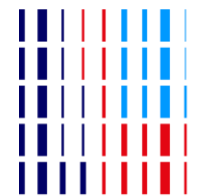




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LISER

Luxembourg Institute of
Socio-Economic Research

LIS2ER-SHARE Luxembourg Joint Workshop:
Pensions and Old-age Well-being, 28 November 2025

Wealth Inequality and Welfare States: Pension Systems, the Public-Private Mix, and Augmented Wealth in Old Age

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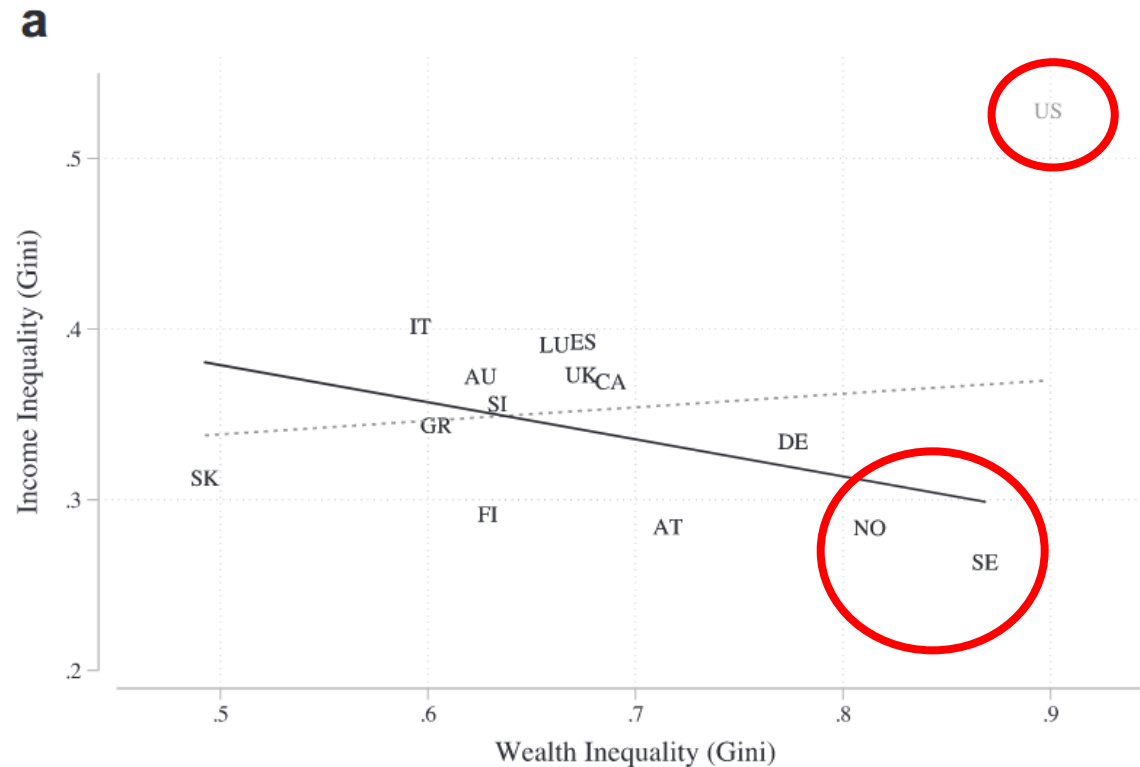


(LIS)²ER Initiative

Background

- Growing literature on wealth inequality & concentration
- Wealth inequality has been rising since the 1980s in most advanced democracies (Piketty & Saez 2014; Saez & Zucman 2016, 2020)
- Affects political inequality & democratic governance (Ansell, 2019); undermines intergenerational mobility (Beckert 2022)
- Wealth distribution is much more unequal than that of income and shows distinct dynamics (Killewald, 2017)
 - Different cross-national patterning, i.e., high wealth inequality in Nordic countries (Skopek et al., 2014; Pfeffer & Waitkus, 2021)

Pfeffer & Waitkus (2021), “The Wealth Inequality of Nations”, *American Sociological Review*, 86(4)



OLS Estimate: -0.217 (incl. US: 0.079); Correlation: -0.451 (incl. US: 0.131)

Welfare States & Wealth Inequality

- But most studies consider only marketable wealth
 - Social insurance entitlements (esp. pensions) do not count as wealth, despite their explicit function of generating future income
- Socio-political institutions as fundamental causes of inequality and redistribution (Acemoglu & Robinson 2015; Gornick & Smeeding, 2018)

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- Socio-political institutions as fundamental causes of inequality and redistribution (Acemoglu & Robinson 2015; Gornick & Smeeding, 2018)
- **Varieties of wealth:** private assets have different meanings depending on institutions and political economy (Beckert, 2024)
 - When strong welfare states protect citizens from social risks, marketable wealth may be less relevant for everyday life (Manduca, 2025)
 - Similar levels of wealth inequality in Sweden/Denmark and USA ?

Why Study Pension Wealth?

- We focus on the role of pension wealth
- Public pensions are the biggest part of the welfare state
 - Pensions crowd out private (marketable) wealth accumulation (Wronski 2023)
- Practical reason = Observability: Almost everyone gets some kind of pensions (conditional on survival)

Research Questions

Q1) When pension entitlements are translated into wealth values, how much do pensions change the cross-national landscape of wealth inequality?

Q2) What explains the cross-national differences in the role of pension wealth?

- Focus on the institutional structure of pension systems

Pension systems & Economic Inequality

- Public pensions reduce old-age income inequality and poverty (Been et al. 2017; Etgeton 2018; Bonnet et al. 2022; Lee 2022; Kuitto et al. 2023)
 - The role of private pensions is less clear
- **Augmented wealth:** counting pensions as a wealth component (Bönke et al. 2020; Longmuir 2023; Bartels et al. 2023; Wronski, 2023)
 - Wealth distribution looks much less unequal when pension wealth is taken into account → reduces Gini by 20-40 percent (Frick & Grabka 2013; Wronski 2023; Sierminska & Wronski 2023)
- But public pensions contributes to wealth inequality?
 - High-educated groups live longer, receive more pensions (Oliveira 2019)
 - Lifetime pension inequality greater than pre-retirement earnings inequality (Shi & Kolk 2023)

The Paradox of Redistribution Revisited

- “A trade-off exists between the degree of low-income targeting and the size of redistributive budgets” (Korpi & Palme 1998)
 - Targeted or basic security systems are by design more redistributive than encompassing social insurance → paradoxically achieves less redistribution
 - The structure of welfare states determines the size of redistribution
- **Old-age Pensions:** “The targeted or basic security countries are likely to have high levels of private insurance because ... economically better-off citizens are more likely to acquire private pension insurance”
 - Market-based private pensions are often more unequal than earnings-related social insurance systems

Varieties of Pension Systems

- **Basic Security** (*Beveridgean*) : tax-financed, flat-rate benefits
 - Focused on poverty alleviation, minimum income protection
 - Oriented towards redistribution by progressive taxation
 - Australia, United Kingdom, Denmark, (Ireland, New Zealand, Netherlands)
- **Comprehensive public** (*Bismarckian*): contributory, earnings-related benefits
 - Consumption smoothing: reproduce pre-retirement earnings inequality
 - Generous income replacement for middle-upper class (with benefit ceiling)
 - Germany, Austria, France, Finland, Italy, Luxembourg, Greece, Slovenia, Slovakia, Spain
- **Hybrid Insurance**: Earnings-related benefits but with low ceiling
 - Large private pension funds: Norway, USA, Japan, (Switzerland, Canada)
 - Korea, Estonia: dualized public pensions, immature private pension market

Data & Sample

- Luxembourg Wealth Study Database
- Most recent pre-Covid-19 wave: 2016 to 2019
- 17 OECD countries with varieties of pension systems
- Sample: Households with individuals aged 62 to 84 (top-coded)
 - Remove HHs with non-elderly to minimize measurement error
 - State pension age mostly 65 (62 in SVK, 67 in NOR) but early retirement
 - Sensitivity analysis: lower age bound at 67
- Wittgenstein Centre Human Capital Database (KC et al., 2018)
 - Population size by gender & education levels
 - Projected values based on 2020 census/surveys

