after accounting for key demographic and education differences suggesting that supply-side factors contribute to earnings inequality. Inequality is particularly evident in occupations where both so-called voluntary and involuntary part-time work is common, indicating that inequality is not limited to full-time vs. part-time or voluntary vs. involuntary part-time work, but also exists among so-called voluntary part-timers.

Despite these contributions, our findings have certain limitations. First, analyses are limited by our sample size. Although we use a large dataset spanning seven years, the relatively small proportion of people with disabilities in the population limited our ability to distinguish between levels of disability severity, to examine occupational segmentation in greater detail, and to conduct intersectional analyses. For instance, a much larger sample would be needed to examine disparities at the intersection of disability, gender, and migration status. Future research on part-time work that incorporates interactions would be beneficial for studying how these dynamics are linked.

Second, our measure of disability might not capture all of its nuances. Although the GALI provides a reliable measure of disability aligned with international standards such as the ICF, there are other ways in which definitions of and self-identification with disability shape how we count disability (Pettinicchio and Lee Maroto 2021). For example, whether individuals have functional limitations (Amilon et al. 2021), whether they see themselves as part of the disability community, and whether they are considered as being a person with disabilities for administrative/benefits purposes all present different measures (Ravaud, Letourmy, and Ville 2002). The diversification and combination of these indicators should be encouraged in survey data collection.

Finally, studies that include more precise measures of hours worked by part-time employees over the course of a year would be valuable. The French Labor Force Survey only provides broad categories for part-time work volume over the full year, with an additional question on the exact number of hours worked per week—limited to the previous month. Because this variable is limited to a single month, it could not be used reliably. It contained missing values or outliers for 20.1% of part-time workers, particularly those with annualized part-time schedules (a preplanned alternation of worked and non-worked periods throughout the year, with fixed average earnings). Accurate and detailed yearly data on hours worked by part-time employees is essential for analyzing hourly earnings.

Conclusion

Even though some individuals with disabilities might seek out part-time work, they face lower earnings in part-time employment, especially in lower-paying occupations where people with disabilities are overrepresented. The disability wage gaps we measure may contribute to increased precariousness among populations at risk of poverty (Maroto, Pettinicchio, and Patterson 2019), especially because they are more pronounced in occupational groups where base wages are already low. More specifically, this pattern contributes to in-work poverty among part-time workers with disabilities, as the welfare benefits available may not fully compensate for the disability wage gap (Drees 2024). Beyond disability, these findings emphasize the structural barriers that many workers face when trying to secure full-time employment. These broader labor market factors account for rising rates of both involuntary and so-called voluntary part-time work. Additionally, these factors are tied to occupational groups, meaning that where different workers are located in the labor market in part also shapes their labor market and economic outcomes.

Disparities between full-time and part-time workers persist despite policies specifically aimed at mitigating these inequalities, such as legislation in France that mandates equal wages and job benefits for part-time and full-time workers (Thurman and Trah 1990). The specific challenges faced by workers with disabilities may be overlooked, as French employment policies targeting this group tend to focus primarily on employment rates (Corby, William, and Richard 2019), rather than on working conditions and opportunities. Moreover, in a global context, although much of the policy debate hinges on voluntary/involuntary part-time work, policies ignore the structural constraints that motivate individuals to take on contingent work and how this varies across the labor market. Importantly, our work emphasizes the necessity of broadening the focus from the causes of part-time work to its economic consequences, especially for already disadvantaged groups.

Notes

1. The complex degressive calculation method is explained in detail on the French government website (See https://www.service-public.fr/particuliers/vosdroits/F21615?lang=en).
2. The French Labor Force Survey is limited to broad annual categories and single-month estimated earnings. See the discussion section for information on data limitations.
3. The sample sizes of part-time workers by occupational class were too small to distinguish between severe and mild levels of limitations.
4. Work hours are presented as number of hours. Respondents quantified their part-time work as a proportion of a full-time schedule (less than half-time, half-time, *etc.*). While a full-time schedule corresponds to 35 hours for most occupations, there are a few exceptions typically in managerial positions. Moreover, these weekly averages may conceal significant fluctuations from week to week or month to month, particularly in cases of annualized part-time work, where periods of work alternate with non-working periods, while the salary remains fixed.
5. In French surveys, questions on self-identification with a racial or ethnic group are usually prohibited, with very few exceptions. See The French National Institute of Statistics and Economic Studies (https://www.insee.fr/en/information/2388586).
6. Other interaction tests, such as the interaction between disability status and gender, were nonsignificant (See Table A4 in the Supplemental online material).
7. Regression results as relative risk ratios are provided in the Supplemental online material.

8. The sociodemographic characteristics of part-time workers with and without disabilities are compared in Supplemental online material (Table A1).
9. A full version of the regression table, with all covariates displayed, can be found in the Supplemental online material (Table A3).

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David Pettinicchio is an associate professor and interim chair of sociology and affiliated faculty in the Munk School of Global Affairs and Public Policy at the University of Toronto. His current research investigates the structural and cultural bases of inequality, with a focus on disability and health. He has published two books, *Politics of Empowerment* (Stanford, 2019) and *Sixty Years of Visible Protest* (Cambridge, 2024). He also co-edited the *Oxford Handbook of the Sociology of Disability*. He has published in *Gender and Society*, *Sociological Inquiry*, *Canadian Review of Sociology*, and *The Sociological Quarterly*, among others.

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Data Availability Statement

Data from the 2013–2019 French Labor Force Survey is available to researchers upon request from the French Statistical Institute (Insee): https://data.progedo.fr/series/adisp/enquete-emploi-enquete-emploi-en-continu-ee-eec.

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