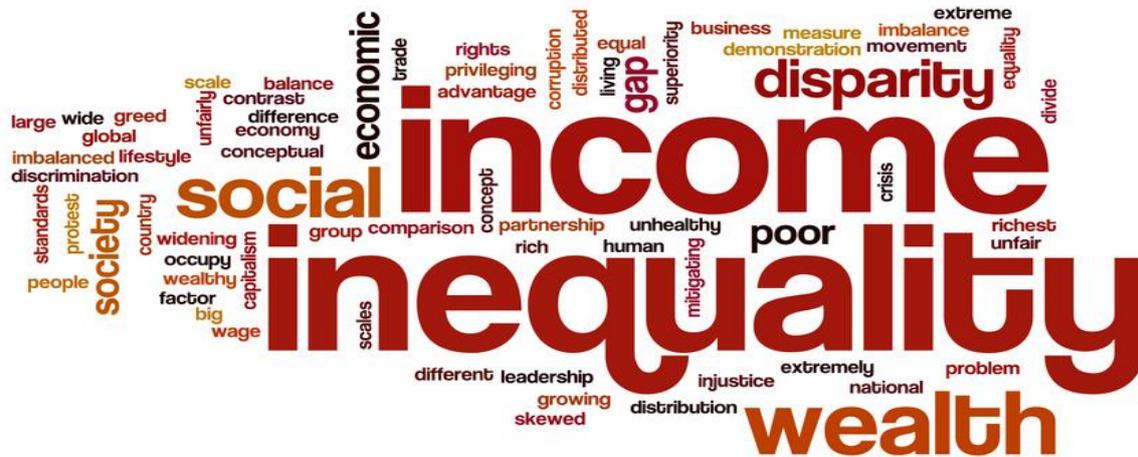


# Inequality Matters

Quarterly updates on inequality research, LIS micro data releases, and other developments at LIS



## MESSAGE FROM THE EDITOR

Dear readers,

We have added eight more datasets to the *Luxembourg Income Study (LIS) Database*: one for Italy (IT22), three for Mali (ML22–ML24), and four for Paraguay (PY21–PY24). The dataset IT22 has been also added to the *Luxembourg Wealth Study (LWS) Database*.

Please note that our annual **LIS Summer Workshop** is coming up - this is a one-week intensive course designed to introduce researchers in the social sciences to comparative research, using the Luxembourg Income Study (LIS) and the Luxembourg Wealth Study (LWS) Databases. More information on the application process and agenda can be found [here](#). Please forward to potentially interested scholars.

This issue's *Inequality Matters* section is devoted to pensions research. The article by Kun Lee (LIS & Luxembourg Institute of Socio-Economic Research (LISER)) examines how pension systems shape the distribution of wealth across countries. It incorporates pension entitlements into measures of household wealth, addressing a key limitation of conventional approaches that focus only on marketable assets such as housing and financial wealth. Using the Luxembourg Wealth Study (LWS), the analysis compares wealth inequality with and without pension wealth and investigates how institutional features of pension systems affect their redistributive impact on overall wealth inequality. In contrast to Lee's article the second article by William Fernandez (Hertie School/Humboldt University of Berlin) focuses on major pension reforms in response to demographic pressures. Population aging in Latin America is accelerating, putting pressure on Brazil's generous pension system and prompting policy reforms. The article examines the effects of Brazil's 2019 pension reform, focusing on how changes in retirement rules influence the labour supply of older adults and other household members.

Last but not least, we are happy to announce that our disaggregated inequality estimates in **DART** have been updated to reflect the latest World Bank 2021 PPPs updates. Explore the latest numbers [here](#)!

Enjoy reading!

Jörg Neugschwender

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## How Pension Systems (Re)shape the Landscape of Wealth Inequality and Redistribution

Kun Lee , LIS & Luxembourg Institute of Socio-Economic Research (LISER)

*Disclaimer: This article is based on a longer research paper, “Welfare states and wealth inequality: Pension systems, the public-private mix, and augmented wealth in old age” – a joint work with Javier Olivera (LISER) and Philippe Van Kerm (University of Luxembourg).*

### Key Messages

- Pensions play a strong redistributive role in shaping wealth distribution: estimated wealth inequality when pension entitlements are included is between 15 and 40 percent lower across countries than marketable wealth inequality alone.
- When pension entitlements are counted as wealth, the cross-national patterning of wealth inequality changes significantly and resembles that of income inequality.
- The relative size of pension systems matters more than the progressivity of benefit design: large-scale pension systems tend to compress the overall wealth distribution by limiting the outsized influence of marketable wealth, which is typically far more unequally distributed.

### Introduction

Wealth inequality has increasingly been recognized as one of the most pressing social problems of our time. Research shows that wealth inequality has been continuously rising across high-income countries since the 1980s (Piketty & Saez, 2014). Higher levels of wealth inequality tend to undermine equality of opportunity and intergenerational mobility (Beckert, 2022). Extreme concentrations of wealth can also weaken democratic governance, as top wealth holders may exercise disproportionate political influence (Page et al., 2013).

One of the common findings from the academic literature is that wealth inequality has distinct features and dynamics compared to income inequality. Across countries, wealth inequality is only weakly correlated with income inequality (Pfeffer & Waitkus, 2021). For example, Nordic countries that are known to be the most equal societies in terms of income distribution display high levels of wealth inequality, comparable to those in the United States (US), a country known for having the highest level of income inequality among advanced economies.

Most empirical studies on wealth inequality count only ‘marketable wealth’ – financial assets, real estates and other real assets – in their wealth measurement, excluding pensions and other social insurance entitlements. However, this approach can substantially understate households’ available economic resources, given that individuals with access to generous social benefits are less likely to accumulate large savings to insure themselves against future income risks. Moreover, the scale and design of welfare states vary hugely across countries, implying that cross-national comparisons of wealth inequality without considering social insurance entitlements may present a distorted picture.

Against this background, our study examines the redistributive role of pension systems by estimating wealth inequality when pension entitlements are translated into wealth values. Admittedly, pensions represent just one part of the welfare state – the institutional configuration of social policies, including benefits for families, unemployment, sickness, healthcare, and so on – but still account for the largest share of social expenditures. To offer relevant policy

implications, we further explore the institutional features that explain cross-national differences in the redistributive power of pension wealth.