Step 1) Computation of Remaining life expectancy

- Construct gender-education-cohort-specific population sizes at each age from Human Capital Database (1970-2055)
 - Survival rates every 5 years of age for 5 cohorts x 2 gender x 3 education
- Predict group-specific survival rates at all age from 40, conditional to survival at age 40, fitting survival data to a Gompertz function
 - $s_{age} = \exp(-\frac{b}{c} \exp(c(\text{age} - 40) - 1))$
 - Follows exponential (log-linear) mortality rate by age
- **Remaining life expectancy** conditional to survival at each *age* (60-100) can be calculated, based on predicted survival probabilities

$$l_a = \frac{\sum_{k=a}^{100} s_k}{s_a}$$

Step 2) Measuring Household Pension Wealth

- Link gender-education-cohort-specific remaining life expectancy at each age in each country to LWS sample

$$PubW_i = \sum_{i=1}^k \sum_{t=1}^{l_i} \frac{PubInc_i}{(1+r)^t} + \sum_{t=1}^{d_h} \frac{Survpen_h}{(1+r)^{l_i-d_h+t}}$$
$$PrivW_h = \sum_{i=1}^k \sum_{t=1}^{l_i} \frac{PrivInc_i}{(1+r)^t}$$

- l_i = remaining life expectancy; d_h = intra-couple difference in remaining life expectancy
- Discount rate $r=0.02$
- Survivor's pension: following country-specific rules
- DC private pensions** are observed as balance

Step 3) Estimation of Wealth Inequality & Redistribution

- Use standard **Gini Coefficient** as the measure for inequality
- $\text{Redistribution by pension wealth} = 100 \times \left(1 - \frac{G_{augmented.w}}{G_{market.w}}\right)$
→ Percentage decline after adding pension wealth
- $\text{Redistribution by public pension wealth} = 100 \times \left(1 - \frac{G_{augmented.w}}{G_{market+priv.pw}}\right)$
→ Percentage decline after adding public pension wealth

Sensitivity Analysis

1) Age-adjusted Gini: Wealth accumulation is age-dependent

$$\rightarrow \text{age-adjusted Gini} = \sum_{a=62}^{84} p_a G_a$$

– p_a =population share of each age group; G_a =age-specific Gini

2) Uniform demographic composition: reweighting sample to resemble USA

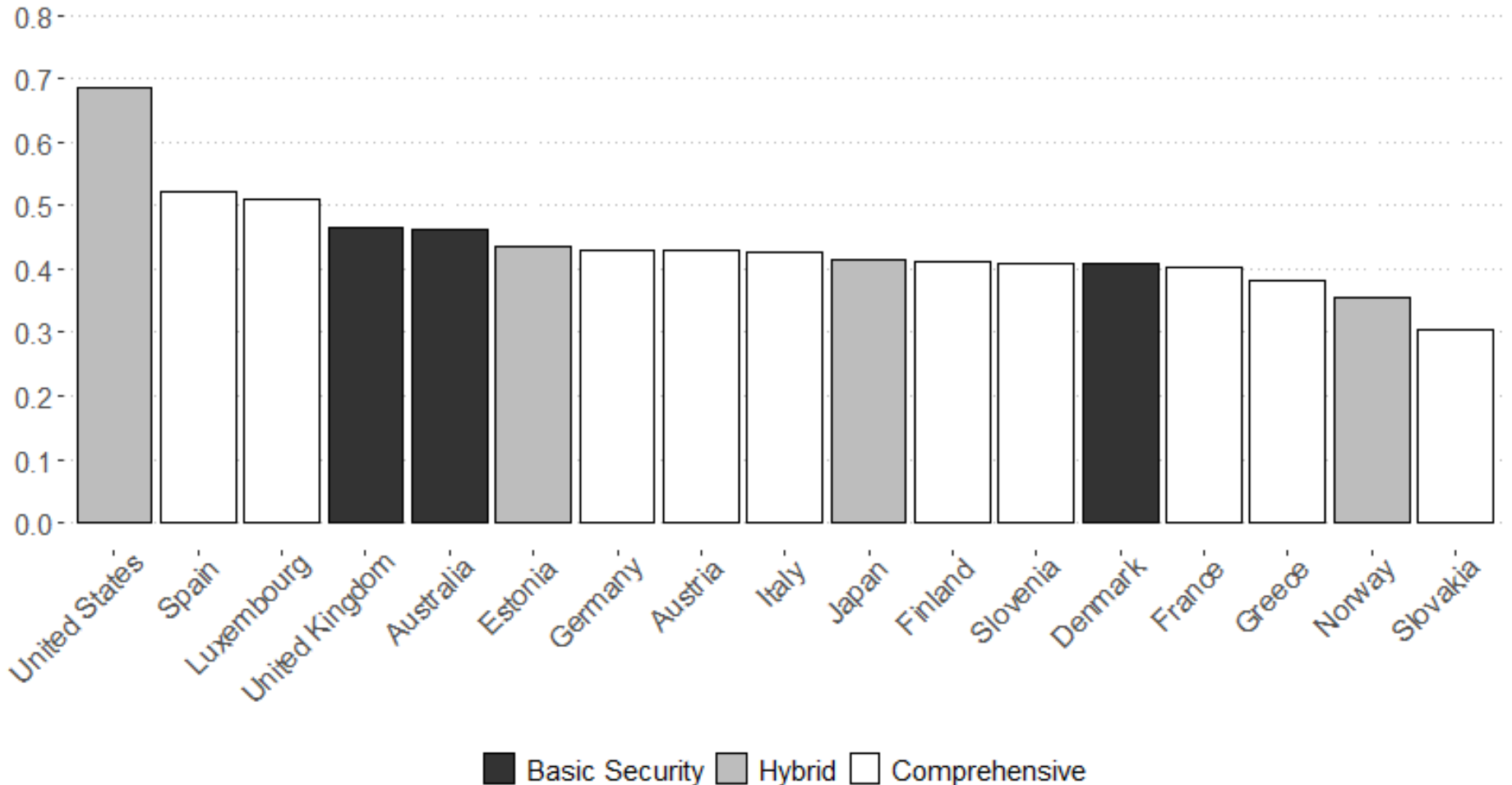
$$\psi = \frac{\Pr(C = \text{USA}|X) / \Pr(C = \text{USA})}{\Pr(C = c|X) / \Pr(C = c)}$$

