

Expanding Pension Coverage: A Dynamic Analysis of Chile's Pension Reform

Clement Joubert and Petra E. Todd *

Abstract

This paper develops and estimates a dynamic model of individuals' and couples' labor supply and saving decisions to analyze the effects of a recent pension reform in Chile. Chile has one of the longest-running nationwide private retirements accounts systems in the world, operating since 1980, and its pension system served as a model for many other countries. In 2008, Chile undertook a major reform, which introduced new features designed to reduce old-age poverty and gender gaps in pensions. We estimate the model using data collected prior to the reform and assess its out-of-sample fit to one year of post-reform data. The model is then used to evaluate the short and long term effects of the pension reform in comparison to alternative pension program designs.

JEL Classification: J240, J260, E210, E260, O170

*Petra E. Todd is the Alfred L. Cass Term Professor of Economics at the University of Pennsylvania and Clement Joubert is an Assistant Professor of Economics at the University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill. This paper builds on an initial report that Todd and Joubert wrote as consultants to the Budget Office (Dirección de Presupuestos) in the Chilean government. The paper was presented at the LACEA meetings in Santiago, Chile, Nov., 2011. We would like to thank Alberto Arenas, David Bravo, Santiago Levy, Evelyn Matthei, Beatriz Moraga, Roy Rogers, and the Superintendencia de Pensiones for very helpful comments. We also are grateful for funding for research assistants from the National Institutes of Health - National Institute on Aging, Grant number P30 AG12836, the Boettner Center for Pensions and Retirement Security at the University of Pennsylvania, and National Institutes of Health ??? National Institute of Child Health and Development Population Research Infrastructure Program R24 HD-044964, all at the University of Pennsylvania.

1 Introduction

Many pay-as-you-go social security systems in the developing world as well as the United States and Europe face impending insolvency as the number of pensioners per worker rises. The kinds of reforms being considered include, for example, increasing the required contribution per worker, raising the standard retirement age, or completely overhauling the pension system by transiting to a private accounts system. Chile has been at the forefront of pension reform, having switched to a private retirement accounts system in 1980. Many plans proposed in the U.S. and in Europe are similar to Chile's current pension system.¹ They outline a system in which all workers are mandated to contribute part of their income to a pension account that is managed by a money manager, either a government owned company or a private firm. Under the proposed plans and also under the current Chilean system, the government serves as a last resort guarantor, supplementing pension income if pension accumulations are insufficient, either due to low income or unfavorable investment returns. The Chilean pension fund system is known as the *Administradoras de Fondos de Pensiones* or *AFP* system.²

A potential drawback of a private retirements-account based system is that it can leave women particularly vulnerable to old-age poverty. This is because women typically experience lower wages, interrupted careers, younger retirement ages and longer life spans. In 2008, Chile undertook a major reform of its pension system largely out of concerns about old age poverty and observed gender gaps in pension accumulations and pension receipt. However, incorporating more generous noncontributory pension benefits into the pension system design, as was done through the 2008 reform can also reduce incentives for both men and women to work and to save.

This study develops and estimates a dynamic structural model to examine how pension system design, and in particular the 2008 pension reform, influences labor supply, private savings, pension accumulations, and retirement behavior of women and men. In the model,

¹In the U.S., President G.W.Bush in 2005 and Republican Party presidential primary candidate Herman Cain in 2011 invoked the Chilean model as a blueprint to reform Social Security.

²Chile's system served as a model for pension reform in many other countries (dates of adoption in parentheses), including Peru (1993), Argentina (1994), Colombia (1994), Uruguay (1995), Bolivia (1996), Mexico (1997), El Salvador (1998), Costa Rica (2000), Czech Republic (1994), Hungary(1998), Poland (1999), Bulgaria (2000), Estonia (2002), and Kazakhstan (1998).

households, which can be either singles or couples, make choices over their lifetime with regard to labor supply, private savings and retirement in an environment with uncertainty about future wages, asset returns on pension savings, fertility, future divorce or widowhood and own survival. Men and women choose not only whether to work but also whether to work in the formal sector where pension contributions are mandatory or in the informal sector. In addition, women choose whether to work part-time or full-time. The model is estimated on longitudinal microdata from the *Encuesta de Proteccion Social (EPS)* merged with administrative data on pension funds.³

We use the estimated model to study how labor supply and savings behavior changes with the introduction of the 2008 pension reform in comparison to behavior under the previous pension system rules and in comparison to alternative pension program designs. Specifically, we estimate the model parameters by the method of simulated moments using pre-reform data from the 2004 and 2006 EPS Surveys. We evaluate the fit of the model both within sample (using the estimated model to forecast behavior in 2004 and 2006) and out-of-sample. That is, the simulations for the year 2009 are compared to the actual 2009 post-reform data, which was not used in estimation, as a way of validating the model. After finding the model fits many features of the data well, we use the model to analyze the effects of the pension reform five years out, in 2014.⁴

In evaluating the impact of the 2008 reform, we examine changes in the following indicators: level (average and distribution) of women's and men's pensions upon retirement, contribution densities for men and women at different ages, the coverage rate (or fraction of employed workers who make contributions) of men and women at different ages, pension savings accumulation of men and women at different ages, the fraction of men and women participating in the labor force and in the formal sector at different ages, how working decisions vary with number of children, the ages of retirement, and private savings levels (of couples or singles). First, these indicators are projected to year 2014 to analyze the short-term (five year) impacts of the reform. Then we evaluate the long-term effects of the reform by simulating the youngest cohort in our sample throughout its life cycle. We compare life-

³The longitudinal household survey data were collected by the Microdata Center of the University of Chile and the administrative data come from the *Superintendencia de Pensiones*.

⁴See below for more detailed description of the data sources.

time individual outcomes as well as government outlays and tax revenue under the actual reform and alternative scenarios.

Short-term simulations indicate that the changes in the pension system design introduced with Chile's 2008 pension reform dramatically reduce old age poverty and improve pension saving and receipt levels for women, bridging a sizable part of the male-female pension benefit gap. These benefits come mainly from the large expansion in eligibility for a minimum pension guarantee, the so-called basic solidarity pension (*Pension Basica Solidaria*, or PBS) and from an increase in the generosity of the minimum pension benefit.⁵ The work requirements for receiving the minimum pension benefit guarantee were also decreased through the reform.

In line with the available post-reform data evidence, the short-term simulations also indicate some potentially negative behavioral responses to the reform in terms of lower labor force participation rates at older ages and lower rates of participation in the formal sector. In contrast, younger men and women show modest increases in these dimensions. Our long-term simulations indicate that the latter effect will dominate once individuals have time to adjust to the reform.

We also anticipate that the new system will be ten times as costly as the old system, owing to its much larger coverage and benefit levels. Attempts to make the reformed pension system more incentive-compatible by tapering-off non-contributory benefits with pension accumulation levels are not expected to improve formal sector participation and tax revenue significantly. In addition, this feature accounts for half of the total cost of the reform.

The paper proceeds as follows. Section two discusses related literature on modeling effects of social security and pension rules. Section three gives some background on the Chilean pension system and describes the features of the 2008 pension reform that we incorporate in our analysis. Section four describes the model and section five the estimation method. Section six summarizes the data used in estimation, Section seven provides evidence on within-sample and out-of-sample model fit, and Sections eight and nine present the key results on evaluating the effects of the pension reform in the short and long-run respectively. Section ten concludes.

⁵The Chilean pension system and the 2008 reform are described in detail in section three below.

2 Related literature

Fields and Mitchell (1984) and Mitchell and Fields (1984) were the first to study how the structure of earnings, social security, and pension benefits affect retirement behavior. Their model assumed that individuals make a one time retirement age decision, taking into account future expected earnings and retirement benefits. They found that wealthier individuals retire earlier, and those who expect to gain more by postponing retirement retire later. Subsequent research developed and implemented fully dynamic modeling approaches that incorporate uncertainty in decision-making over time. An early dynamic model by Gustman and Steinmeier (1986) showed how pension benefits affect the lifetime budget constraint and alter the price of leisure at different ages, thus influencing the choice of retirement age. Stock and Wise (1990) analyzed the effect of pension plan provisions on the retirement age and also emphasized the importance of modeling uncertainty in accurately capturing the option value embedded in the decision to retire. Their estimation was based on a retirement decision rule that was motivated by a dynamic programming rule, but was computationally less complex. Berkovec and Stern (1991) estimated the first dynamic discrete choice model of individual retirement decisions using a dynamic programming set-up. Subsequent papers additionally incorporated into the basic dynamic discrete choice modeling framework other aspects, such as health expenditure risk, savings and detailed institutional pension rules to provide a fuller accounting of retirement determinants.⁶

The more recent literature estimates dynamic structural models of the joint retirement decisions of husbands and wives. Our modeling framework is most closely related to that of Van der Klaauw and Wolpin (2008) who study how the design of U.S. social security rules affects decision-making within a collective model. As in their model, we allow households to accumulate private savings in addition to pension benefits for consumption in retirement. We focus on gender aspects of pension design, so we additionally incorporate into our model divorce and separation, which are major financial risks for women with low private and pension savings and low attachment to the labor force. We do not incorporate health or health insurance and allow only women and not men to work part-time. Another important difference is that our model allows workers to make a choice about being employed in the

⁶See, e.g., Rust and Phelan (1997), French (2005), Blau and Gilleskie (2008), French and Jones (2011)

informal sector, in which they do not accumulate pension rights. This is a crucial margin from a public finance point of view in Chile and in many other Latin American countries.