### How much do pension systems redistribute wealth?

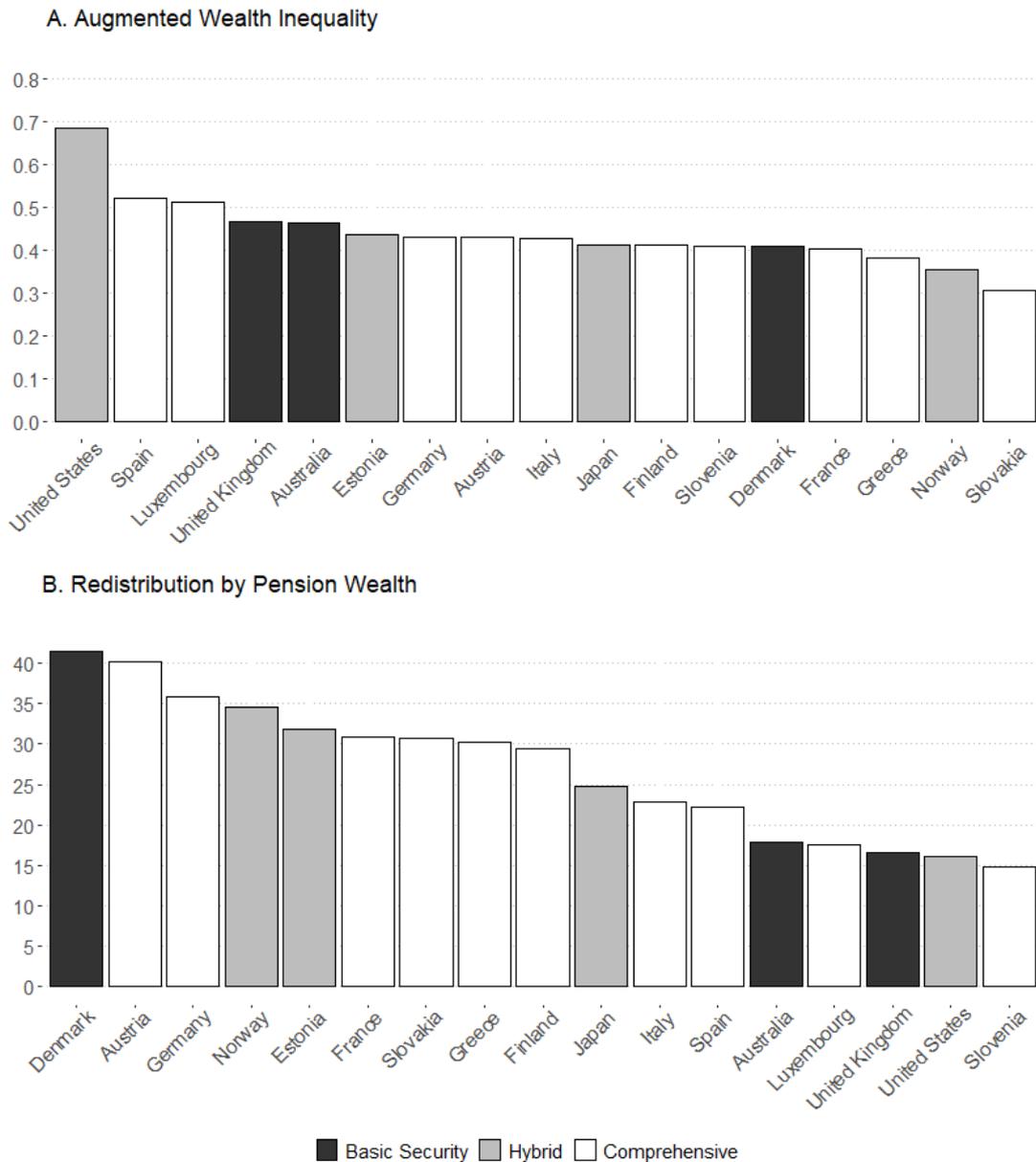
We used the Luxembourg Wealth Study (LWS) Database (LIS Cross-National Data Center, 2025), combined with the Wittgenstein Centre’s Human Capital Database (KC et al., 2024), to estimate the wealth value of household pension entitlements. Based on the latter database, we first computed gender-, education-, and cohort-specific remaining life expectancy at each age for all countries. The resulting life expectancy dataset was then merged with the LWS sample of older households in 17 high-income countries. The wealth value of pensions was obtained from calculations assuming that current pension incomes are received over the remaining lifetime until death, while survivors’ pensions are received from after a partner’s death. Using this simulated wealth of pension entitlements, we can evaluate the redistributive impact of pension systems by computing the percentage difference between ‘augmented’ and ‘marketable’ wealth inequality – the Gini coefficients of household wealth including and excluding pension wealth, respectively.

We also classified country-specific pension systems into three regimes – Comprehensive, Basic Security, and Hybrid types. *Comprehensive* systems are represented by most continental and Southern European countries, as well as by Finland, where large, dominant public pension schemes provide earnings-related benefits financed on a pay-as-you-go basis. In these countries, the role of private pensions is limited as the public system offers relatively generous income replacement rates even for high-income retirees. In contrast, in *basic security* systems the main public pillar focuses on minimum income provision through flat-rate benefits regardless of previous earnings or contributions. Therefore, large private pension markets are developed in these countries. Finally, *hybrid* systems feature an earnings-related public system but with significantly lower replacement rates for higher-income retirees. Private pensions therefore play an important role mostly for the upper and middle classes, although in Estonia private pillars remain relatively underdeveloped due to rapid structural transformation.

Figure 1A shows the level of augmented wealth inequality measured by the Gini coefficient across countries, whereas Figure 1B illustrates the percentage difference between marketable and augmented wealth inequality. Overall, wealth inequality looks much smaller when pension wealth is taken into account, ranging between 0.30 and 0.52 for most countries, except for the US – an extreme outlier. This is considerably lower than marketable wealth inequality that ranges between 0.5 and 0.85. Redistribution through pension wealth is particularly large in Denmark, Austria, Germany, and Norway, where wealth inequality declines by nearly or over 35 percent when pension wealth is considered. On the other hand, in Australia, Luxembourg, the United Kingdom (UK) and the US, the achieved wealth redistribution is below 20 percent, and in Slovenia it is as low as 15 percent.

Such huge variation in the redistributive power of pension wealth reshuffles the cross-country ranking of wealth inequality. When only marketable wealth inequality is considered, measured wealth inequality

**Figure 1. Augmented Wealth Inequality (A) and Redistribution by Pension Wealth (B)**



is among the highest in Austria (0.72), Denmark (0.70), and Germany (0.67), but these countries move to the middle or lower end of the cross-country distribution once pension wealth is included. By contrast, Luxembourg, the UK, and Australia rank around the middle in terms of marketable wealth inequality but move closer to the top in augmented wealth inequality.

**Is wealth inequality so different from income inequality?**

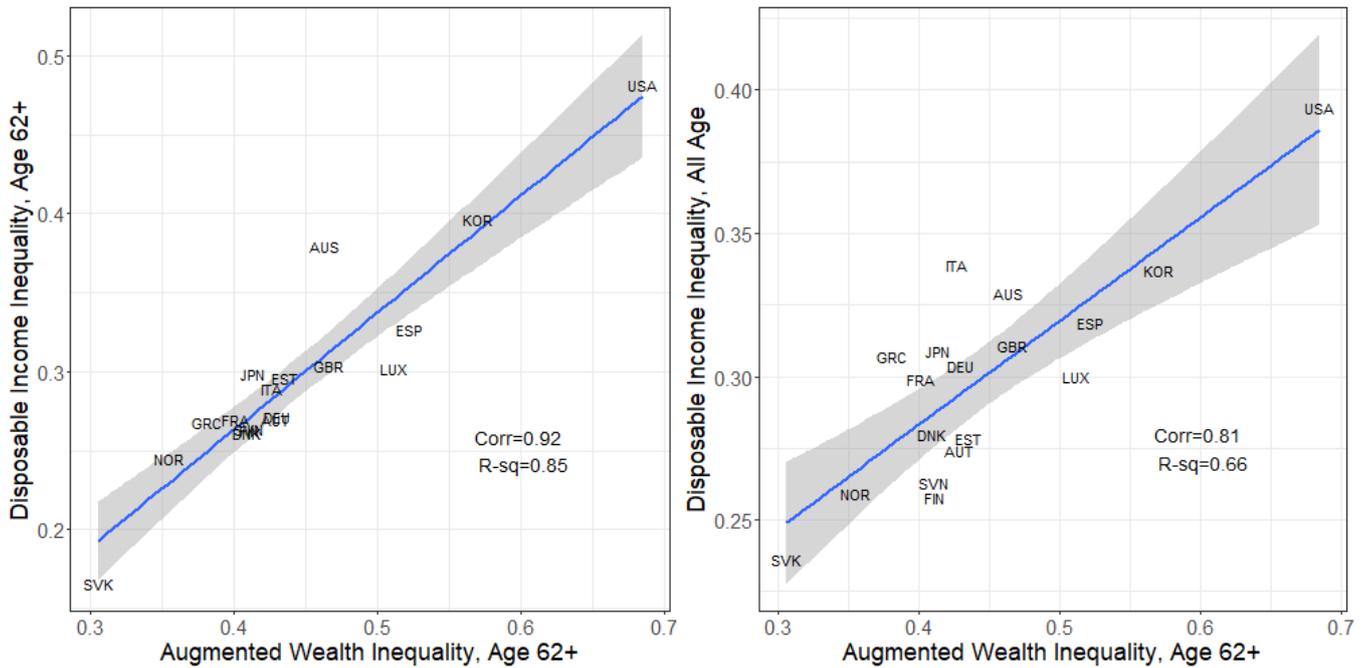
As noted earlier, an important insight from the literature is that income and wealth follow distinct dynamics. The former is a flow at specific points in time, whereas the latter is a stock that accumulates over time. As a result, income and wealth inequalities do not always correspond to each other. There are many workers with high salaries but hold relatively few assets. Conversely, most older households have lower incomes than working-age households but may still possess substantial wealth.