3) Uniform life expectancy (USA), keeping country-specific educational gradient

4) Use restricted sample: Households with those aged 67-84

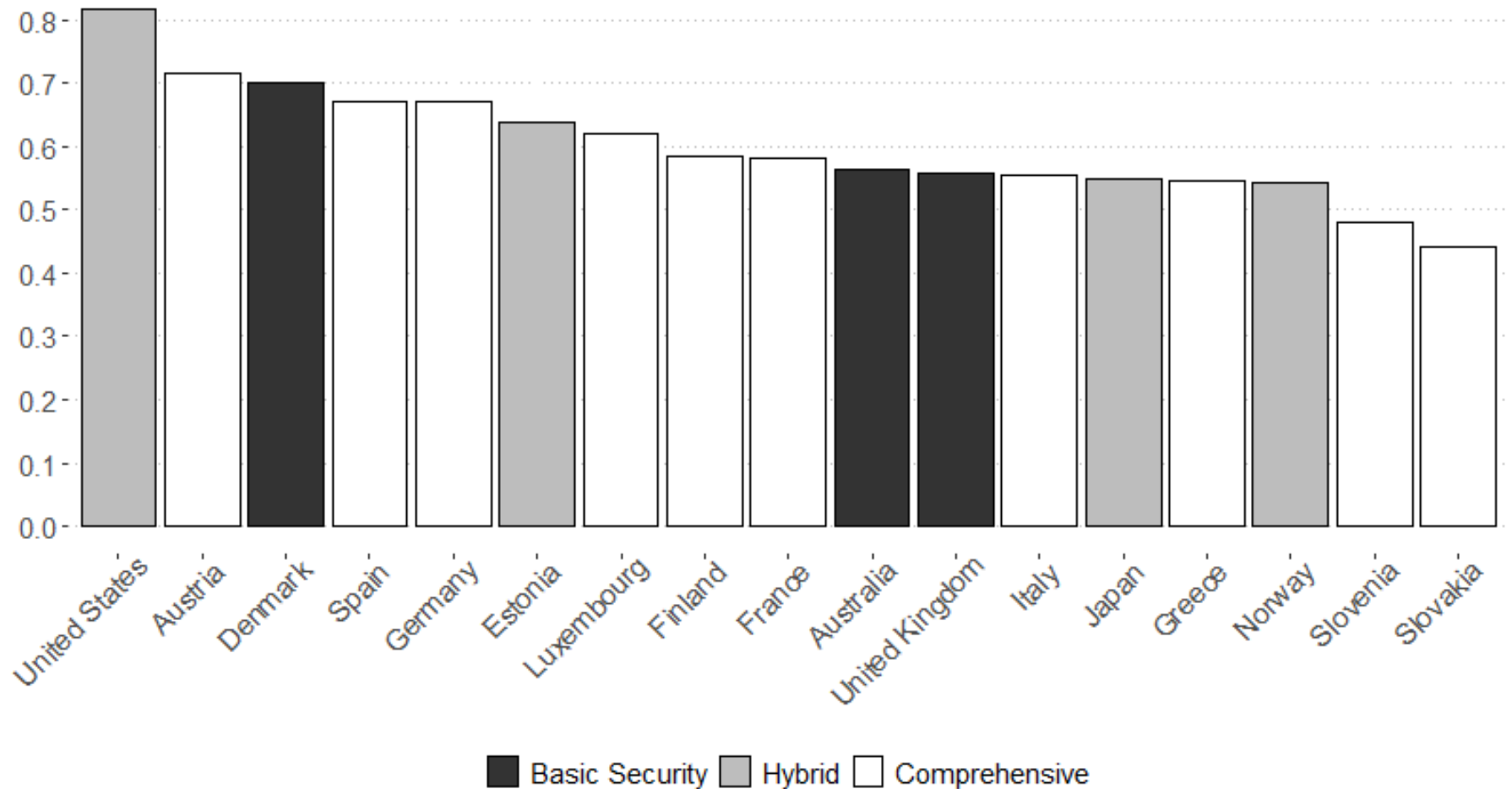
Wealth Inequality with Pensions

Augmented Wealth Inequality (Gini), Age 62+

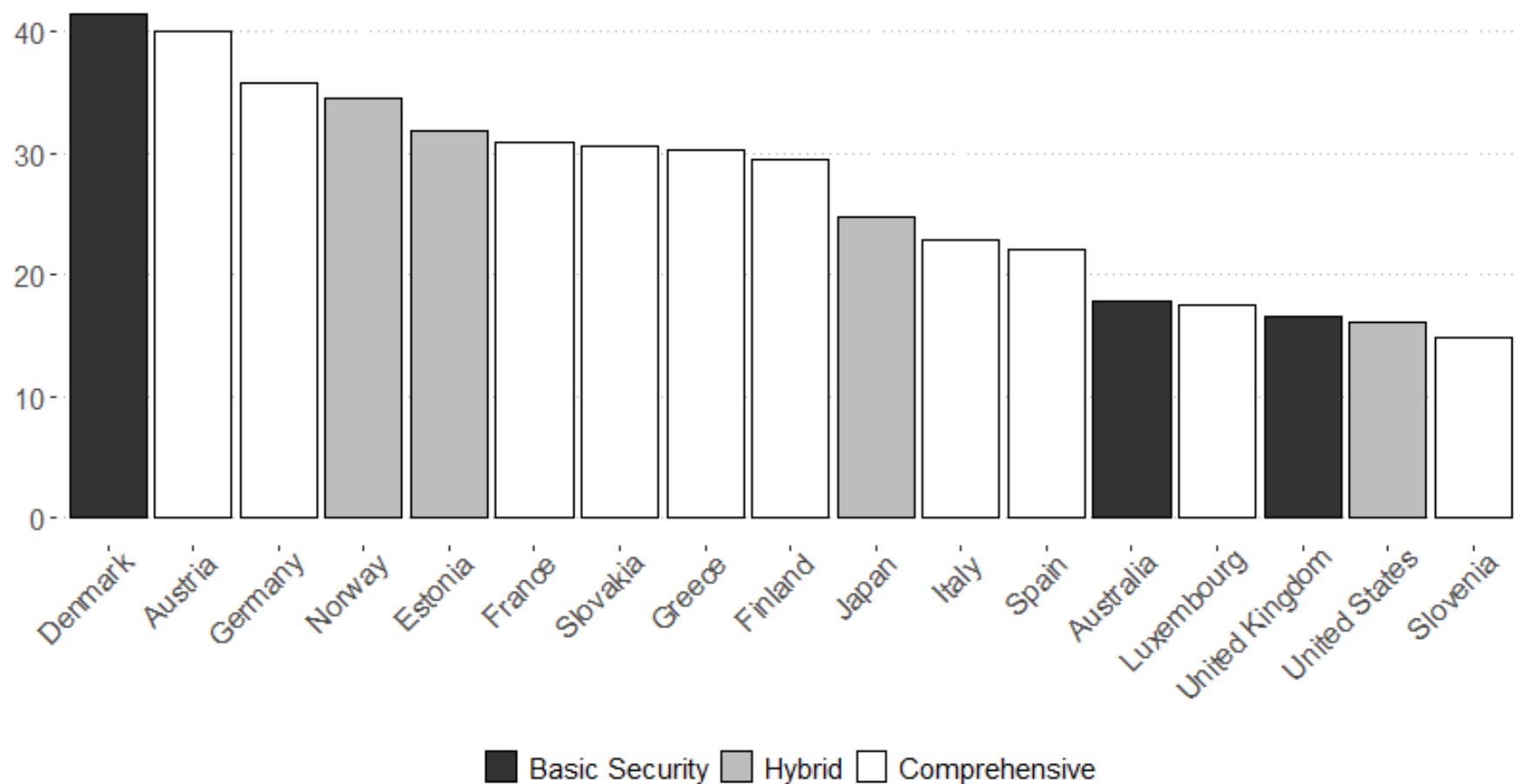


Wealth Inequality without Pensions

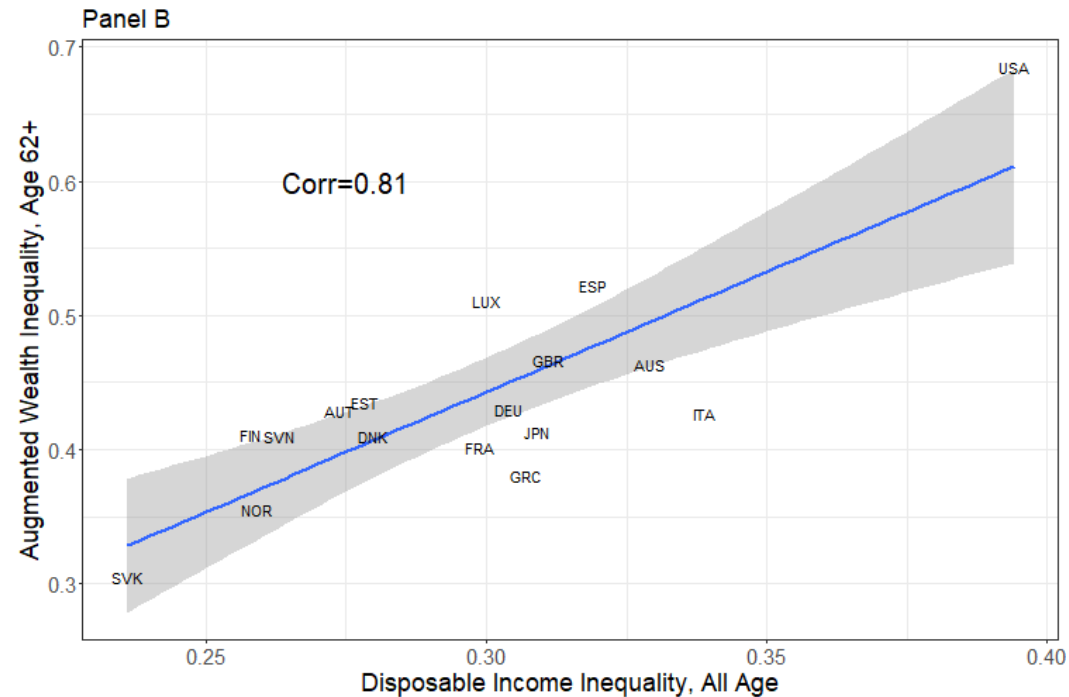
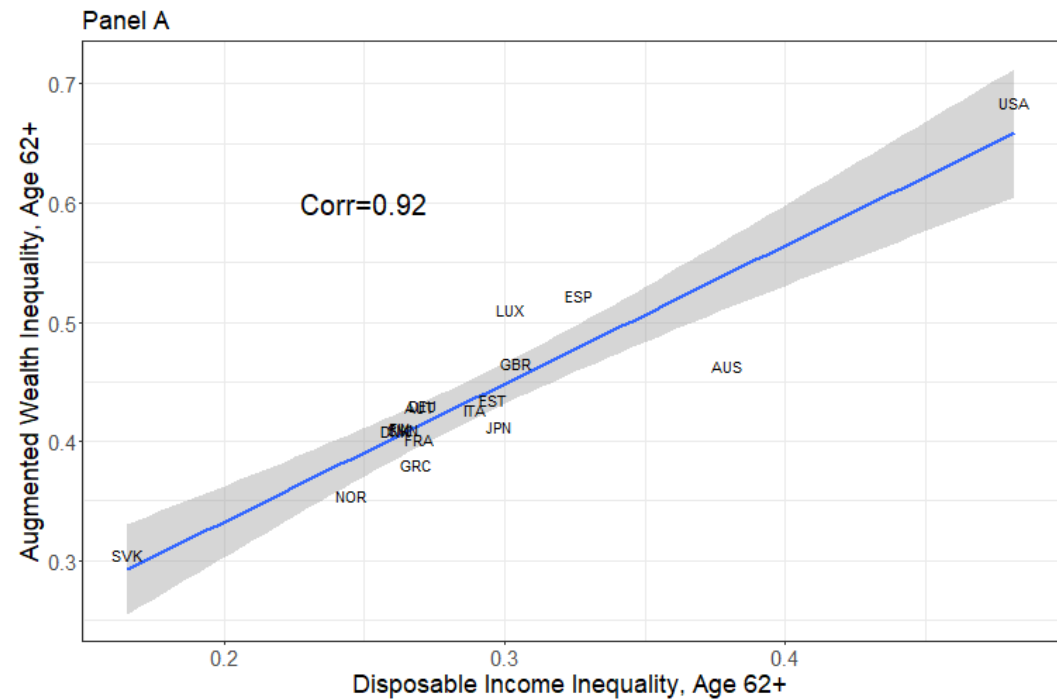
Marketable Wealth Inequality (Gini), Age 62+



Redistribution by Public & Private Pensions (%)



Wealth Inequality vs Income Inequality