Other recent collective models of joint retirement include Blau and Gilleskie (2006), who focus on retirement incentives related to spousal health benefits, and Casanova (2011), who investigates the timing of retirement between two married individuals. Because these papers are not concerned with the difference in financial risk borne by each spouse individually, they model divorce and death through a terminal value, instead of following, as we do, the individuals after separation or death has dissolved the household.⁷ Many individuals, and women in particular, spend a significant part of their retirement as widows, so following them after their spouse dies is important to understanding the sources of old age poverty.

This paper also builds on a previous study by Joubert (2012) of the relationship between pension design and labor force participation decisions with regard to informal/formal sector work using the same Chilean data that we use. This study extends Joubert (2012) by using a collective model of the household with distinct male and female utility functions, and by allowing for divorce and fertility, which make the model suitable for studying the differential impact of the 2008 pension reform on men and women.

As previously noted, this paper analyzes how pension system design and the 2008 Chilean pension reform influences labor supply, savings and retirement decisions. Thus far, there have only been a few studies examining short term effects of the 2008 Chilean pension reform. Behrman, Calderon, Mitchell, Vasquez, and Bravo (2011) analyze the effects of the PBS (the Basic Solidary Pension), which was one feature of the pension reform, on household income as well as on outcomes related to household work, health status, expenditures on alcohol and cigarettes, health insurance and ownership of consumer durables.⁸ They use a difference-in-difference approach to compare the change in income/outcomes over time for treated families that qualify for the PBS (by virtue of being poor and having a family member over age sixty-five) and households that are poor but otherwise do not qualify. The pre-treatment year is 2006, two years before the reform, and the post-treatment year is 2009, one year after the reform. Behrman et al.(2011) find that PBS eligible households had 2.4

⁷Other notable papers are Gustman and Steinmeier (2000, 2002) who consider a non-cooperative game solution to the household joint decision, and Gallipoli and Turner (2011) who compare non-cooperative and collective models of joint retirement.

⁸All the features of the reform are described in the next section.

percent more in household annual income relative to non-targeted households, with little evidence of crowding out of private transfers. In addition, targeted households report higher expenditures on health care, more leisure hours and have improved self-reported health. The Behrman et. al. (2011) analysis does not provide a framework for doing long-term program impact predictions nor for studying the effects of hypothetical pension programs that differ significantly from the one actually implemented. Although the estimated effects the study finds are modest and statistically significantly different from zero only for a few of the outcomes analyzed, they are generally positive.⁹

Another recent study by Attanasio, Meghir and Otero (2011) examines the effects of Chile's pension reform on formal and informal labor market participation. Following an approach previously used by Attanasio and Rohwedder (2003) and Attasio and Brugiavini (2003), the study uses changes in expected pension wealth and pensions across groups and time to estimate the relationship between pension wealth and savings rates. As Attanasio et. al. (2011) note, however, "One important difficulty in calculating pension wealth is that future labor supply will change as well as current one, as a result of the reform. In order to capture the relationship completely, a fully specified dynamic model should be used." Using forecast equations to forecast wages and labor supply for periods when they are not observed, Attanasio et. al. (2011) find that the welfare component of the reform increased self-financed pension wealth by only 0.6 percent but increased final pension levels by 15 percent. They also find that the increase in pension wealth upon retirement reduced slightly the rate of participation in formal sector jobs, by around 4.1 percent for workers older than age forty.

3 Background on the Chilean pension system and the 2008 reform

When it was introduced in 1980, the privatized Chilean pension system, called the AFP system, replaced a heterogeneous pay-as-you-go system composed of many different institutions

⁹An implicit assumption of Behrman et. al.'s (2011) difference-in-difference approach is that households who do not qualify for the program at a point in time do not anticipate that they may qualify at some future time period, which could affect their current behavior even if they are not actively receiving benefits. The dynamic structural modeling framework used in this study explicitly incorporates such possible anticipatory effects.

(called *Cajas de Prevision*) that covered different professions and subsets of the population.¹⁰ Individuals in the old pension system (called the INP system) had the option of transferring to the new AFP system based on individual capitalization or to remain in the old system.¹¹ To encourage transfers, workers who opted for the new system received a 12.6 percent increase in net income (the new contribution rate plus commissions or fees) and the benefits accrued under the old system were recognized through the issuing of a “recognition bond,” payable upon retirement. Labor force entrants after 1980 were required to affiliate to the new system.¹² By the end of 1983, seventy-seven percent of workers from the old system had switched to the new one (Acuña and Iglesias (2001)).

The AFP Pension system is a savings program based on defined-contribution individual accounts. The program is mandatory for salaried workers and voluntary for the self-employed. Affiliated workers pay a ten percent contribution of their monthly wages (up to a cap) into a tax-deferred pension account, which is for the most part inaccessible until retirement.¹³ A pension system affiliate can choose to invest his/her pension funds in one of a number of pension fund administrators (the AFP firms) who manage and invest the savings in the financial markets.

Individuals can access their pension savings at age sixty-five for men and sixty for women, with three withdrawal options: Programmed Withdrawals (*Retiro Programado*), purchase an annuity from an insurance company (*Renta Vitalicia*), or a mix of phased withdrawals for a period of time and a deferred lifetime annuity. The law also allows for early retirement, provided that the worker has pension funds sufficient to generate a pension amount equal to or greater than 110 percent of the minimum pension guaranteed by the State.¹⁴

Prior to the 2008 pension reform, the state provided noncontributory retirement income transfers through two mechanisms. First, a welfare or assistance pension, known as the

¹⁰AFP = *Administradoras de Fondos de Pensiones*

¹¹INP = *Instituto de Normalizacion Previsional*

¹²Government and military workers are exempted and have separate pension systems.

¹³The restrictions on fund withdrawal are more stringent in Chile than they are for US 401K plans. The contributions are capped at 60 Unidades de Fomento, a monetary unit that is indexed to inflation. The value of the UF as of December 2004 was \$17,317 pesos (US\$31). In addition, workers must pay a contribution of 7 percent for health services, 0.8 percent for a disability and survivorship insurance, and an average of 2.6 percent to the pension fund manager as a commission or fee.

¹⁴The pension must also be equal to or greater than fifty percent of the average taxable income for the last ten working years.

PASIS pension, equal a little less than a third of the minimum wages was available for program applicants above sixty-five years of age, irrespective of their contribution history, provided that their earnings and their household's per capita earnings were both below that level.¹⁵ The second transfer was a minimum pension guarantee (MPG) equal to about twice the *PASIS* pension. Individuals with more than twenty years of contribution received the MPG if their accumulated contributions could not finance a higher pension. Both of these benefits took the form of a top-up, that is, the benefit was equal to the difference between the guaranteed level and the pension financed by the worker's account.

3.1 The 2008 reform

In 2008, the pension system underwent significant reforms aimed at alleviating old age poverty and reducing gender gaps in pension accumulations. An analysis of pension contribution histories at the micro level (e.g. Arenas de Mesa et. al. (2007)) showed that most individuals were expected to have low pension accumulations upon retirement.¹⁶ Only 37 percent of women were projected to have a pension above the MPG level, in comparison with 67 percent for men, in part because few women are expected to reach the twenty years of contributions necessary to qualify for the MPG. The average projected replacement rate for women under the pre-reform pension system was 28 percent of the last wage in comparison to 51 percent for men.

An analysis of employment histories indicates that an important factor underlying gender gaps in projected pensions is that labor force participation is lower and more sporadic among women. Arenas de Mesa and Montecinos (1999) note that the direct link between lifetime earnings and pensions in the AFP system largely accounts for the lower average pensions for women, who tend to retire at earlier ages, participate less often in the labor-force and earn lower salaries. A statistic that is sometimes used as a measure of pension program participation is the *density of contributions*, which is the number of years the individual

¹⁵In August 2007, the minimum wage was 159 thousand pesos per month, while the *PASIS* was 44,186 pesos for retirees between sixty-five and seventy years of age, 47,103 pesos between seventy and seventy-five and 51,503 pesos if older than seventy-five. The *PASIS* pensions were allocated based on an index of economic vulnerability, called "ficha CAS".