At the country level, the correlation between income inequality and (marketable) wealth inequality is known to be weak (Pfeffer & Waitkus, 2021). However, this picture is likely incomplete because wealth inequality is compared across countries with highly different pension

systems. Older adults tend to hold less marketable wealth when public pension systems guarantee generous income streams in retirement. Moreover, private defined-contribution pensions are sometimes captured as household wealth, but public pension entitlements are not. Evidence also suggests that there is an inverse relationship between public pension spending and home ownership rates across countries (Dewilde & Raeymaeckers, 2008).

Figure 2 presents the cross-country correlation between augmented wealth inequality – the same measure shown in Figure 1A – and household income inequality, also based on the LWS sample. The left-hand-side panel of Figure 2 shows that, when pension systems are considered, wealth inequality and income inequality are strongly correlated, with a Pearson correlation of 0.92. One might argue that this relationship is merely tautological, since augmented household wealth is partly derived from household pension income. To address this problem, the right-hand-side panel of Figure 2 uses household income inequality measured for the entire population rather than only among older households. The correlation is still high at 0.82.

Figure 2. Augmented wealth inequality in old age versus disposable income inequality in old age (left) and versus disposable income inequality in the total population (right)



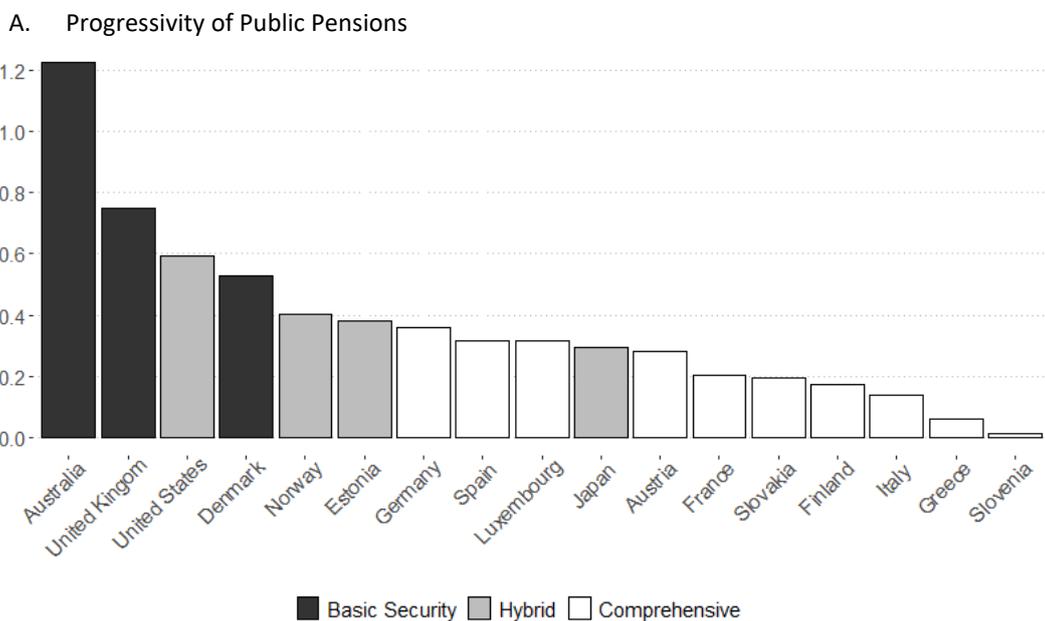
**The importance of the institutional pension design**

Then what explains the large cross-national variation in the redistributive power of pension wealth? To explore the role of institutional pension designs, we conducted a decomposition analysis by classifying household wealth into four components: financial wealth, real wealth, public pension wealth, and private pension wealth. We decomposed the relative contributions of public and private pension wealth to overall inequality into two elements: (a) the share of pension wealth in total augmented wealth (*relative size*); and (b) the *concentration coefficient* – the degree to which pension wealth is concentrated at the top or bottom of the augmented wealth distribution. Using the concentration coefficient, we can capture how

progressive pension systems are: the more pension wealth is concentrated toward the bottom, the more progressive the pension system.

Figure 3A displays the progressivity index of public pension systems across the selected countries. Consistent with the pension regime classification, public schemes in *basic security* countries are the most progressive by institutional design, followed by *hybrid* countries except for Japan. *Comprehensive* public systems, by contrast, show less progressive structures. On the other hand, the share of public pension wealth in total wealth, as shown in Figure 3B, is generally higher in *comprehensive* countries than in *basic security* countries, while *hybrid* countries do not show a consistent pattern within the group.