Sensitivity Checks: Correlations with Augmented Wealth Inequality

	Baseline	Age-adj.	US Demo	US RLE	Age 67+
Marketable Wealth Inequality	0.74	0.73	0.78	0.73	0.72
Redistribution by Pensions	-0.53	-0.59	-0.40	-0.55	-0.60
Income Inequality, Old Age	0.92	0.93	0.92	0.93	0.87
Income Inequality, All Ages	0.81	0.82	0.77	0.82	0.79

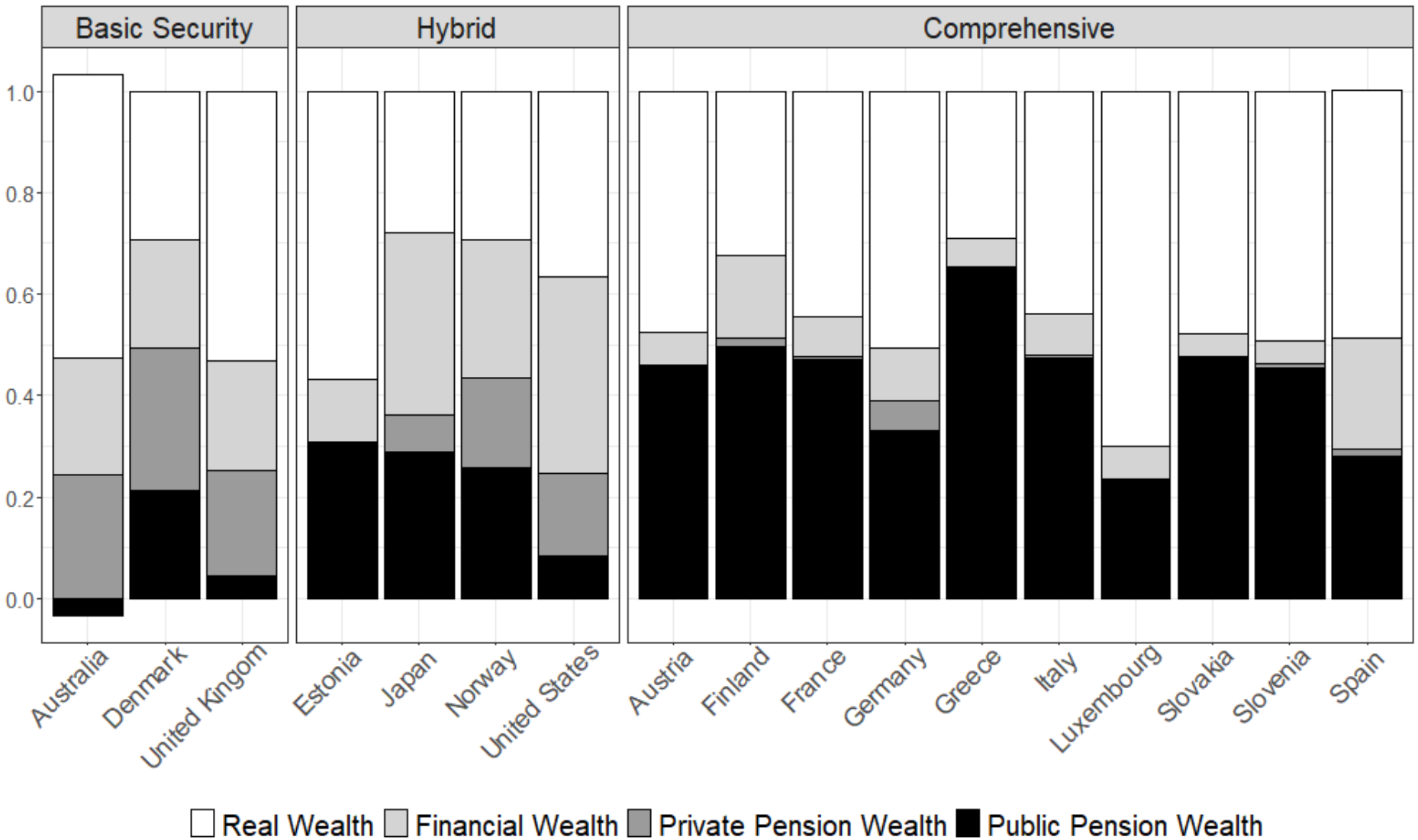
4) Decomposition Analysis

- Wealth components: Real wealth, financial wealth, private pension wealth, public pension wealth
- Gini factor decomposition (Lerman & Yitzhaki 1985)