¹⁶The micro-level data on pension contribution histories were obtained from a database of the pension fund regulatory agency, the *Superintendency of Pensions* or SP. These are the same data as used in this paper.

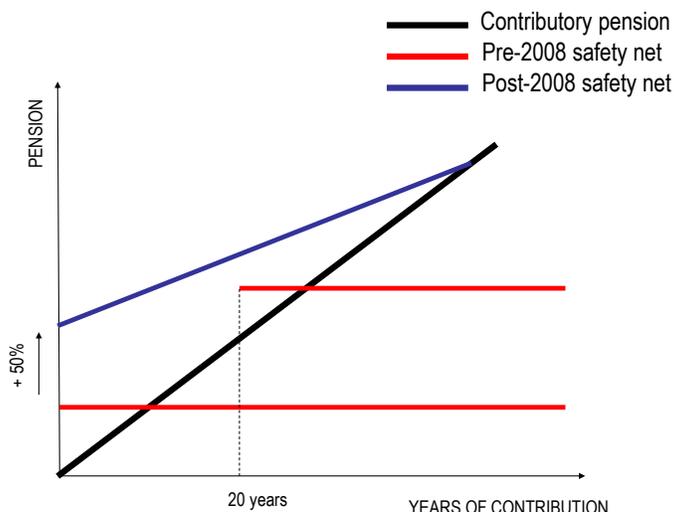


Figure 1: Pension benefit levels pre- and post- reform

makes pension contributions divided by the number of potential working-age years. The density of contribution for women is 41 percent in comparison with 61 percent for men. Additionally, lower wages, earlier retirement ages and projected longer life spans, which affect annuity pay-outs, all serve to reduce the level of women’s pensions relative to men’s.

3.2 The new safety net

Reducing the gender gap in pension benefits/accumulations was a significant objective of the 2008 pension reform. The reform replaced the PASIS pension and the minimum pension guarantee (MPG) with a so-called “New Solidarity Pillar” that augments pension levels of workers with relatively few years of contributions. The new safety net implements a means-tested welfare pension, which will eventually guarantee to all individuals in the sixty percent least affluent households a pension of seventy-five thousand pesos per month called *Pension Basica Solidaria*, or PBS. This feature was introduced gradually over July 2008-July 2011.¹⁷ The PBS represents an increase of nearly fifty percent with respect to the former PASIS pension. In addition to providing a minimum pension level, the new system augments low

¹⁷The level of the PBS was initially sixty thousand pesos and reached seventy-five thousand pesos in July 2009. The coverage of the PBS was started at forty percent with eligibility being based on an existing poverty index, the Social Protection Index (*Ficha de Proteccion Social*). Coverage is expected to reach sixty percent in July 2011 and eligibility will be based on the household’s income from September 2009 onwards.

contributory pensions through the Solidarity Pension Supplement or APS.¹⁸ The APS benefit corresponds to a fraction of the PBS that is gradually reduced for workers with relatively larger contributory pensions according to the formula:¹⁹

$$APS = PBS * \left[1 - \frac{Contributory\ Pension}{Maximum\ Supplemented\ Pension} \right]$$

In effect, this means that the APS tapers off at a rate that reached 0.3 in July 2011. For example, a worker who can finance a pension of one hundred thousand pesos per month with the funds accumulated in his/her individual account will receive a supplement equal to $75,000 - (100,000 * 0.3) = 45,000$. His/her total pension will then be 145 thousand pesos per month.²⁰ James et al. (2003) note that the new state-financed minimum pension benefits that are targeted toward low earners often benefit women.

Figure 1 graphically shows the effect of the pension reform on the pension level that people qualify for as a function of the total number of years in which they made pension contributions. The two vertical lines show the PASIS pension benefit and also the minimum pension guarantee available to those with twenty years of contributions under the pre-reform system. The diagonal line that intersects with (0,0) shows the pension benefit financed with the accumulated pension savings. The diagonal line that intersects with the y axis represents the pension amounts under the reformed system.

3.3 Other features of the reform

A second important feature of the 2008 pension reform with regard to gender equity is the introduction of a pension subsidy for mothers that depends on their number of children. This subsidy seeks to compensate for interruptions in contribution histories due to pregnancy and infant care. The subsidy level retroactively accounts for children born before the reform. When the woman turns sixty-five, the state augments her pension savings with a benefit equal

¹⁸*Aporte Previsional Solidario*

¹⁹The Maximum Supplemented Pension (PMAS or *Pension Maxima con Aporte Solidario*) was gradually increased through the phased implementation from seventy thousand pesos per month to 255 thousand pesos per month in July 2011

²⁰Before the reform, eligible workers effectively faced an implicit marginal tax rate of one hundred percent on contributions over some range, in that additional contributions would not increase the level of pension upon retirement. The new system ensures that an additional contribution always increase the level of the retirement pension, and it maintains a constant implicit marginal tax rate of about 37 percent on additional contributions.

to a year and a half of pension contributions at the minimum wage (about 280 thousand pesos in 2008), plus interests accrued since the birth of the child, minus commissions paid to the pension fund administrator. A third feature of the pension reform is a change in the rules for dividing pension balances in the case of divorce or annulment. Before the reform, an individual would lose access to their spouse's pension upon divorce.²¹ A judge can now rule that up to fifty percent of one of the spouse's pension balance be transferred to the other spouse's account after a divorce or annulment as a form of alimony. A fourth feature is a change in the premium for disability and survivorship benefits. Prior to 2008, women and men both paid about one percent of their wages towards disability and survivorship benefits, which is actuarially unfair to women. As of July 2009, men and women pay contributions that correspond to men's premium, but the difference in premiums is added back to a woman's pension account. Lastly, the pension reform also made it possible for someone who is not working (for example a stay-at-home mother) to make pension contributions. The contributions can be deducted from the taxable income of a third party, such as a spouse, who can contribute towards the voluntary affiliate's account.

4 The Model

The dynamic behavioral model that we develop and estimate describes how households make decisions over their lifetime with regard to work and savings. It is important to recognize the existence of permanent unobservable sources of heterogeneity affecting decision-making, so the model incorporates unobserved discrete types (see, e.g, Heckman and Singer (1984) and Keane and Wolpin (1997)). We define an indicator variable for the unobserved type, $\mu_k = 1$ (type = k).²² A household may consist of either a couple or a single individual. In each period, couples face an exogenous probability of separation (described in detail below) or of one member of the couple dying, in which case the couples' problem changes to that of a single-headed household.

²¹However, divorce only became legal in Chile in 2004.

²²In the empirical work, we incorporate two unobserved types. The number of types we could allow was limited due to the computational complexity of the model.

4.1 Timing and Initial conditions

The superscript $j \in \{m, f\}$ denotes gender, and the superscript 2 denotes a couple.²³ Periods in the singles' problem are indexed by the individual's age ($t = a_t^j$), while the couples' problem is indexed by the age of the female ($t = a_t^f$). For singles, the decision problem begins at ages $t_0^m = t_0^f = 35$.²⁴ For couples, the decision problem begins when the wife turns t_0^f . Thus, the age of the husband in the first period, $a_{t_0}^m$ is part of the initial conditions and becomes a state variable thereafter. Any household assets (A_{t_0}) or work experience ($X_{t_0}^m, X_{t_0}^f$) accumulated prior to the first model period, as well as any children born prior to female age thirty-five (N_{t_0}) are also taken as initial conditions. The initial conditions also include pension savings ($B_{t_0}^m, B_{t_0}^f$), any pension rights accumulated by the two spouses under the earlier INP retirement system prior to age $a_{t_0}^j$ ("Bonos de reconocimiento") or under the new AFP system. Finally, the initial conditions include two permanent characteristics: completed schooling levels of men and women (e^j), and their birth cohorts (bc^j).

We denote the set of initial conditions for a couple by $\Omega_{t_0}^2$ and for a single household by $\Omega_{t_0}^j$:

$$\Omega_{t_0}^2 = \{a_{t_0}^m, A_{t_0}, B_{t_0}^m, B_{t_0}^f, X_{t_0}^m, X_{t_0}^f, N_{t_0}; e^m, e^f, bc^m, bc^f\}$$

$$\Omega_{t_0}^j = \{A_{t_0}^j, B_{t_0}^j, X_{t_0}^j, N_{t_0}; e^j, bc^j\}$$

At ages $t_C^f = 60$ and $t_C^m = 65$ years old respectively (or sooner if they qualify for early retirement), males and females begin to withdraw money from their pension savings accounts. For tractability, we did not incorporate the choice about whether to take retirement savings as an annuity or as a phased withdrawal. Rather, we assume phased withdrawal, because the formula is a simple function of age. The level of pension benefits is calculated according to the rules of the pension system in place, including the minimum pension guaranty (MPG) in the years when applicable. After age sixty-five, either spouse may receive the pension benefits (PASIS, PBS, APS) for which they qualify, given their individual and family incomes, and

²³We use the terms husband and wife, but the model could apply to non-married couples

²⁴Singles at age thirty-five are assumed to remain single. Married couples are able to transition to being divorced or widowed, as further described below. We estimate the model for singles on people who remain single after age t_0^j .

according to the rules to which they are subject at that time (pre-reform until 2008, phased implementation of the reform from 2009 to 2011, post-reform after 2011).