Figure 3. Progressivity Index (A) and Share (B) of Public Pension Wealth



**Figure 3. Progressivity Index (A) and Share (B) of Public Pension Wealth (continued)**

**B. Share of Public Pensions in Augmented Wealth**

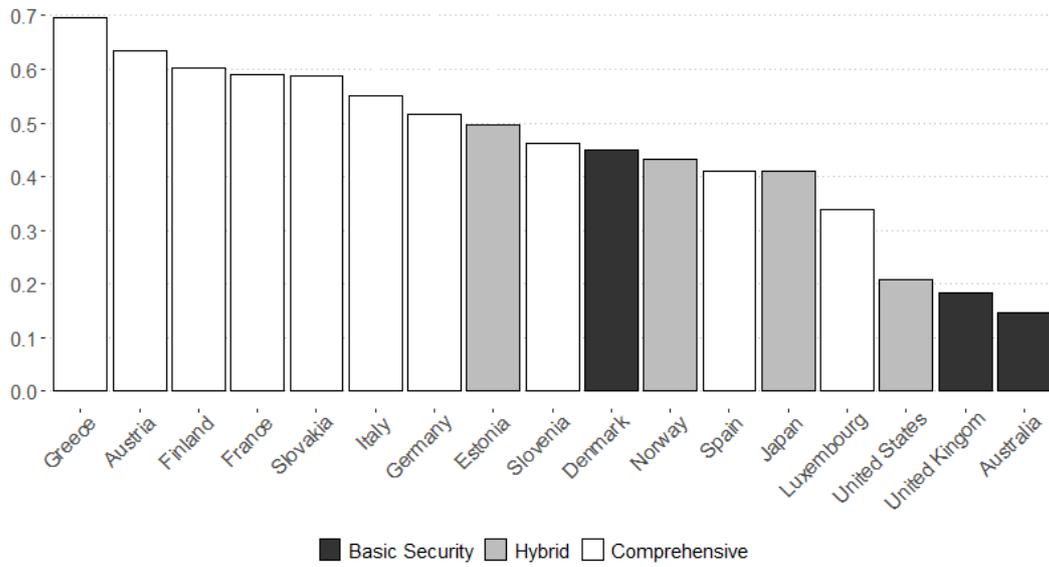
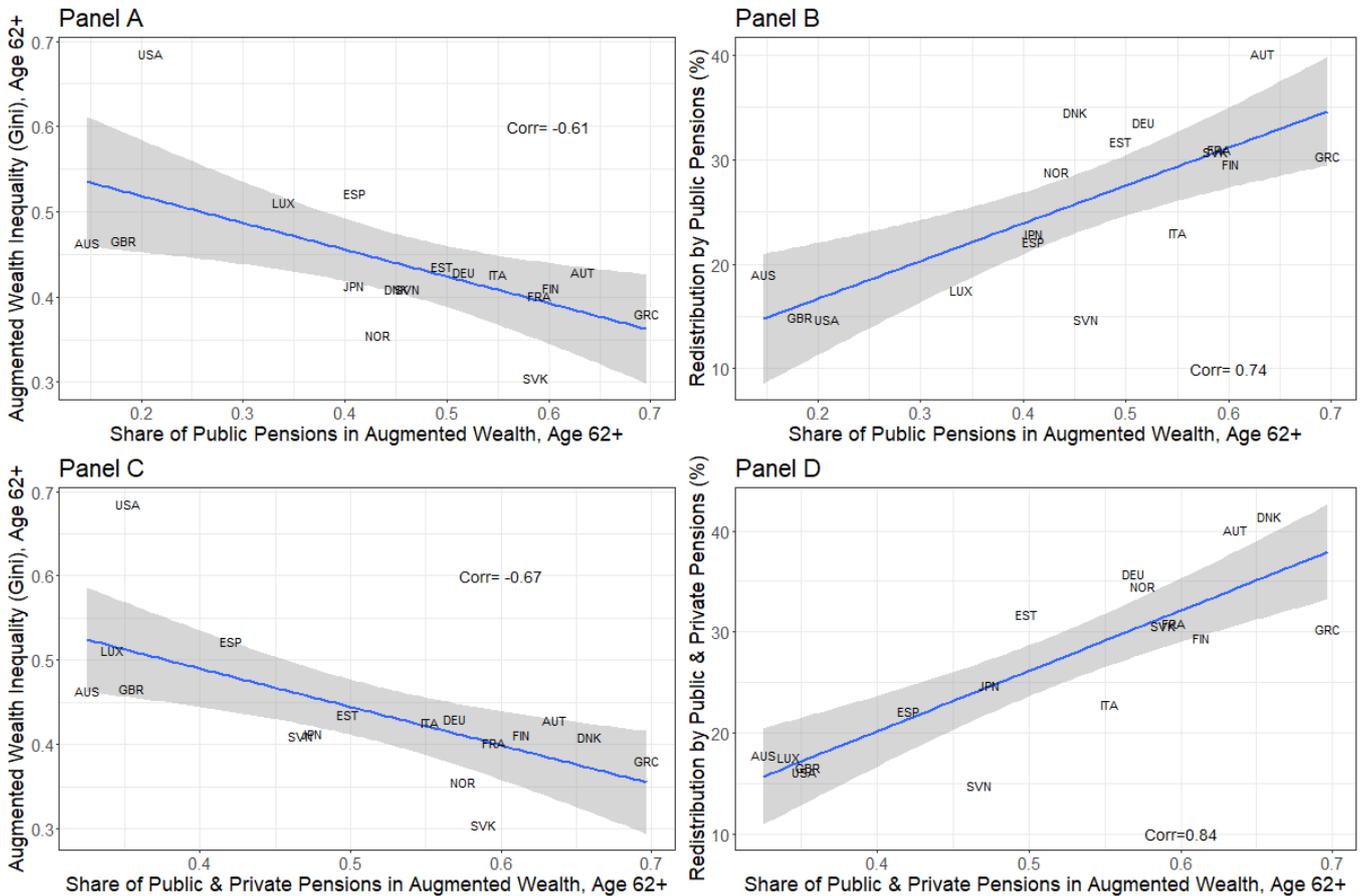


Figure 4 reveals that, rather than the progressivity of the benefit design itself, it is the share of pension wealth (its *relative size*) that is strongly associated with the redistributive power of pension systems – and overall wealth inequality. Countries where pension wealth accounts for a larger share of total wealth tend to achieve greater redistribution through pension systems. The relationship is stronger when both public

and private pension wealth are considered compared to when solely public pension wealth is included. Countries with more progressive pension designs often achieve relatively weak redistribution through pension systems, largely due to its smaller share of pension wealth in total wealth.

**Figure 4. Share of Public Pensions (Panels A, B) and Public & Private Pensions (Panels C, D) versus Wealth Inequality (Panels A, C) and Redistribution (Panels B, D)**



### Concluding remarks

For most households – maybe except for the super-rich – pensions are an important source of economic well-being and a substitute for personal savings, despite their limited market exchangeability and liquidity. Our analysis shows that pension systems play a massive redistributive role in shaping wealth inequality. When household pension entitlements are translated into wealth values, wealth inequality looks significantly lower in all countries, by around 15 to over 40 percent, compared to when only counting marketable wealth. The redistributive impact depends strongly on the size of pension wealth relative to other forms of wealth within a country. The result implies that large-scale pension systems may crowd out the influence of other wealth sources, such as financial and housing assets, which tend to be much more unequal than the distribution of (earnings-related) pension entitlements.

Another important finding is that the mix of public and private pensions better predicts wealth inequality and redistribution through pensions than public pensions alone. While it is commonly assumed that private pension schemes mainly benefit high-income retirees more and are thus less redistributive, in several cases including Denmark, Norway, and the UK, private pensions are an important source of wealth for middle- and

even low-income households. This challenges the simple dichotomy of public and private pensions. The way private pension schemes work is highly context-dependent, and their impact may be contingent on how they are managed, collectively organized, and regulated.

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## Intergenerational Effects of Older Adults' Retirement on Adult Women's Labor Force Participation in Brazil<sup>1</sup>

William Fernandez , Hertie School/Humboldt University of Berlin



### Key Messages

- In Brazil, older women's retirement significantly increases adult women's labor force participation, reflecting a substitution effect in which retired older women provide childcare and household support.
- The effects of older men's retirement on adult women's labor supply are much smaller, highlighting gendered differences in intergenerational spillovers.
- Brazil's 2019 Pension Reform, which tightened retirement eligibility, could potentially reduce labor force participation among younger adults.

### Introduction

In Latin America and the Caribbean, the proportion of older adults is expected to increase from approximately 10% in 2024 to 20% by 2054, effectively doubling in just 30 years (ECLAC, 2024). This accelerating demographic transition raises urgent concerns about how to finance the consumption and healthcare needs of aging populations. To address the fiscal implications of population aging, several countries have implemented policy reforms aimed at reducing future public spending (Arza, 2017). A common measure involves raising the retirement age. While extensive research has examined the effects of such policies on the labor supply of older adults and their spouses, much less attention has been paid to potential intergenerational spillover effects. In particular, understanding the implications for adult women is crucial, since several studies highlight the role of grandparents as providers of informal childcare, a factor that has significantly influenced the labor market participation of young women, particularly mothers of young children.