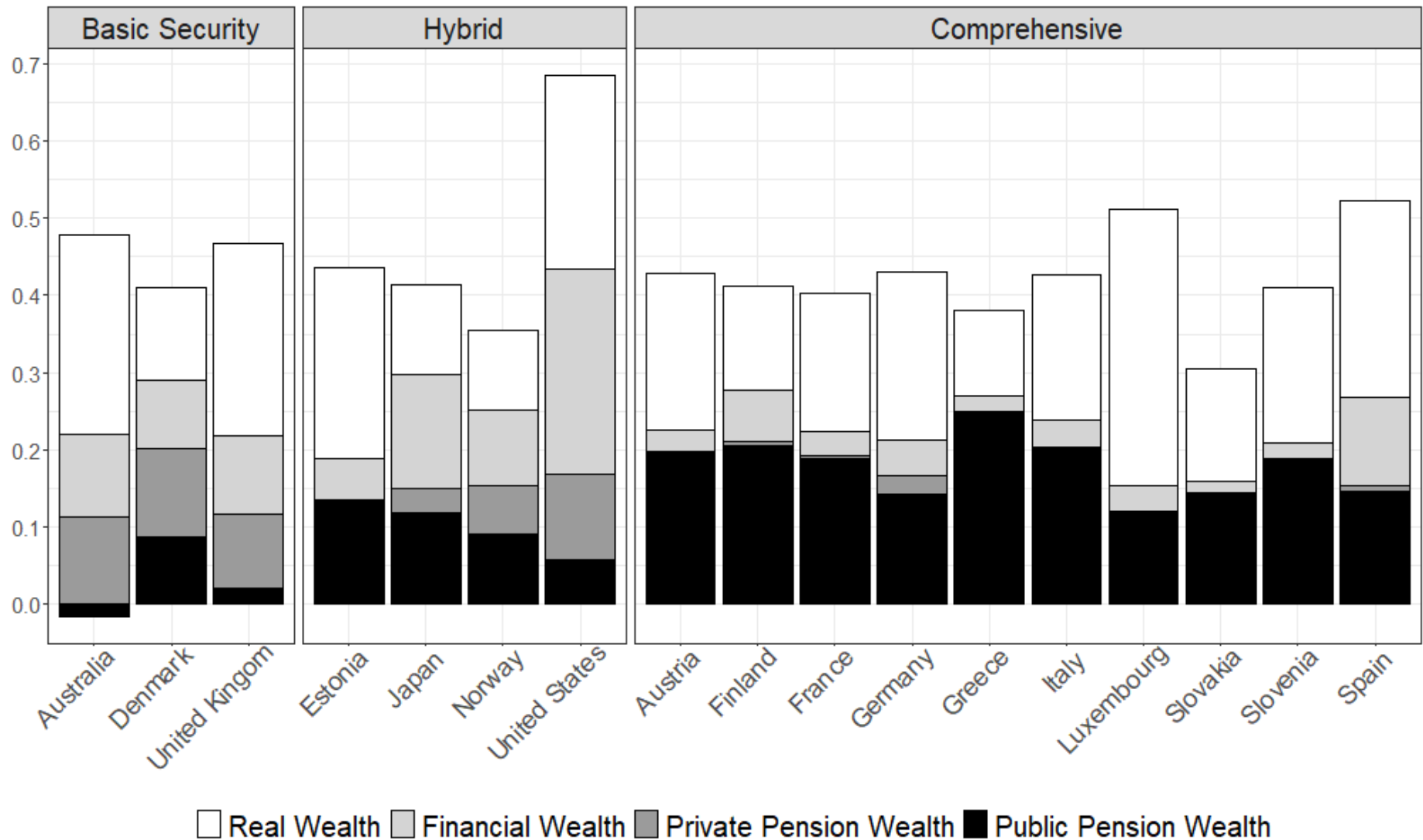
$$G = \sum_{k=1}^4 S_k G_k R_k$$

- S_k = share of wealth component k in aggregate wealth
- G_k = Gini of wealth component k
- R_k = equivalent to Pearson's rank correlation between component k and aggregate wealth distribution
- $S_k G_k R_k$ = Contribution of each wealth component k to total inequality
- $Progressivity_k = 1 - \frac{G_k R_k}{G_{aw}}$ = normalized Kakwani (1977) index

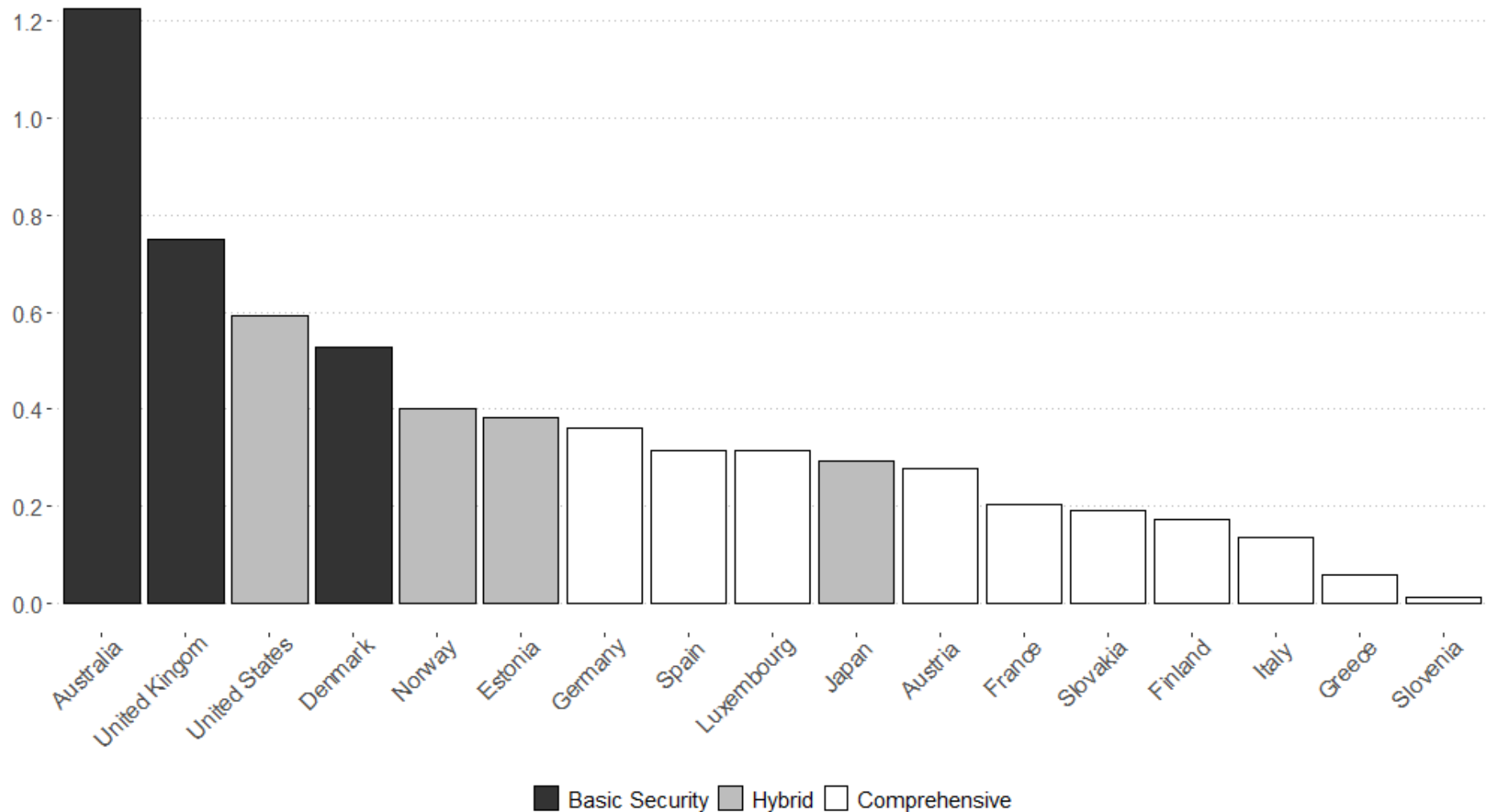
Decomposition by Wealth Source (Relative)