By age $t_R=70$, it is assumed that individuals stop working, at which point they take leisure for all remaining periods.²⁵ The last period of the model is age $t_D = 90$. When both spouses turn 70 and no longer have the option of working, the model assumes that households run down their accumulated savings by optimally consuming until they die or reach the last period. We assume that bequests (savings left after death of both spouses) are involuntary and do not generate utility.

4.2 Decisions

In each period of the model prior to t_R , a two-person household makes a saving decision for the household (s_t), a labor force participation decision for each individual (d_t^m, d_t^f) and a part-time work decision for the woman (p_t^f), until age $t_R = 70$. The income that is not saved is split evenly into the two spouses' consumptions c_t^m, c_t^f . s_t is the fraction of income that is saved and not consumed in period t . The three employment options available to both men and women are to work in the formal sector ($d_t^j = 1$), to work in the informal sector ($d_t^j = 2$), or to stay home ($d_t^j = 3$) for $j \in \{m, f\}$. In addition, female workers can chose to work part-time ($p_t^j = 1$) or full-time ($p_t^j = 0$).²⁶ A one-person household makes the same saving and work decisions relevant to his/her gender, but consumes the full amount of income minus savings.

4.3 Preferences

Individuals derive utility from consumption and from leisure, if not working or working part-time. The utility of leisure is allowed to depend on unobserved type, k . The per period utility function of a couple is the weighted sum of the utility of a single male and the utility of a single female, where the weights represent bargaining power (the weight is set to 0.5 in

²⁵This assumption reduces computational complexity by reducing the number of choices needed to be evaluated each decision period.

²⁶Part-time work (p_t) is only an option for females. In the data, part-time work, defined as working fewer than 31 hours per week is relatively marginal for men (5.6 percent of working men at thirty-five, 10.3 percent at age sixty), and is likely to be related to disability, which is not modeled. In contrast, the fraction among women is two to three times as high (14.23 percent at thirty-five, 23.5 percent at sixty) and might be related to household joint decisions that are relevant to our model.

the simulations reported below):

$$U(c_t^m, c_t^f, d_t^m, d_t^f, p_t^f, N_t, \epsilon_t^m, \epsilon_t^f; type = k) = \theta u^m(c_t^m, d_t^m, N_t, \epsilon_t^m; type = k) + (1 - \theta) u^f(c_t^f, d_t^f, p_t^f, N_t, \epsilon_t^f; type = k).$$

The terms $u^m(c_t^m, d_t^m, N_t, \epsilon_t^m; type = k)$ and $u^f(c_t^f, d_t^f, p_t^f, N_t, \epsilon_t^f; type = k)$ represent the utility from consumption, leisure, and number of children for a single household formed by a male and a female respectively.

The leisure preference shocks are assumed to be jointly distributed normally and to be uncorrelated over time:

$$(\epsilon_t^m, \epsilon_t^f) \sim iidN(0, \Sigma)$$

The period utility function is specified as:

$$\begin{aligned} u^j(c_t^j, d_t^j, p_t^j, N_t, \epsilon_t^j; type = k) = & \left(\frac{c_t^j}{1-\sigma}\right)^{1-\sigma} (1 + \exp\{\nu_0^j N_t + \nu_1^j d_{3,t}^j\}) + \\ & (d_{3,t}^j + \delta_p^j p_t^j)(\delta_{lk}^j + \delta_n^j N_t + \delta_m^j m_t + \epsilon_t^j) + \\ & \phi_{2k}^j d_{2,t}^j + \phi_s^j (d_{1,t}^j d_{2,t-1}^j + d_{2,t}^j d_{1,t-1}^j) + \phi_r^j (d_{1,t}^j d_{3,t-1}^j + d_{2,t}^j d_{3,t-1}^j) \end{aligned}$$

This formulation allows the marginal utility of consumption to depend on the number of children and on labor market participation. The utility from not being employed is stochastic, type-specific and depends on the number of children (N_t) and marital status (m_t). δ_p^j captures the fraction of the utility of leisure received if employed part-time (an option only for women). Non-pecuniary benefits (or penalties) associated with the informal sector are captured by $\phi_{2,k}^j$, and the costs of switching sectors and entering the labor force are denoted as ϕ_s^j and ϕ_r^j respectively.

4.4 Household Income

The labor market consists of two sectors, a formal sector where pension contributions are mandatory, and an informal sector. Each working age individual (whether part of a couple or single) receives an earnings offer from the informal sector in every period with probability one. In addition, with a probability Γ_t^j , individuals may receive an offer from the formal

sector. The probability depends on his/her gender, level of schooling, age, and whether employed in the formal sector in the previous period.

$$\forall j \in \{m, f\}, t \in \{t_0, t_R\},$$

$$\Gamma_t^j = (1 + \exp\{-(\gamma_0^j + \gamma_1^j I_{\{d_{t-1}^j=1\}} + \gamma_2^j e^j + \gamma_3^j X_t^j)\})^{-1}$$

The log-earnings offers (for males and females $j \in \{m, f\}$, in sector $s \in \{F, I\}$ of type $k = 1..K$ and with completed schooling levels e^j) are:

$$w_{s,t,k}^j = \sum_{k=1}^K \theta_{0sk}^j + \theta_{1s}^j \cdot e^j + \theta_{2s}^j \cdot X_t^j + \theta_{3s}^j \cdot (X_t^j)^2 + \epsilon_{s,t}^j$$

where $\theta_{0,s}^j$ is a gender- and sector-specific constant, θ_{1es}^j a gender-, sector-, schooling-specific cohort effect, θ_{2s}^j the sector-specific returns to schooling, and θ_{3es}^j and θ_{4es}^j the sector- and schooling-specific returns to experience. $\epsilon_{s,t}^j$ ($j \in \{m, f\}, s \in \{F, I\}$) are i.i.d. sector-specific earnings offer shocks that are uncorrelated across time-periods and across members of the same household. The earnings offer specification allows returns to experience to differ in both sectors.

The total household disposable labor income of a couple, y_t^2 , is the sum of accepted earnings offers, net of income taxes and mandatory pension contributions:

$$y_t^2 = \sum_{i \in \{m, f\}} \frac{(1 - \tau) \cdot w_{F,t}^i \cdot I_{\{d_t^i=1\}} + w_{I,t}^i \cdot I_{\{d_t^i=2\}}}{I(i=m) + I(i=f)(1 + p_t^f)} - T(A_t, w_{F,t}^m, w_{F,t}^f, d_t^m, d_t^f, p_t^f)$$

where τ is the pension contribution rate (ten percent) and $I(\cdot)$ denotes an indicator function. Household income for a single household, y_t^j , is defined similarly.

Formal labor earnings net of pension contributions and private savings returns are subject to a progressive income tax. Taxes due at period t are denoted $T(A_t, w_{F,t}^m, w_{F,t}^f, d_t^m, d_t^f)$, and depend on the household's stock of private savings, formal sector earnings offers and labor force participation decisions.²⁷ Net borrowing and borrowing against pension savings are not allowed. It is assumed that individuals working in the informal sector do not pay taxes on their labor income.

²⁷See table C.3 for the actual bracket values and corresponding marginal tax rates.

4.5 Separation and mortality

In each period, there is a probability of the man or woman (whether in a couple or single) dying, which is assumed to be exogenous with respect to the other aspects of the model.²⁸ Denote the probability of surviving to the next period as $\pi^{sj} = \pi^{sj}(a_t)$ for $j \in \{m, f\}$. Our model assume that widows inherit their former spouses pension funds.

Household separation (for reasons other than widowhood) is modeled as an exogenous event. Conditional on both spouses surviving, the probability of becoming separated in period t is assumed to depend on the man and woman's level of education (e^m, e^f), their ages ($a_t^m, a_t^f = t$), and the number of children (N_t). Until 2004, divorce did not exist in Chile. For simplicity we treat divorce, marriage annulment and de facto separation as equivalent in the model. The separation probability is specified as a logistic model,

$$\pi_t^d = \pi^d(e^m, e^f, N_t, a_t^m, t) = 1 - (1 + \exp\{\pi_0 + \pi_1 a_t^m + \pi_2 e^m + \pi^3(a_t^m - t)^2\})^{-1}.$$

Upon separation, a couple's non-pension assets A_t are split evenly between the two individuals who then become single households.