Brazil is one of the countries facing important fiscal pressures due to rapid population aging, a high degree of labor informality, and the generosity of old-age pension benefits (Queiroz and Souza, 2017). The elevated number of beneficiaries and the fiscal pressures stemming from the contributory pension system were the main drivers of the 2019 pension reform (Reforma da Previdência). This reform tightened eligibility rules, changed contribution rates, introduced a minimum retirement age for all individuals, and gradually raised the minimum retirement age for women from 60 to 62 (Presidência da República, 2019; Zviniene and Tsukada, 2023). The reform is currently in a transition period in which older cohorts close to retirement still qualify under the previous rules, while new cohorts are already subject to stricter eligibility criteria and potentially lower pension benefits. In this context, understanding the intergenerational spillover effects of retirement in Brazil on the labor force participation of older adults and young women living in multigenerational households becomes crucial.

### Institutional Context

The Brazilian public pension system was historically generous and among the most fragmented in Latin America. It consists of four main subsystems: the General Social Security Scheme (RGPS) for private sector workers, which administers both the urban pension scheme and the special scheme for rural workers (Rural Pension); the pension

scheme for government employees (RPPS); and a separate scheme for the armed forces. In addition to these public schemes, occupational pension plans based on voluntary savings are available. Furthermore, a non-contributory program, the Continuous Cash Benefit (Benefício de Prestação Continuada, BPC), provides a transfer equivalent to one minimum wage to low-income individuals aged 65 and older and to persons with disabilities, thereby offering protection to those who do not qualify for an RGPS pension. The RGPS, RPPS, and BPC are all administered by the National Social Security Institute (INSS) (Queiroz and Alves, 2021; Sarlet, 2021; Zviniene and Tsukada, 2023).

The Brazilian Pension System was initially conceived in a context of rapid population growth and low life expectancy, which allowed for the sustainability of its different schemes. However, this relatively comprehensive old-age benefit package came at a high fiscal cost. Due to the flexibility of the various pathways, public pension expenditure rose sharply from 4.6 percent of GDP in 1980 to 12.7 percent of GDP in 2019. As a reference, only a few OECD countries, typically older ones, spent at comparable levels in 2021, such as France, Austria or Italy (Queiroz and Bueno, 2011; Zviniene and Tsukada, 2023). To ensure the sustainability of the different schemes, the Presidency enacted the Emenda Constitucional No. 103 in 2019, known as the 2019 Pension Reform.

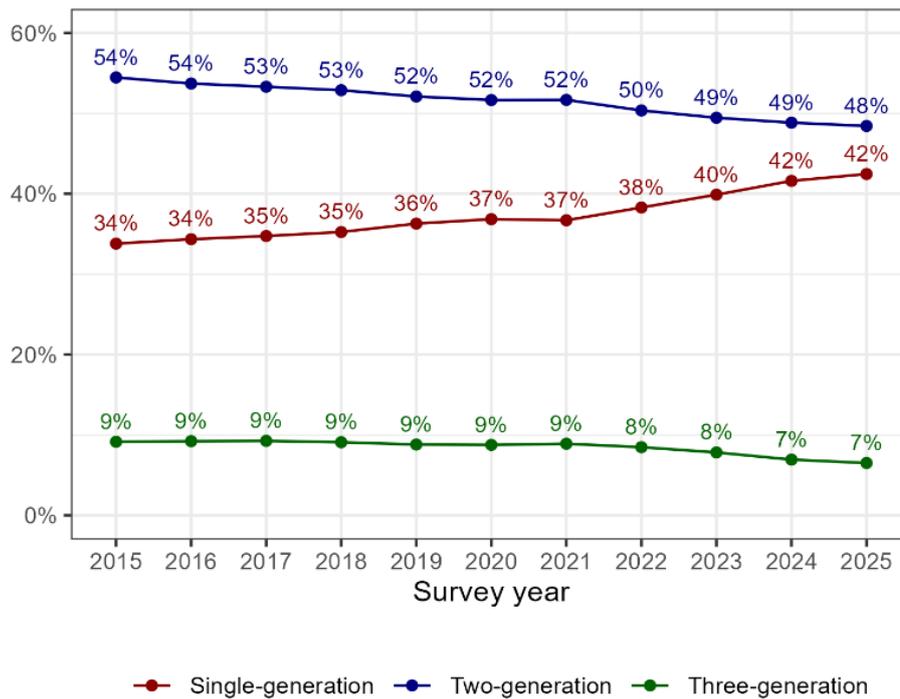
### The 2019 Pension Reform

The 2019 Pension Reform introduced more restrictive retirement rules for both the RPPS and RGPS. For both schemes, the reform eliminated retirement based solely on length of contribution and established a minimum retirement age, previously unknown in the Brazilian public pension system, along with contribution requirements that vary by professional activity. For the RGPS, the minimum retirement age for women was gradually raised from 60 to 62, while the minimum contribution period for men was increased to 20 years. In the case of the RPPS, the reform mandated at least 35 years of contributions for both women and men, a minimum of 10 years in public service, and at least five years in the final position (Queiroz and Afonso, 2025; Sarlet, 2021). The reform also changed contribution rates, reducing them for low-income insured individuals and increasing them for high-income earners (OECD, 2021). Those who had already qualified for pension benefits prior to the reform were not affected, and a transition period was established for those nearing retirement. The transition period is expected to last between 12 and 14 years, during which five special sets of rules can be applied to meet retirement eligibility. The legislation guarantees that employees may always choose the most advantageous transition rule (Sarlet, 2021).

### Household types in Brazil

Although multigenerational households remain relatively prevalent in Latin America compared to other regions, Figure 1 shows that their share has declined over time. Using quarterly PNADC data from 2016 to 2025, I calculate the percentage of single-, two-, and three-generation households in Brazil. The percentages of both two- and three-generation households have decreased over this period. Two-generation households, which accounted for the majority of families

Figure 1. Household types in Brazil



Note: The plot uses only data from the first quarter of each year and includes urban households.

Source: PNADC 2016-2025.

(54%) in 2015, fell to 48% by 2025. Similarly, three-generation households declined from 9% in 2015 to 7% in 2025. In contrast, single-generation households increased from 34% in 2015 to 42% in 2025, reflecting a gradual shift toward smaller household structures.

#### Statutory Retirement Age and Labor Force Participation

Using data from the 2016–2019 waves of Brazil’s Continuous National Household Sample Survey (PNADC), I estimate the labor force participation effects of retirement in Brazil for older adults. This period is selected because it captures observations that are not affected by the labor market disruptions associated with the COVID-19 pandemic or by the reform’s transition rules. Moreover, only two- or three-generation households in which older women are aged 50 to 70 and men 55 to 75 are considered. The statutory retirement ages are 60 for women and 65 for men. For these analyses, an individual is considered retired if they self-report receiving a pension from the INSS and report no paid work in the week prior to the survey.

The regression analyses confirm that retirement eligibility decreases the labor force participation of older adults. These models control for education level and include region and year–trimester fixed effects. In Figure 2, being eligible for retirement increases the probability of being retired by 0.39 for men and 0.38 for women. Moreover, the share of older women working in paid employment decreases significantly in both the reduced-form and IV models (0.2 and 0.6, respectively), with the IV model using retirement eligibility as an instrument for retirement. For men, the decrease is also significant. Regarding working hours, retirement eligibility reduces women’s hours by 9.3 and men’s by 13.3. The IV models show a stronger decrease, 23.5 for women and 34.3 for men, once they transition into retirement upon becoming eligible.