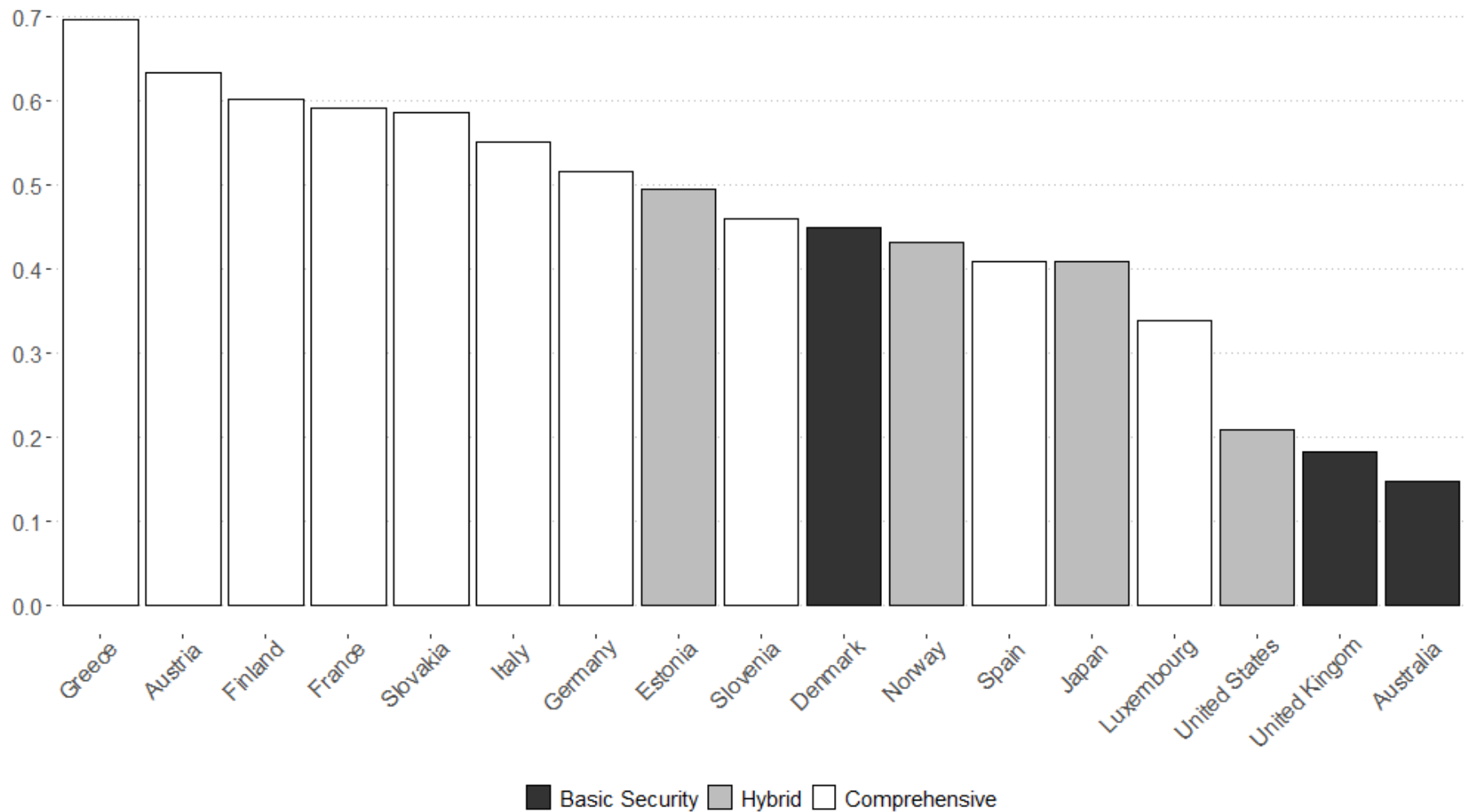
Decomposition by Wealth Source (Absolute)



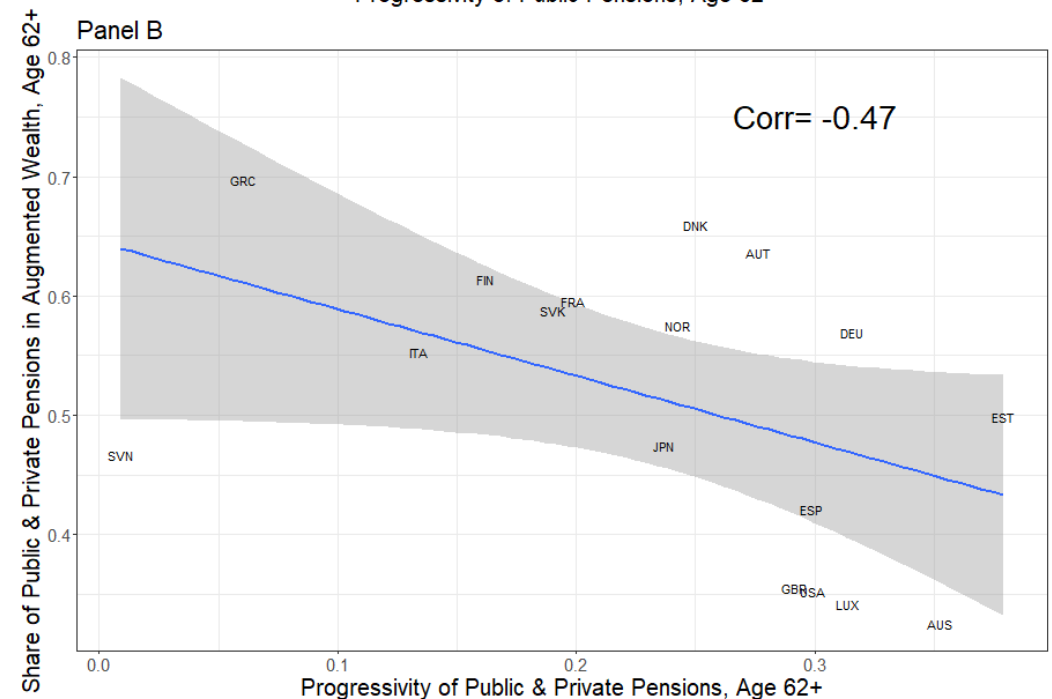
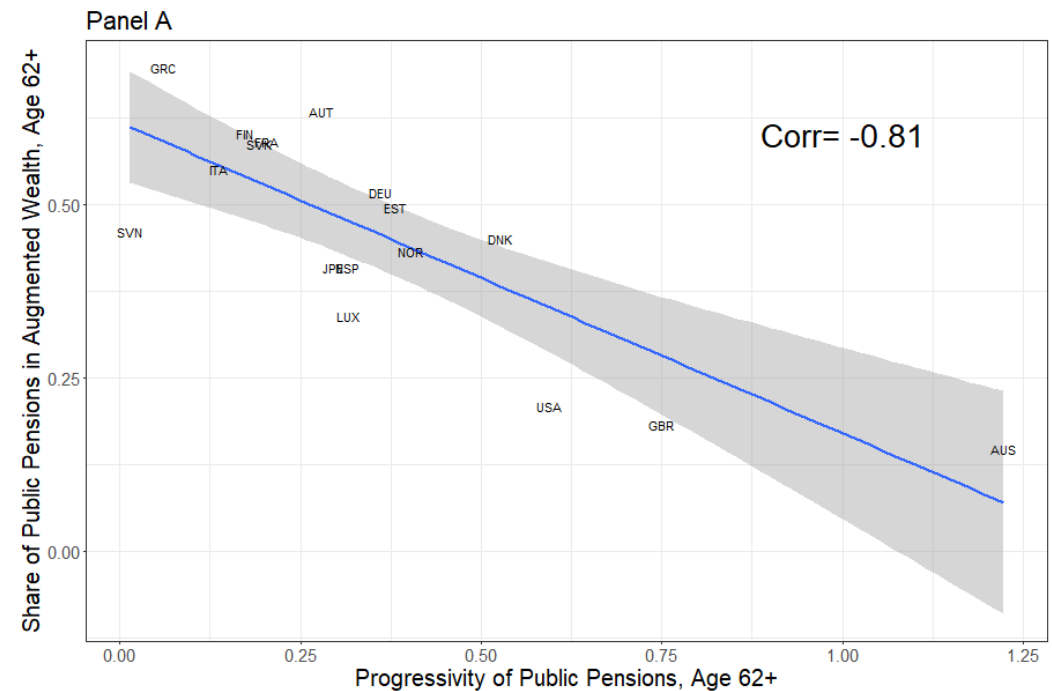
Progressivity of Public Pensions