Recall that one feature of the pension reform was a change in the rules governing pensions upon divorce. Prior to the reform, divorce could lead to a loss of rights to a spouse's pension benefits. After the reform, in the event of a divorce or annulment, a judge can rule that up to fifty percent of one of the spouse's pension balance be transferred to the other spouse's account as a form of alimony. In our model, we assume that before the reform, divorced individuals only have access to their own pension funds and do not get to keep their former spouse's pension. After the reform, the spouse that is followed in the data gets the maximum of either their own pension or one-half of the pooled pension savings of the wife and husband. To reduce computational complexity and because separation in old age is relatively rare, we assume that no separation occurs after the woman turns age sixty ($t = t_s$).

4.6 Fertility

The number of children N_t is assumed to evolve stochastically. The probability of having another child is modeled as a logistic model, that depends on the woman's age, marital

²⁸We obtain these probabilities from life tables that are specific to Chile and are conditional on age and gender (RV-2004, from Circular 1314, published by the Superintendencia de Pensiones).

status, schooling level and and number of children in the previous period.

$$\pi^N j_t(N_t|N_{t-1}, a_t^j, e^f, \text{marital status}) = 1 - (1 + \exp\{-A\})^{-1}$$

where $A = \alpha_0 + \alpha_1 t + \alpha_2 \cdot \text{married} + \alpha_3 N_{t-1} + \alpha_4 e^f + \alpha_5 \cdot \text{married} \cdot N_{t-1}$

There are assumed to be no births after the woman turns age forty ($t=t_C$).²⁹

4.7 Evolution of other state variables

The model's other time-varying state variables, A_t , B_t^m , B_t^f , X_t^m , X_t^f are determined by the saving, labor supply decisions and asset return shocks. Private savings are assumed to earn the risk-free rate r , assumed to be five percent. The balances on each spouse's pension account accrue interest stochastically and are augmented by the current period's contribution. Returns on the pension accounts are modeled as an iid process: $r_B \sim iidN(\bar{r}_B, \sigma_B^2)$.³⁰

4.8 Recursive formulation of the Household's Problem

The optimization problem faced by a single individual of gender j has the following recursive formulation:

$$V_t^j(\Omega_t^j; \tilde{\epsilon}_t^j; \text{type}) = \max_{s_t, d_t^j, p_t^j} \left[u^j(c_t^j, d_t^j, p_t^j, N_t, \epsilon_t^j; \text{type}) + \beta \pi^{sj}(t) EV_{t+1}^j(\Omega_{t+1}^j; \tilde{\epsilon}_{t+1}^j; \text{type}) \right]$$

s.t.

$$\begin{aligned} c_t^j &= (1 - s_t) \cdot (y_t^j + A_t \cdot (1 + r)) \\ A_{t+1} &= s_t \cdot (y_t^j + A_t \cdot (1 + r)) \\ A_{t+1} &\geq 0 \\ B_{t+1}^j &= B_t^j \cdot (1 + r_B) + \tau \cdot \frac{w_{F,t}^j}{1 + p_t^j} \cdot I_{\{d_t^j=1\}} \end{aligned}$$

²⁹This assumption is made in part to reduce computational complexity.

³⁰Individual returns will differ in part because people can choose different firms to administer their pension funds and choose different funds within those firms. These decisions are not incorporated into the model. Also, allowing for serial correlation in the returns would require adding past returns as additional continuous state variables, which would significantly complicate the model's numerical solution.

where $\tau \cdot w_{F,t}^j \cdot I_{\{d_t^j=1\}}$ is the pension contribution made by workers in the formal sector. y_t^j is the household's income defined earlier, and $\tilde{\epsilon}_t^j$ is a vector of shocks to wage offers, preferences for leisure, and pension asset returns. In addition to the constraints above that describe the evolution of pension and non-pension assets, the model includes the wage offer equations and the income/tax equation specified earlier.

For couples, the continuation value imbeds five possible events:

- Both spouses die (the continuation value is 0 in this case)
- The husband dies and the maximization problem continues with the wife
- The wife dies and the maximization problem continues with the husband
- Both spouses survive and remain together
- Both spouses survive and separate and the problem continues with the sampled individual (either male or female)

Incorporating greater detail about the different possible next period options, the recursive formulation of the couple's problem can be written as:

$$\begin{aligned}
 V_t^2(\Omega_t^2; \tilde{\epsilon}_t^2) = \max_{s_t, d_t^m, d_t^f, p_t^f} & \left[\right. \\
 U(c_t^m, c_t^f, d_t^m, d_t^f, p_t^m, p_t^f, N_t, \epsilon_t^m, \epsilon_t^f) & + \beta \cdot \left(\right. \\
 & \pi^{sf}(1 - \pi^{sm}) \cdot (1 - \theta)EV_t^f(\Omega_{t+1}^f; \tilde{\epsilon}_{t+1}^f) \\
 & + \pi^{sm}(1 - \pi^{sf}) \cdot \theta EV_t^m(\Omega_{t+1}^m; \tilde{\epsilon}_{t+1}^m) \\
 & + \pi^{sm}\pi^{sf}(1 - \pi^d) \cdot EV_{t+1}^2(\Omega_t^2; \tilde{\epsilon}_{t+1}^2) \\
 & + \pi^{sm}\pi^{sf}\pi^d \cdot \left[\theta EV_{t+1}^m(\Omega_{t+1}^m; \tilde{\epsilon}_{t+1}^m) + (1 - \theta)EV_t^f(\Omega_{t+1}^f; \tilde{\epsilon}_{t+1}^f) \right] \\
 & \left. \right]
 \end{aligned}$$

s.t.

$$\begin{aligned}
c_t &= (1 - s_t) \cdot (y_t^2 + A_t \cdot (1 + r) - \eta N_t) \\
A_{t+1} &= s_t \cdot (y_t^2 + A_t \cdot (1 + r) - \eta N_t) \\
A_{t+1} &\geq 0 \\
B_{t+1}^j &= B_t^j \cdot (1 + r_B) + \tau \cdot w_{F,t}^j \cdot I_{\{d_t^j=1\}}
\end{aligned}$$

The variables on which the separation and divorce probabilities (p_i^d) depend were omitted above to ease notation.

4.9 Discussion of the Model

4.9.1 Incorporating the 2008 pension reform

Our evaluation of the effects of the 2008 pension reform focuses on the features that are most likely to produce large impacts on the disparity in pension levels between men and women. We introduce the following key features of the reform into the model:

- (i) *The New Solidarity Pillar.* The NSP is most beneficial to workers with low pension savings accumulations who otherwise would not have contributed long enough to qualify for the MPG under the old system. The NSP is expected to disproportionately benefit women.
- (ii) *The per-child bonus.* The child bonus is provided only to women, regardless of whether they actually experience career interruptions upon giving birth. The bonus could have some disincentive effects on women's labor supply either through a wealth effect (the benefit increases pension savings, so the household doesn't need to work and save as much) or by encouraging greater fertility, which in turn might lead to more career interruptions.
- (iii) *Change in rules for divorce.* Wives can receive up to fifty percent of the husband's pension savings upon divorce.

Two aspects of the reform cannot be evaluated given our methodology. The first is the change in the premium paid by women per the Survivorship and Disability insurance, since the model does not incorporate health status, other than death. The second is the ability to make voluntary pension contributions. Under the current system, the percentage of the

population making voluntary contributions to their pension account above the mandated ten percent level is very small: fewer than two percent of the system's affiliates had positive balances in their voluntary contributions account in 2005 (own calculations). Given the additional complexity required and given the relative infrequency of voluntary contributions in the data, we did not incorporate this aspect into the model. The model does incorporate decisions about private savings, but not the decision of whether to place the private savings into a tax-deferred pension account.

The model is dynamic and explicitly incorporates forward-looking behavior under a rational expectations assumption. It also incorporates uncertainty and incomplete information. Specifically, individuals are uncertain about future wage shocks, future fertility, future divorce or widowhood, future survival and investment returns at the time of making labor supply and savings decisions. In solving the model, we assume that the 2008 pension reform came as a surprise and was not anticipated. We assume this, in part, because our discussions with the Budget Office in Chile indicated that the reform was not anticipated.³¹ Thus, decisions up until 2008 are governed by a pre-reform decision model and decisions after 2009 are governed by a post-reform model. This requires solving two different versions of the model. The structural model parameters are estimated solely on pre pension reform data and then, fixing the parameters, the model is resolved under the post-reform scenario.

The effects of the 2008 pension reform on decision-making and on the indicators described in section two can be assessed by simulating household behavior using the pre-reform pension model and then simulating the same households under the post-reform rules. For purposes of this simulation, we use as a starting point the initial conditions in the year 2004 and the simulate choices in years 2005-2014. Our tables report values in 2014, but of course pension values in 2014 reflect the choices made in prior years. A comparison of the choices and outcomes under the pre-reform and post-reform regimes is informative about the impact of the reform.