#### Intergenerational Effects of Older Adults’ Retirement on Adult Women’s Labor

Table 1 and Table 2 show the effect of older women’s and men’s retirement on the labor force participation of adult women aged 16 to 45 who coreside with them. This analysis includes households both with and without children. According to Table 1, living with an older woman who is retirement eligible (older than 60) increases the share of adult women reporting paid work by 0.07 and raises the weekly working hours by almost 3. The 2SLS models show that coresiding with an older woman who transitions into retirement upon becoming eligible further increases these estimates. Specifically, the share of adult women reporting paid work rises by almost 0.2, while the working hours increase by an average of 7.4. These results suggest a substitution effect between older and adult women’s working hours, implying that retired older women may take on household chores or childcare, allowing younger women to increase their labor force participation.

Table 2 performs a similar analysis but focuses on adult women coresiding with older men aged 55 to 75. Those living with a retirement-eligible man increase their weekly working hours by 0.7 on average. Using the statutory retirement age as an instrumental variable shows that this effect is slightly larger for adult women living with an older man who retires past the retirement age, though the increase remains small, only 1.6 hours on average. These results suggest a gendered effect of older adults’ retirement: while both older women’s and men’s retirement increase adult women’s labor force participation, the effect is substantially higher for older women’s retirement. For older men’s retirement, the impact is minimal, likely reflecting a negative household income effect.

Figure 2. Impact of retirement on labor force participation of older adults

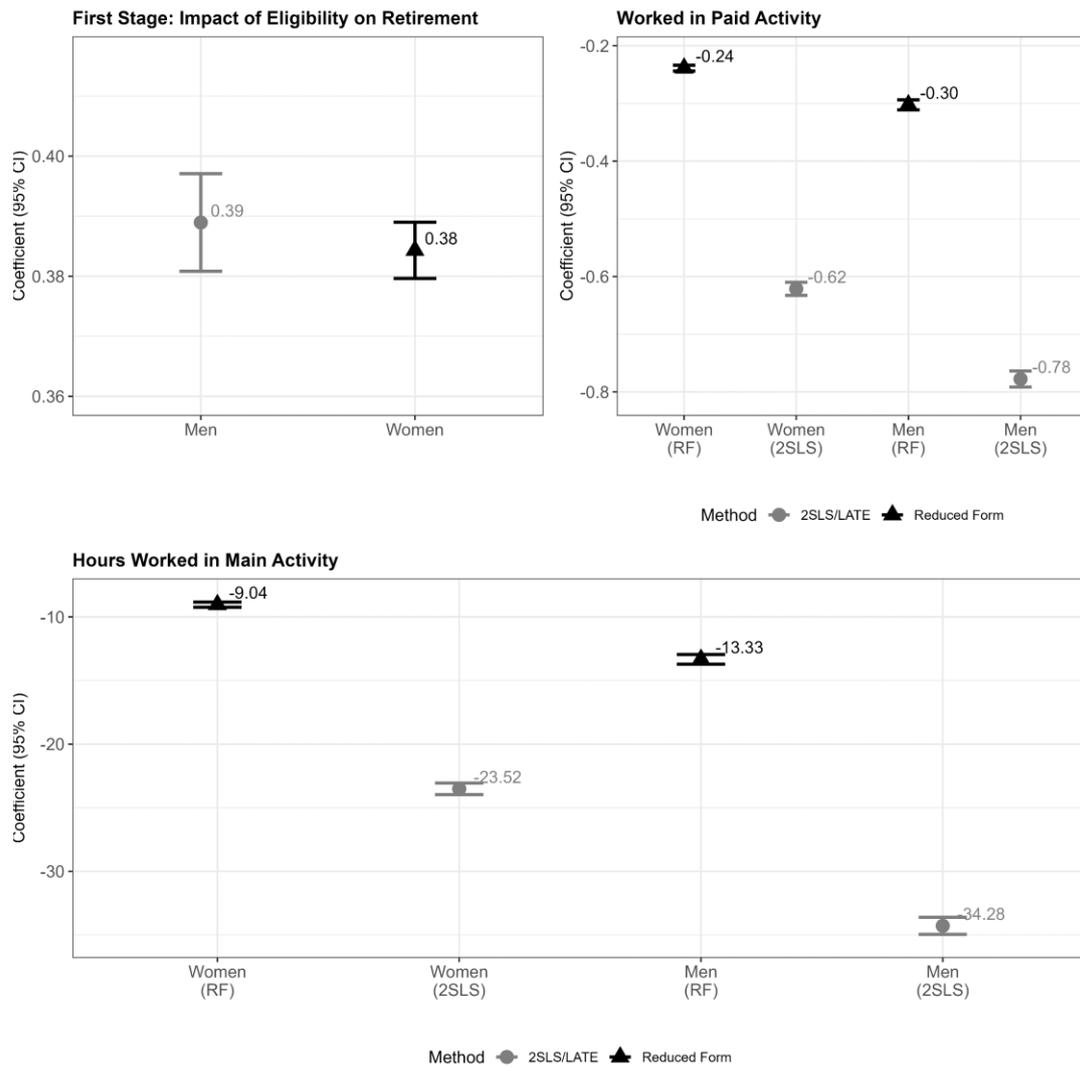


Table 1. Impact of older women's retirement on labor force participation of adult women

Variable	Reduced Form				2SLS			
	Worked	SE	Hours	SE	Worked	SE	Hours	SE
Eligible	0.07***	0.003	2.9***	0.141				
Retired (IV)					0.19***	0.009	7.4***	0.371
Observations	77,638		77,638		77,638		77,638	

Notes: 1/. Reduced form estimates represent intent-to-treat effects of retirement eligibility for women older than the SRA, while 2SLS estimates represent the LATE effect for older women who transition into retirement once they reach the SRA. 2/. Independent variable of interest is older woman's retirement eligibility and its interaction with household children categories. 3/. All estimations control for education level, region, and year-trimester fixed effects. \*p<0.1; \*\*p<0.05; \*\*\*p<0.01.

Table 2. Impact of older men's retirement on labor force participation of adult women

Variable	Reduced Form				2SLS			
	Worked	SE	Hours	SE	Worked	SE	Hours	SE
Eligible	0.02***	0.006	0.65***	0.226				
Retired (IV)					0.05***	0.014	1.6***	0.572
Observations	31,318		31,318		31,318		31,318	

Notes: 1/. Reduced form estimates represent intent-to-treat effects of retirement eligibility for women older than the SRA, while 2SLS estimates represent the LATE effect for older women who transition into retirement once they reach the SRA. 2/. Independent variable of interest is older woman's retirement eligibility and its interaction with household children categories. 3/. All estimations control for education level, region, and year-trimester fixed effects. \*p<0.1; \*\*p<0.05; \*\*\*p<0.01.

## Conclusion and Policy Implications

The results for Brazil indicate that older individuals' retirement affects not only their own labor market outcomes but also the labor force participation of other household members in multigenerational households. Although the share of multigenerational households has declined over time, they still account for more than half of families in Brazil, making it crucial to understand the broader implications of life course transitions such as retirement on other household members. While it is still early to assess the labor market effects of Brazil's 2019 pension reform, the delay in the retirement age for women and the stricter eligibility rules for men could reduce the labor force participation of younger generations, particularly adult women who rely on older household members for childcare and domestic support. These findings highlight the importance of considering intergenerational spillovers when evaluating pension policy reforms.

<sup>1</sup> This article is an outcome of a research visit carried out in the context of the (LIS)<sup>2</sup>ER initiative which received funding from the Luxembourg Ministry of Higher Education and Research.

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## Data News / Data Release Schedule



**Italy** (1 new LIS dataset and 1 revised) – one new dataset (**IT22**) added to the LIS Database.  
 (1 new LWS dataset and 2 revised) – one new dataset (**IT22**) added to the LWS Database.