Share of Public Pensions in Augmented Wealth

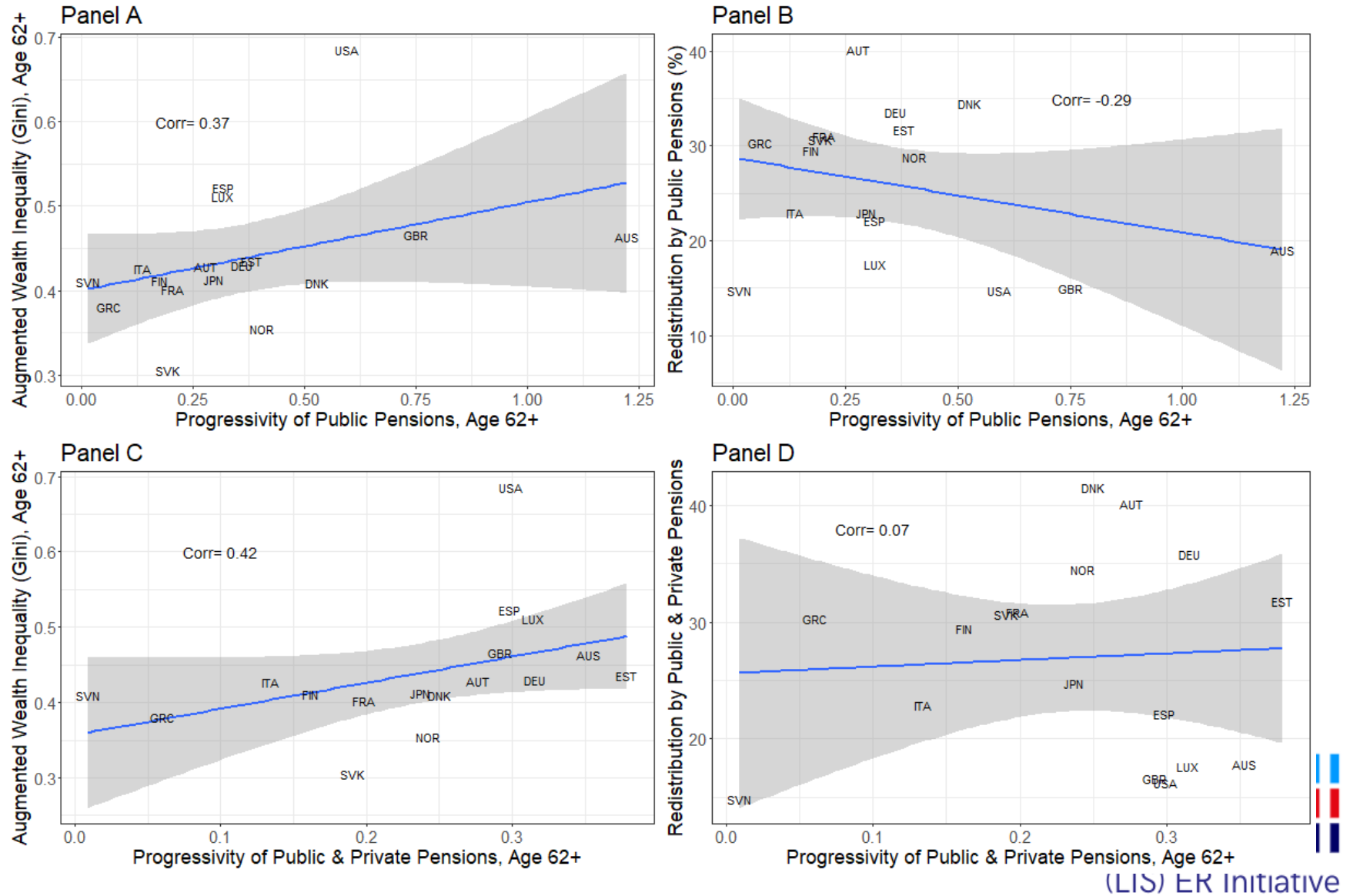


Progressivity vs Share of Pension Wealth

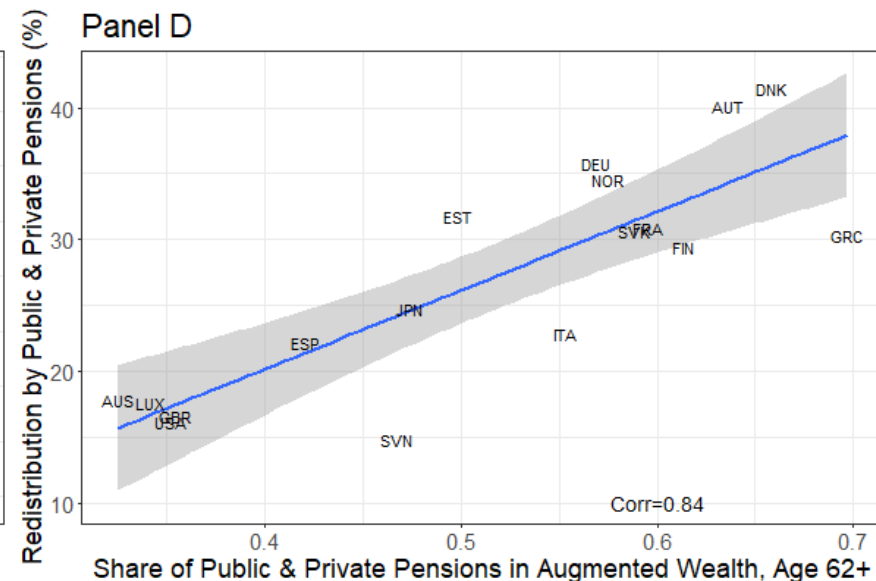
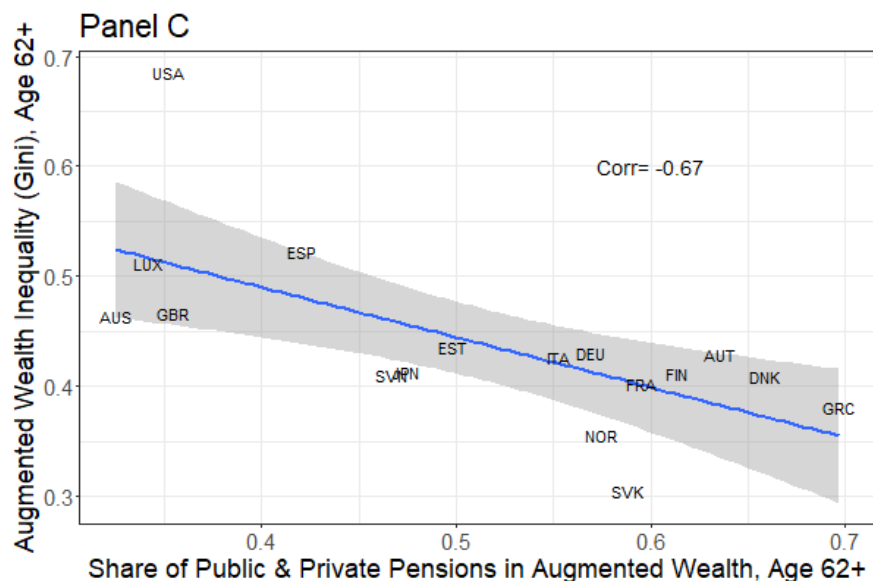
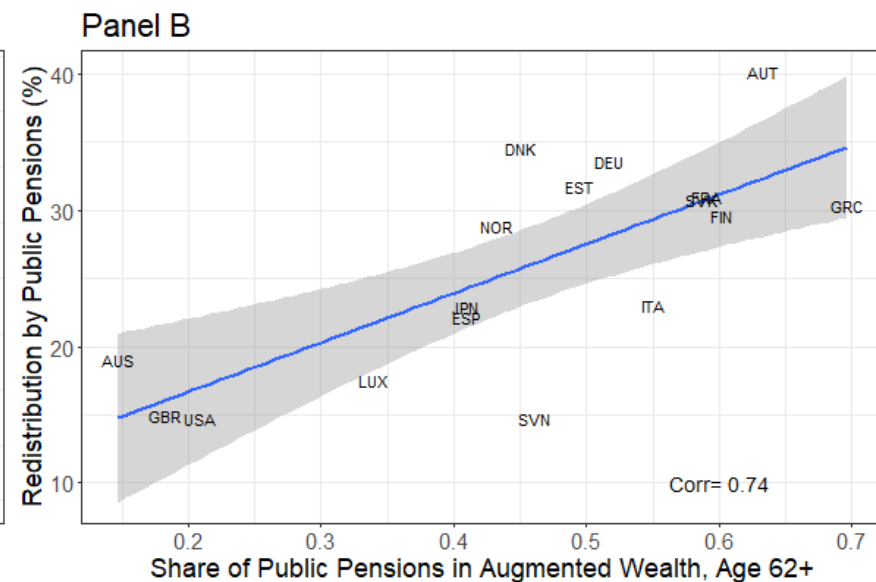
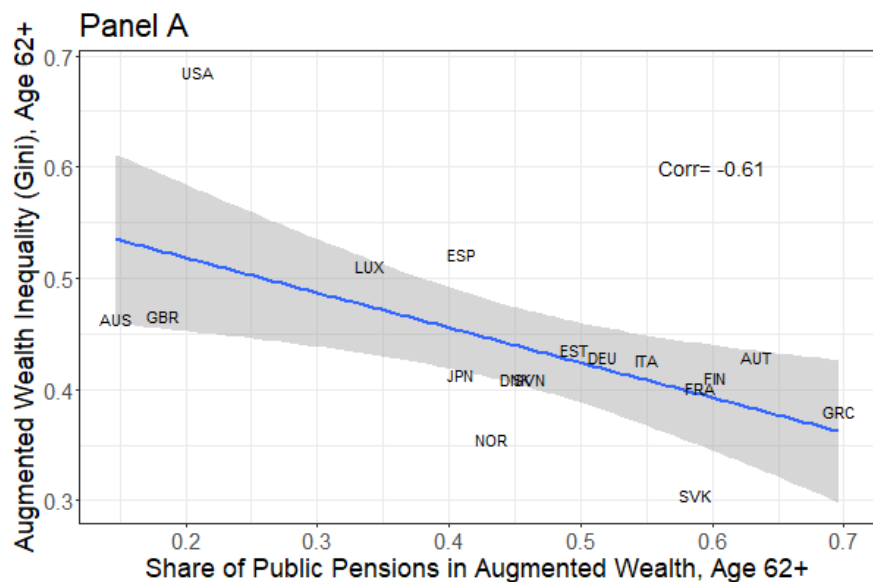