To a limited extent, the model incorporates business cycle effects in that returns on pension investments vary over time. Two limitations of the model are that investment returns are assumed to be i.i.d. and that there are otherwise no aggregate earnings shocks.

³¹Modeling the reform as anticipated would have also been feasible, but would require somewhat arbitrary assumptions about when the details of the reform became known to workers.

However, aggregate demographic changes in the economy are incorporated in a few ways. First, the initial conditions include the education levels of the husband and wife and rising levels of education with successive birth cohorts will lead to different decision-making with regard to labor force participation and fertility. We expect, for example, that more recent cohorts of women who have higher education levels on average will tend to have fewer children and will participate more in the labor force. Also, the model takes marital sorting patterns as a given initial condition, so changes in marital sorting that may have occurred over time are also taken into account and can generate differences in behaviors across birth cohorts.

4.9.2 Incorporating labor market regulations

The model also incorporates some important labor market regulations. For example, the progressive tax structure is taken into account in computing after-tax income. Fees that workers pay for health and disability insurance are also taken into account. Lastly, the model incorporates the fact that informal sector workers typically do not pay these taxes and fees.³²

5 Solution and Estimation Method

5.1 Solution Method

The model does not have an analytic solution and is therefore solved numerically by backwards recursion. Model solution proceeds as follows. At age $t_D - 1$, a household decides on labor force participation and consumption, which together imply a level of savings, to maximize the weighted sum of current and future period utilities, denoted by $V_{t_D-1}(\Omega_{t_D-1}; \tilde{\epsilon}_{t_D-1})$, where the state vector is divided into a deterministic component containing the elements that are not random at the beginning of period $t_D - 1$, Ω_{t_D-1} , and a shock component containing the vector of random earnings and preference shocks drawn at $t_D - 1$, $\tilde{\epsilon}_{t_D-1}$.

For any given value of the deterministic and shock components of the state vector, optimal consumption is obtained by comparing utility on a grid of possible consumption levels, for each of the possible choices of husbands' and wives' labor sectors. The labor decision and

³²We use information on reported earnings and do not explicitly incorporate minimum wage regulation. However, we trim out reported monthly wages over one hundred million pesos as they are likely to be reported with error.

associated optimal consumption that maximizes total utility is chosen for that value of the state vector.

At any deterministic state point, the expected value of V_{t_D-1} is obtained by Monte Carlo integration, that is, by taking draws from the shock vector distribution and averaging to obtain $EV_{t_D-1}(\Omega_{t_D-1})$. This expectation is calculated at a subset of the deterministic state points and the function is approximated for all other state points by a polynomial regression following an approximation method developed by Keane and Wolpin (1994, 1997). We denote this function as $Emax_{t_D-1}(\cdot)$.

This procedure is repeated at age t_D-2 . Using the recursive formulation of the value function, substituting the $Emax_{t_D-1}(\cdot)$ function for the future component, the optimal decision is computed. Monte Carlo integration over the shock vector at t_D-2 provides $EV_{t_D-2}(\Omega_{t_D-2})$ for a given deterministic state point. A polynomial regression over a subset of the state points again provides an approximation to the function, denoted by $Emax_{t_D-2}$. Repeating the procedure back to the initial age provides the $Emax$ polynomial approximation at each age. The set of $Emax_t$ functions fully describe the solution to the optimization problem.

5.2 Estimation Method

Model parameters are estimated by the Method of Simulated Moments (MSM). This method was chosen, in part, because it more easily accommodates missing state variables than does simulated maximum likelihood, which would require numerical integration over all possible values of missing state variables. Because only a few rounds of data were available, we calibrated the discount factor at 0.95. The fertility logit parameters were estimated separately and are presented in table C.1.

Our estimation approach uses information from the 2004 survey to construct the initial conditions and state variables (described in the previous section), simulates two periods ahead to get 2006 outcomes, and minimizes the distance between the actual and the simulated 2004/2006 outcomes. Some of the outcomes include 2004-2006 transitions.

Appendix A lists the set of data moments used in the estimation. There are 157 moments (M) and 47 estimated model parameters (K). The estimated parameter values are reported in table C.2 with standard errors in italics.

We next describe how standard errors are obtained. Denote by x_i^m an outcome measure of

individual i , $i \in 1..N$, pertaining to the m th moment, $m = 1..M$. The Method of Simulated Moments estimator that we use is defined as:

$$\hat{\theta}_N = \arg \max_{\theta \in \Theta} \left[\frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^n \left[x_i^m D_i^m \frac{N}{N^m} - \left(\frac{1}{R} \sum_{r=1}^R \sum_{k=1}^K \hat{x}_{irk}^m(\theta) \hat{D}_{irk}^m(\theta) \frac{N}{N^m} Pr(k|\Omega) \right) \right] \right]'_{1 \times M} W_N^{-1} \left[\frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^n \left[x_i^m D_i^m \frac{N}{N^m} - \left(\frac{1}{R} \sum_{r=1}^R \sum_{k=1}^K \hat{x}_{irk}^m(\theta) \hat{D}_{irk}^m(\theta) \frac{N}{N^m} Pr(k|\Omega) \right) \right] \right]'_{M \times 1}$$

where D_i^m is an indicator for whether observation i is included in calculating moment condition m , \hat{D}_{irk}^m is an indicator for whether the observation is included in moment m under simulation r when the individual is type k , and $N^m = \sum_{i=1}^n D_i^m$. The sum over k integrates over the unobserved types. For example, suppose the moment pertains to the wages of males in some age range who are working. In that case, $D_i^m = 1$ for males in a given age range who are working. $\hat{D}_{irk}^m = 1$ for males in that age range who are simulated to be working. The weighting matrix W_N is an M by M diagonal matrix with the m^{th} diagonal elements equal to the sample variance of x_i^m .³³ Integrating over the unobservables, k , and assuming that $R \rightarrow \infty$ so that the simulation error goes to zero and the term in parentheses converges (uniformly in θ) to the limit, we get

$$\mu_i^m(\theta) = E(\hat{x}_{irk}(\theta)^m | \hat{D}_i^m(\theta) = 1) Pr(\hat{D}_i^m(\theta) = 1) \frac{N}{N^m}. \quad (1)$$

Defining

$$\mu_i^m = x_i^m D_i^m \frac{N}{N^m}, \quad (2)$$

we can rewrite the objective function as:

$$\hat{\theta}_N = \arg \max_{\theta \in \Theta} \left[\frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^n \mu_i^m - \mu_i^m(\theta) \right]'_{1 \times M} W_N^{-1} \left[\frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^n \mu_i^m - \mu_i^m(\theta) \right]_{M \times 1}$$

³³We do not use the optimal weighting matrix (the inverse of the variance of the moments), because of difficulties in inverting the matrix during the course of the optimization. However, the efficiency cost of not using the optimal weighting matrix is probably not that great. Altonji and Segal (1996) provide Monte-Carlo evidence of small-sample bias when the optimal weighting matrix is used.

Taking first order conditions with respect to θ yields ³⁴ :

$$\left[\frac{1}{N} \sum_{i \in S} \frac{\delta \mu_i^m}{\delta \theta} \Big|_{\hat{\theta}_N} \right]' W_N^{-1} \left[\frac{1}{N} \sum_{i \in S} (\mu_i^m - \mu_i^m(\hat{\theta}_N)) \right] = 0 \quad (3)$$

A Taylor expansion of $\mu_i^m(\hat{\theta}_N)$ around the true parameter vector θ_0 yields:

$$\mu_i^m(\hat{\theta}_N) = \mu_i^m(\theta_0) + \frac{\delta \mu_i^m}{\delta \theta} \Big|_{\theta^*} \cdot (\hat{\theta}_N - \theta_0) \quad (4)$$

for some θ^* between $\hat{\theta}_N$ and θ_0 .

We obtain after rearranging:

$$\begin{aligned} \sqrt{N}(\hat{\theta}_N - \theta_0) &= \left[\left[\frac{1}{N} \sum_{i \in S} \frac{\delta \mu_i^m}{\delta \theta} \Big|_{\hat{\theta}_N} \right]' W_N^{-1} \left[\frac{1}{N} \sum_{i \in S} \frac{\delta \mu_i^m}{\delta \theta} \Big|_{\hat{\theta}^*} \right] \right]^{-1} \\ &\quad \times \left[\frac{1}{N} \sum_{i \in S} \frac{\delta \mu_i^m}{\delta \theta} \Big|_{\hat{\theta}_N} \right]' W_N^{-1} \left[\frac{1}{\sqrt{N}} \sum_{i \in S} (\mu_i^m - \mu^m(\theta_0)) \right]. \end{aligned}$$

Following Hansen (1981), we can obtain the estimator's asymptotic variance-covariance matrix as:

$$Asy.Var(\hat{\theta}_N) = (D_0' W_0^{-1} D_0)^{-1} D_0' W_0^{-1} V_0 W_0^{-1} D_0 (D_0' W_0^{-1} D_0)^{-1'}$$

where $D_0 = E \left[\frac{\delta \mu^m}{\delta \theta} \Big|_{\theta_0} \right]$, $V_0 = E \left([\mu_i^m - \mu_i^m(\theta_0)] [\mu_j^m - \mu_j^m(\theta_0)]' \right)$.