**Mali** (3 new LIS datasets and 7 revised) – three new datasets (**ML22-ML24**) added to the LIS Database.

**Paraguay** (4 new LIS datasets and 22 revised) – four new datasets (**PY21-PY24**) added to the LIS Database.

**Spain** (3 LWS datasets revised) - correction of variable hc7 (expenses for transport) in **ES17**, **ES21**, and **ES22**.

### Data Releases and Revisions – Luxembourg Income Study (LIS)

#### Italy

One new dataset from Italy (**IT22**) has been added to the LIS Database. The dataset is created from the 2022 wave of the Survey of Household Income and Wealth (SHIW) carried out by the **Bank of Italy**. In addition, for dataset **IT20** the weighting variables have been updated, reflecting the latest variable provided by the Bank of Italy. Also, the variable for taxes and social contributions (*hxitsc*) has been slightly adjusted; this change impacts disposable household income (*dhi*) with a minor change in the LIS Key Figures.

#### Mali

Three new data points for Mali (**ML22**, **ML23**, and **ML24**) have been added to the LIS Database. The datasets are based on the Modular and Permanent Household Survey (EMOP) that is carried out by the Malian **National Statistical Institute (INSTAT)**. All datasets from the Malian data series have been readjusted to include the final annual consolidated sample for consumption expenditure, accompanied by the corresponding weight as provided by the data provider. The sample consists of all households who responded to at least three out of the four interviews held during the reference period. This change has a minor overall impact on the LIS Key Figures, but slightly increased the percentage of missing values in disposable household income, since the new sample includes more households who did not participate in the only interview where income information was collected.

In addition, LIS reviewed the consistency of **ML11** and **ML13** with the later years in the series, and disregarded these datasets for comparability concerns. Note these data points were the only two which had no information provided in the LIS Key Figures.

#### Paraguay

Four new datasets from Paraguay, **PY21–PY24**, have been added to the LIS Database. The dataset **PY21** is created from the Permanent Household Survey (EPH) and the datasets **PY22**, **PY23**, and **PY24** are created from the Permanent Household Continuous Survey (EPHC) both conducted by the **National Institute of Statistics of Paraguay (Instituto Nacional de Estadística (INE))**.

### Data Releases and Revisions – Luxembourg Wealth Study (LWS)

#### Italy

One new dataset from Italy (**IT22**) has been added to the LWS Database. The dataset is created from the 2022 wave of the Survey of Household Income and Wealth (SHIW) carried out by the **Bank of Italy**. In addition, for dataset **IT20** the weighting variables have been updated, reflecting the latest variable provided by the Bank of Italy. Also, the variable for taxes and social contributions (*hxitsc*) has been slightly adjusted; this change impacts disposable household income (*dhi*) with a minor change in the LIS Key Figures.

Furthermore, the datasets **IT16** and **IT20** provide now additional information on expectations about the economy (*boee1\_c* in **IT16** / *boee1\_c* and *boee2\_c* in **IT20**).

### LIS/LWS Data Release Schedule

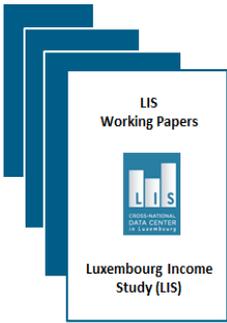
	Summer 2026	Autumn 2026
<b>LIS Database</b>		
Belgium	BE22, BE23, BE24	
Mexico	MX24	
Peru		PE22, PE23, PE24
Philippines	PH85, PH88, PH91, PH94, PH97, PH00, PH03, PH06, PH09, PH12, PH15, PH18, PH21, PH23	
Slovenia		SI05-SI23
Spain		ES23, ES24
Sweden	SE84-SE99, SE22, SE23	
<b>LWS Database</b>		
Finland	F187, F188, F194, F198, F104	
Ireland	IE13, IE18, IE20	

### Luxembourg Consumption Study (LCS)

The LIS team is currently finalising a beta version of the Luxembourg Consumption Study (LCS) Database. Building on the valuable insights from the **LCS expert workshop** held earlier this year, the project will be introduced in early June, coinciding with a call for papers for the next III-LIS conference held in London in February 2027. Access to the data will follow later this year.

Researchers interested in learning more about the project are encouraged to contact Jörg Neugschwender at [neugschwender@lisdatacenter.org](mailto:neugschwender@lisdatacenter.org). We look forward to connecting with you and providing further information.

## Working Papers & Publications



### Focus on **The Wealth–Health Gradient Across Adulthood: A Cross-National Comparative Analysis** [↗](#) LWS WP No. 52 by Davide Gritti, Dina Maskileyson, Raffaele Grotti, Stefani Scherer

Prior research documents a robust wealth–health gradient, yet comparative evidence is largely confined to older adults and offers limited insight into how wealth–related health inequality is patterned across adulthood and institutional contexts. Drawing on life–course perspectives on age–graded stratification and a healthcare–system typology, the authors examine how the wealth–health gradient varies across age groups in seven OECD countries. Using harmonized microdata from the Luxembourg Wealth Study (LWS), they pool 30 repeated cross–sections from Australia, Germany, Italy, Luxembourg, Spain, the United Kingdom, and the United States (2002–2022), yielding 450,233 adults aged 25–80. Wealth is measured as gross non–financial and financial assets (ranked into within country–year quintiles), and health is measured with self–rated health. The authors assess wealth–health inequality by age using Wagstaff–normalized concentration indices and country–specific OLS models with wealth–by–age interactions and covariate adjustment. Across all countries and age groups, health is consistently concentrated among wealthier individuals. Inequality typically rises from ages 25–35 to a late–midlife peak (often 56–65) and attenuates at ages 66–80, with this rise–and–fall pattern most evident in the United States, Australia, and the United Kingdom. Cross–national differences broadly align with Reibling et al.’s OECD healthcare–system typology: private systems show the steepest gradients and regulation–oriented systems more compressed gradients, yet the United Kingdom is a notable outlier, and Italy and Spain show comparatively sustained gradients into older ages. Comparing wealth–health gradients across age groups reveals systematic age–graded patterns that are central to life–course perspectives on stratification.

### LIS working papers series

#### LIS working papers series - No. 913 [↗](#)

**Parametric Estimation of Poverty in Data-Poor Countries**

by Hassan Hamie, Jinane Jouni, Vladimir Hlasny

#### LIS working papers series - No. 914 [↗](#)

**Income Inequality, US MNEs and Green Technology Innovation: Evidence from OECD**

by João Bento, Miguel Matos Torres, Hicham Nachit

### LWS working papers series

#### LWS working papers series - No. 51 [↗](#)

**Mapping Trends and Gaps in Household Wealth across OECD Countries**

by Carlotta Balestra, Jakub Caisl, Luiz Hermida

**Published in:** OECD Papers on Well-Being and Inequalities, No. 37, (2025): OECD Publishing, Paris

#### LWS working papers series - No. 52 [↗](#)

**The Wealth–Health Gradient Across Adulthood: A Cross-National Comparative Analysis**

by Davide Gritti, Dina Maskileyson, Raffaele Grotti, Stefani Scherer

## News, Events and Updates

### Applications to the LIS Introductory Workshop, 29 June – 03 July 2026 are Now Open!

LIS is excited to announce that the application to its Introductory Summer Workshop is now open. This year’s workshop marks the 34th edition after the first workshop took place in 1988. As in the last six editions, LIS, the University of Luxembourg and the Luxembourg Institute of Socio-Economic Research (LISER) jointly organise and teach the workshop on **“Comparative Inequality Measurement using the LIS & LWS Databases”**. This workshop is a one-week intensive course designed to introduce researchers in the social sciences to comparative research on income and wealth distribution, employment and social policy, using the harmonised Luxembourg Income Study (LIS) and Luxembourg Wealth Study (LWS) Databases.