Role of system progressivity

Paradox of Redistribution?



It is the share (size) of pension wealth that matters



Regression: Progressivity sign flipped!

Table 4. Regression results, inequality and redistribution on pension institutions

	Public Pensions		Public + Private Pensions	
	Inequality	Redistribution	Inequality	Redistribution
(Intercept)	0.691 *** (0.112)	-15.426 * (5.928)	0.621 *** (0.106)	-21.401 *** (2.948)
Progressivity	-0.106 (0.098)	24.103 *** (5.154)	0.117 (0.181)	43.597 *** (5.033)
Pension Share	-0.470 * (0.176)	71.477 *** (9.324)	-0.409 * (0.152)	72.054 *** (4.220)
Adj. R-squared	0.345	0.799	0.383	0.948
N	17	17	17	17

Note: ⁺ $p < 0.1$, * $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$; In parentheses are standard errors.

Key Findings

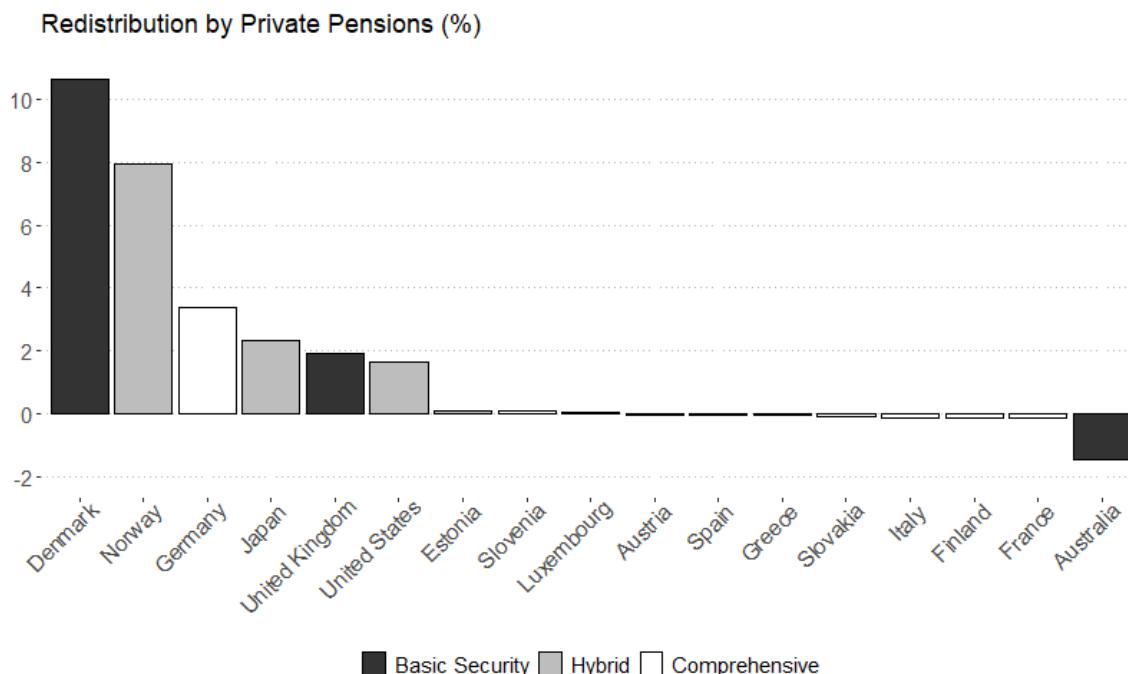
- Augmented wealth inequality: higher than income inequality, much lower than marketable wealth inequality
- When pensions are taken into account, cross-national patterning of wealth inequality resembles that of income inequality
 - Significance of welfare state institutions in wealth inequality
- In **comprehensive insurance** countries, public pension wealth contributes to inequality greatly, but the distribution of pension wealth is *less progressive* compared to **basic security** countries
- It is not the *progressivity* per se, but the *share* of pension wealth that strongly predicts wealth inequality & redistribution

Implications (1)

- Paradox of Redistribution: does ‘comprehensive but less redistributive’ social insurance eventually achieve greater equality & redistribution?
 - Only partly true, mainly through the *size* of pension assets
 - Denmark/Norway: public pensions are relatively progressive and achieves greater redistribution (jointly with private pensions)
- The story is not that “public pensions crowd out private pensions” (Korpi & Palme 1998)
 - It is the **mix of public & private pensions** that matters more
- Greater contributions (share) of *public & private* pension wealth to inequality may crowd out the influence of (more unequal) marketable wealth
 - Beckert (2024) & Manduca (2025): wealth may be not as important for low- & middle-income households in generous welfare states

Implications (2)

Private pensions are also part of the welfare state



- The nature of public-private pension mix varies substantially across countries, depending on regulation/management of occupational pension plans
 - Mandatory (France, Norway), quasi-mandatory (Netherlands, Denmark), auto-enrolment (UK), individualized (USA)
 - Also influenced by collective bargaining institutions (Denmark, Norway, Netherlands)