In computing the standard errors, D_0 is estimated using numerical derivatives of the model's moments at the estimated vector of parameters, V_0 is approximated by the sample variance-covariance of $[\tilde{x}_j^m - \tilde{\mu}_j^m(\theta_0)]$. The standard errors are corrected for the variance resulting from replacing the true model-implied moments by simulated moments.

6 Description of the data

The estimation and simulations are based on data from three sources: the *Encuesta de Protección Social* (EPS) longitudinal survey, linked administrative records of pension balances and contributions to retirement accounts (obtained from the Chilean supervising agency for

³⁴If the number of simulations $R \rightarrow \infty$, then the limiting objective is differentiable despite the original objective function not being differentiable.

pension fund administrators (the *Superintendency of Pensions* or SP) and data on the returns achieved by Chile's pension fund administrators (the *Administradoras de Fondos de Pensiones*).

The EPS survey was first administered in 2002 (originally under the name *Historia Laboral y de Seguridad Social*) by the Microdata Center of the University of Chile. Originally, the sampling frame was individuals affiliated with the AFP or the older INP pension systems. The survey data was then linked to the administrative records of the pension accounts of the sampled individuals. In 2004, 2006 and 2009 three follow-up surveys were administered, and the sample was augmented to include individuals that were not affiliated to any pension program, to obtain a total sample of 20,114 individuals, representative of the Chilean population in 2004. We use information on the 16,150 respondents who were interviewed in the 2006 round and use the survey weights to correct for attrition and non response.

The EPS questionnaire was designed specifically to study Chile's social protection programs including the pension system. It contains rich longitudinal information on socio-demographic variables, household composition, employment histories, earnings and assets. The data include retrospective employment histories back to 1981 as well as earnings from 2002 to 2006 and household assets in 2004-2006. The main variables used in our estimation are age, schooling level, schooling level of the spouse, an indicator for the birth of a child in the current year, ages of all children, number of years the respondent worked in the formal sector, number of years the respondent worked in the informal sector, labor sector choice, labor sector choice of the spouse, annual earnings and private household wealth.³⁵ We merge the household survey data with the administrative data on pension savings accumulations.

To arrive at our estimation sample, we apply the following restrictions to the EPS sample:

(i) First, it was decided the model would incorporate the rules of the AFP pension system, as the older INP system was phased out. We thus excluded from the estimation sample workers who reported only making contributions to a pension system other than AFP, which applied to 2,152 EPS respondents. The characteristics of these excluded households are summarized in tables B.1 and B.2. We do incorporate those workers who worked before 1980, and thus accumulated some pension rights under the previous pension system. In the

³⁵We construct a wealth measure that includes also the reported value of equity in major household assets, such as the home and car.

model, the value of these rights is captured through the value of their Recognition Bond (“bono de reconocimiento”), which we add to the funds accumulated in the AFP account upon retirement.³⁶

(ii) Second, incorporating marriage decisions is not feasible given the model’s complexity. To limit the impact of this simplification, we set the initial age in our model to thirty-five, an age at which most people’s marital status has been determined, and we use in estimation individuals who are thirty-five or older in 2004, the initial year of our sample (4,899 households excluded by this restriction, see tables B.3 and B.4). We excluded respondents who reported getting married after the age of thirty-five (1,183 cases, see tables B.5 and B.6).

Finally, we dropped household with missing information in key variables and with inconsistencies across survey rounds with respect to age, education and civil status, for an additional 2,502 respondents excluded (see tables B.7 and B.8). The final sample contains 5,314 households, some consisting of a single person and some of a couple, for a total of 4,809 women and 4,309 men.

A potential concern with regard to these exclusion restrictions is whether we might disproportionately be excluding poorer households, who are the target of the pension policies we are evaluating. We report in Table C.4 the mean and quantiles of the earnings of working individuals above age thirty-five before and after the sample restrictions are applied. The distributions are very similar, except in the right tail. The estimation sample contains a slightly smaller proportion of wealthy households, which is unlikely to affect our conclusions.

Table C.5 presents summary statistics for the estimation sample. Two thirds of the sample are couples, and most of the single households are women. Women are a lot less likely than men to be working (36.2 percent versus 74.9 percent). Among workers, women are slightly less likely to be working in the formal sector than men. The high average age of the sample (51.4 for men and 50.8 for women) is due to the fact that the estimation only incorporates workers over thirty-five years of age at the time of the first survey (2004). The high levels of mean assets are heavily skewed by a handful of respondents with very high wealth levels.³⁷ Table C.6 describes the distribution of earnings, non-pension assets and

³⁶We obtained a dataset on the recognition bond values from the Superintendence of Pensions, which we linked to the survey data.

³⁷This is the case even though the responses for each type of asset holdings (housing, cars, etc.) have been top coded at one percent to reduce the effect of outliers.

pension assets, in millions of pesos. The high levels of mean assets partly reflect a handful of respondents with very high wealth levels.³⁸

7 Within- and out-of-sample model fit

As described previously, we simulate individual’s labor supply and savings behavior in years 2005 and 2006, using the 2004 data as the initial conditions, and we examine the within-sample fit. In addition, we examine out-of-sample fit by simulating decisions and outcomes until 2009, introducing the 2008 reform in the model as it was implemented in reality. We compare the model’s predictions with the information observed in the 2009 EPS round, which was not used in estimation. The 2009 survey data were collected in the summer of 2009, about nine months after the introduction of the first phase of the pension reform.

7.1 Within-sample fit (2006 data)

Figure D.1 shows the distribution of household assets, excluding pension accounts, by age groups. Dispersion is accurately captured. The fraction of households with 0 wealth declines over the lifecycle, and the asset distribution shifts to the right with age.

Table D.1 shows the annual earnings for men and women of different schooling levels in formal and informal sector jobs. Figure D.2 shows the distribution of annual earnings by formal/informal sector. The schooling-earning gradients are well captured for all groups as well as the overall dispersion and the fact that the formal sector has a fatter and longer right tail. The college graduate mean earnings is underestimated for some groups (e.g. men in informal sector) because we miss some of the very high earners in the informal sector as can be seen in figure D.2.

Figure D.3 shows formal sector participation as a function of total formal sector experience. Figure D.4 shows the age profiles in labor force participation among men and women. The model captures low female labor force participation in Chile, the pattern of formal sector participation with experience, and the decline of employment over the lifecycle for men and women.

³⁸This is the case even though the responses for each type of asset holdings (housing, cars, etc.) have been top coded at one percent to reduce the effect of outliers/miscoding.

Tables D.2, D.3, D.4, D.5 show transitions in employment decisions for men and women. We capture short-term and long-term persistence in formal sector employment as seen in transition tables and figure D.3. Workers with little accumulated formal experience are unlikely to work formally. Model simulations underestimate somewhat persistence in informal sector employment.

7.2 Out-of-sample fit (2009 data)

Next, we use the model to simulate decisions and outcomes to 2009, incorporating the 2008 reform. We compare our simulations to the 2009 data, which was not used in estimation, as a method of out-of-sample validation. As previously noted, the data were collected shortly after the reform started to be phased-in, and our model assumes that workers immediately and fully adjust to the new rules of the pension system. In the data, the fraction of survey respondents who reported knowing about the reform at the time of the 2009 round of interviews was still low (between a quarter and a third according to Behrman et al (2011)). Nonetheless, as seen in Tables D.7-D.12, the model predicts fairly well the distributions of numbers of children, labor force experience, and work experience for men and women. The model's predictions of mean annual earnings and of the distribution of earnings is close for both men and women, although it underpredicts the far right tail. Also, the prediction of the fraction of single women working in the formal sector is lower than in the data while single male participation is higher.

8 Short-term reform impacts

We now use the model to simulate decision-making and outcomes until 2019, incorporating the reform as implemented, and we compare outcomes pooled over years 2009-2019.

The tables and figures below describe the pension levels, poverty rates, labor force participation patterns (including formal/informal sector break-down), and pension wealth with and without the reform.³⁹ If a couple qualifies for the PASIS pension, our simulation assigns

³⁹To keep the model tractable, we assumed that everybody chooses the option of programmed pension withdrawals. In computing the programmed withdrawals, we used the life tables RV-2004 published by the *Superintendencia de Pensiones*. The 2009, 2010 and 2011 rates of return were used for the corresponding years. To discount years more than twenty years in the future, the twentieth discount rate was repeated. For years

the PASIS pension to the woman (only one member of the household can get the PASIS).