The Workshop will be held at the University of Luxembourg, Belval Campus, Esch-sur-Alzette, Luxembourg from 29 June-03 of July 2026.

For more details about the workshop programme and practical information, please visit the [workshop page](#).

Applications should be submitted online through this [application form](#) by **April 12, 2026**. For questions and inquiries, please write to [workshop@lisdatacenter.org](mailto:workshop@lisdatacenter.org).

### Luxembourg Consumption Study (LCS) Workshop, 14 – 15 January 2026

On 14 and 15 January 2026, an international expert group convened to discuss key conceptual and empirical challenges in measuring consumption, expenditure, and living standards in a cross-country perspective, in the context of the Luxembourg Consumption Study (LCS). Discussions focused on the strengths and limitations of consumption-based measures relative to income, the treatment of durable goods such as housing and vehicles, and the role of health and education expenditures, including publicly provided services and the differences between high- and low-income countries, with particular attention to making a clear distinction between consumption as a measure of consumption expenditure versus welfare.

Participants emphasised the importance of flexibility and transparency over a single rigid definition, highlighting the need for modular consumption components, clear documentation, and careful handling of cross-country differences related to welfare-state institutions, prices, and survey design. The workshop underscored that consumption measures serve different analytical purposes – particularly for poverty, inequality, and welfare analysis – and that providing well-documented building blocks enables more meaningful and policy-relevant comparisons.

The workshop consisted of two days: the first day was held virtually and aimed at collecting reflections and feedback from consumption experts based outside Europe, while the second day consisted of an in-person meeting.

The workshop agenda is available [here](#). The workshop summary and additional information, including available presentations, can be accessed [here](#).

### LIS Online Webinar for UK-Based Researchers: Accessing LIS Data through the SafePod Network – 14 April

LIS is pleased to organise an introductory online webinar on the use of the LIS databases, dedicated to UK-based researchers who may access LIS data through the UK SafePod Network (SPN).

The webinar will take place on 14 April from 10:00 to 11:15 (UK time) and will introduce the LIS databases, demonstrate how researchers can work with LIS data, and explain the access procedures through the SafePod Network.

You can register via this [link](#). Further information about secure data access pathways and application procedures, are available [here](#).

### Updating LIS DART Estimates with the Latest 2021 PPPs

With this Spring data release, LIS has implemented the updated 2021 Purchasing Power Parity (PPP) rates issued by the World Bank in May 2024 in its [Data Access Research Tool \(DART\)](#) estimates. These PPPs, based on improved data collection and methodological refinements, provide more accurate cross-country comparisons by the more recent benchmark year of 2021, better reflecting more recent differences in price levels.

LIS has also assessed the impact of these updates – including the new PPP base year and revised poverty lines – on indicators such as median income and absolute poverty, offering users an initial benchmark for updating their own estimates. For further details, please consult LIS Technical Working Paper No. 15 [here](#).

### Our World In Data (OWID) LIS Data Explorers Updated!

We are pleased to announce that the Our World in Data (OWID) Data Explorers based on the LIS databases have been updated to incorporate the [December data splash](#) additions and revisions.

In particular, this update reflects the adoption of the 2021 PPPs provided by the World Bank\* used in the computation of the relevant indicators, and a slightly [improved methodology](#) when computing indicators related to percentile thresholds, shares, and their associated average values. The OWID explorers are expected to be updated quarterly, in line with the LIS data releases.

- [Poverty Data Explorer](#)
- [Inequality Data Explorer](#)
- [Incomes Across the Distribution Data Explorer](#)

\* *Datasets without corresponding 2021 PPPs are excluded from the Poverty and Incomes Across the Distribution Explorers (Taiwan and the 2022 Russia dataset).*

### (LIS)<sup>2</sup>ER Visitors Programme 2026

The (LIS)<sup>2</sup>ER initiative – an institutional collaboration between LIS and the Luxembourg Institute of Socio-Economic Research (LISER) to promote data-driven research on policies to fight inequalities – is happy to announce the list of selected candidates for this year’s (LIS)<sup>2</sup>ER visiting researcher’s programme. The selection has been particularly competitive this year, as we received a number of excellent proposals from researchers all over the world. At the end, the initiative selected nine short-term visitors. The visitors are from high profile institutions based in Belgium, Croatia, France, Hungary, Italy, Mongolia, Singapore, and the United States, demonstrating the diversity of LIS users.

Selected projects also represent a wide variety of research agendas. Each of these selected visitors will be given opportunities to present their ongoing work at seminars jointly organized by LIS and LISER. More details about this year’s (LIS)<sup>2</sup>ER visiting scholars and their research projects will be announced on our website in due course.

### LIS Team Participation in Conferences/Workshops

- Teresa Munzi and Philippe Van Kerm attended the 19th Winter School on Inequality and Social Welfare Theory, which was held in Alba di Canazei (Italy) from January 6<sup>th</sup> to 10<sup>th</sup>. They provided a session on “Comparative survey data on wealth from the Luxembourg Wealth Study”. They also highlighted various research opportunities at LIS - notably through the (LIS)<sup>2</sup>ER programme.
- On 3 February, Jörg Neugschwender delivered an introductory virtual session on the LIS and LWS Databases to a Master’s class at the Freie Universität Berlin.

### Visiting Research Stays at LIS

During this quarter, LIS and LISER have hosted the first cohort of visitors in the framework of the (LIS)<sup>2</sup>ER 2026 Visitors Programme. In the beginning of March, the initiative hosted two short-term visitors to work on the LIS/LWS data in-house. Domenico Moramarco (University of Bari) will be working on “*Bridging Social Norms: Assessing Unjust Inequality*”, while Alexandre Jacquemain (UCLouvain) will work on “*A High-Dimensional Bivariate Distribution Regression Model with Application to Assortative Mating and Inequality in LIS Countries*”.

In addition, LIS was happy to host Alejandra Pérez (New York University Abu Dhabi) from 4-6 February to work on the LIS data for her Capstone project on inequality measurements.

### Stone Center at GC CUNY Announced Its Eighth Cohort of Postdoctoral Scholars

An eighth cohort of postdoctoral scholars will join the GC CUNY Stone Center for two-year appointments that begin in August 2026. Jasmine Simington was selected for the position that focuses on wealth inequality and is affiliated with the [GC Wealth Project](#). Christopher Pulliam was selected for the position that broadly focuses on mobility and poverty.



Jasmine Simington is a mixed-method sociologist who examines wealth accumulation among non-elites, policies that reduce racial wealth disparities, and the relationship between environmental disasters and housing wealth. Her current work explores the process of intestate inheritance – colloquially known as heirs’ property ownership – to better understand how property laws shape inequalities in wealth building. Her research has been published in *Social Forces*, *The Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science*, and other outlets. Prior to pursuing a Ph.D. in public policy and sociology from the University of Michigan, Simington worked in the Metropolitan Housing and Communities Policy Center at The Urban Institute.

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Chris Pulliam is a public policy researcher who studies intergenerational mobility, poverty, and the social safety net in the United States. His current work focuses on how income-support programs affect the economic well-being and health of U.S. children and families. He uses novel data and causal inference methods to investigate outcomes within and across generations, contributing to our understanding of inequality and quantifying the benefits of public investments in low-income children. Pulliam is expected to receive a Ph.D., with concentrations in social policy and economics, from the Columbia University School of Social Work. Before pursuing his Ph.D., he worked as a research analyst at the Brookings Institution.

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For a full list of the Stone Center’s current and former postdoctoral scholars, and more information about the postdoctoral program, see our [Postdoctoral Scholars](#) page.