Figures D.5 and D.6 show the change in pensions received by individuals after age 64 due to the reform. The distributions show mass points at the government-funded minimum pension benefits under the old rules (PASIS and MPG) and the new rules (PBS). Individuals eligible for APS are to the right of the PBS value. Some women who don't qualify for any minimum pension still qualify for the child supplement, resulting in pensions just above 0. The two lower graphs from figure D.5 show that the fraction of women with no pension is dramatically reduced owing to the reform. A significant number of unmarried men who qualify only for PASIS under the old system now receive the higher PBS. Figure D.6 shows that women with low schooling attainment are the main beneficiaries of the reform.

As shown in figure D.7, the reform produces significant negative effects on labor force participation of 5-10 percentage point (10-20%). These effects are restricted to married men after 65. Formal sector participation (unconditional on working) also declines for the same group by 2-4 percentage points (5-10%) (figure D.8). Formal work appears to decline slightly for single men in the same age group as well.

Table D.6 shows mean non-pension wealth across age groups under the two scenarios. The crowding out of non-pension savings by the more generous minimum pensions implemented by the reform appears minimal and restricted to the 55-65 age group. On the other hand, mean savings after the retirement age actually go up, implying that part of the transfers that households receive under the reform is saved.

9 Long-term reform impacts and alternative designs

Next, we use the estimated model to evaluate the long-term effects of the pension reform on individual outcomes but also government outlays and tax revenue. We also compare these variables across alternative pension designs. To do so, we consider the younger cohorts in our estimation sample (specifically, individuals born in 1964 or later) and simulate their lifetime decisions and outcomes, as well as the present discounted value (PDV) in 2009 of their tax payments, and collected government-financed benefits. The latter include the child subsidy, the new minimum pension (SPS), as well as the old PASIS and minimum pension guarantee

after 2011, the 2011 vector was used. For years before 2009, a single discount rate of five percent was used.

(MPG). The individuals simulated are between thirty-five and forty in 2004. The scenarios we consider are the following:

1. The actual reform is implemented in 2009 (baseline)
2. The old system is left in place (no reform)
3. The actual reform is implemented in 2009 but the minimum pension is not tapered (no tapering)

The policy changes are assumed to be unanticipated so that decisions until 2008 are governed by pre-reform expectations. The tables below describe the differences in lifetime outcomes under the different scenarios. Our assumptions are otherwise the same as in the short-run reform impact simulations.

9.1 Long-term costs of the reform

Tables D.13 and D.14 show the difference in long-term outcomes under the baseline vs. no reform scenarios. The present discounted value of the increase in lifetime government payments due to the reform are predicted to be 1.86 and 1.62 million pesos per capita on average for men and women respectively. The child subsidy accounts for about a sixth of the total cost (0.66 million pesos paid to women in 2009 present value), and about a third of the total payments made to women. The child subsidy does not appear to create strong positive or negative labor supply incentives (remember that the subsidy is not conditional on a career interruption on the part of the mother). The same is true of the change in the asset division rule upon divorce.⁴⁰

Tables D.13 and D.14 do predict that the reform will increase the lifetime contribution densities and formal sector participation of between ten and twenty-five percent of men. The extra tax revenue offsets about a sixth of the reform cost. This is not related to the tapering of the new minimum pension as discussed in the next subsection. Rather, this is due to the removal of disincentives to formal work and saving associated with the old minimum pension

⁴⁰The tables comparing outcomes between the baseline and the “no bonus” and “no divorce rule” scenarios are available upon request

guarantee and the narrowly means-tested PASIS pension.⁴¹

Overall, the new benefits are around ten times as costly than the previous safety net. This is not surprising given the latter’s low coverage and generosity.

9.2 Tapering or no tapering

Tables D.15 and D.16 compare the baseline reform with the “no tapering” scenario. This allows us to show that the tapering of the minimum pension accounts for nearly half of the total cost of the reform. This cost is not offset by an improvement in formality for either men or women which was expected to improve tax revenue.

Theoretically tapering reduces the implicit marginal tax on pension contributions created by flat, top-up minimum pension benefits (see figure 2). In our case, the old minimum pension guarantee created a one hundred percent implicit tax on contributions for individuals who expected with certainty that they would benefit from it. The new system is designed to impose only a thirty percent implicit tax on contributions thanks to the tapering. However, this also implies mechanically that a larger fraction of the population will be subject to that (lower) implicit tax. Indeed, one can think of it as “spreading” the implicit tax on a larger number of individuals. The effect is thus theoretically ambiguous, and its magnitude undetermined.

Our simulations show that the positive incentives expected from the tapering of the minimum pension are not likely to materialize. This is due mostly to the fact that implicit marginal tax effects appear too small to sway many individuals away from the formal sector. Further, small positive effects on tax revenue from the reduction in the implicit tax *rate*, are offset by losses due the addition of individuals to the tax *basis*. Tables D.16 and D.15 also show that tapering mostly improves the middle of the distribution of pension benefits. In other words, this feature of the reform operates as a transfer that is not targeted to the poorest retirees.

⁴¹This is apparent when comparing outcomes in the no reform case, but removing either the old MPG or PASIS benefits. These tables are not shown in the text to conserve space, but are available upon request.

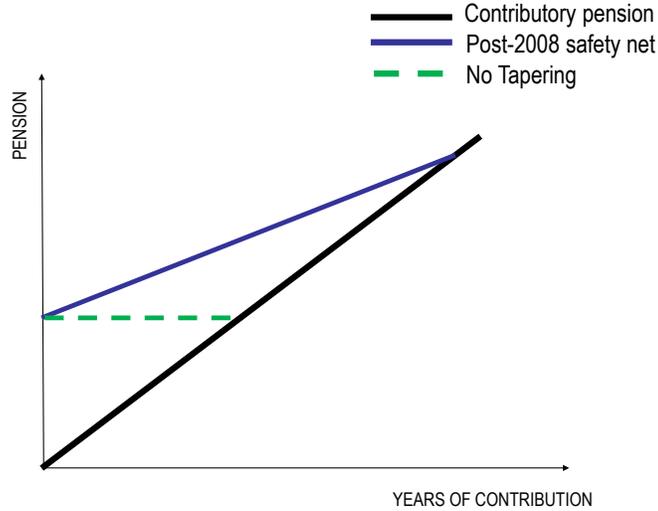


Figure 2: Pension benefit levels with and without minimum pension tapering

9.3 Short-run vs. Long-run behavioral responses

It is interesting to contrast these predictions to the short-run behavioral responses described earlier. First, it appears that the small average changes in LFP and formal sector participation predicted for the short-run can compound into sizeable fiscal impacts over the life time of a cohort. Second, the increase in formal sector participation predicted for younger men in the short-run are expected to outweigh the negative short-run responses predicted for older men. For older men, short-term impacts are larger than long-term impacts because the cohorts of individuals who experience the reform in their old age are not able to anticipate it and adjusting their labor supply and saving decisions early on. In contrast, due to state dependence, the short-term responses attributed to younger individuals are likely to be magnified in the long run. Our structural approach allows us to overcome this general limitation of short-run policy evaluation and capture both the anticipatory and the compounding effects.

10 Conclusions

The simulations indicate the following impacts of the pension reform on pension withdrawals, pension savings, labor supply, retirement and the government budget:

(i) The pension reform significantly increases the level of pension withdrawals for women, who before the reform were mainly getting pension income through the PASIS welfare pension. The reform also leads to modest increases in the pension withdrawal amounts for males at the lower end of the pension withdrawal distribution. The level of women's pension withdrawals after the reform is equal to that of men in the first two quartiles and the gender gap is much reduced across the upper quartiles.

(ii) The pension reform largely eliminates old-age poverty (given our definitions of poverty). The pre-reform poverty rates for people aged sixty or younger are fairly sensitive to the measure used to define poverty, in particular, whether receipt of the PASIS pension qualifies as being poor. The pension reform leads to a slight increase in poverty rates for the younger age groups due to work disincentive effects.

(iii) In the short-run, simulations indicate a disincentive effect of the reform on working in the formal sector for men aged 63 and older and women age fifty and older. As retirement nears, incentives to contribute to the pension system are lower than before the reform due to higher expected income in retirement. However, younger men and women show modest increases in formal sector participation which offset the above-mentioned disincentives in the long-run simulations.

(iv) We anticipate that the new system will be ten times as costly as the old system, after accounting for changes in tax revenue, owing to its much larger coverage and benefit levels.

(v) Attempts to make the reformed pension system more incentive-compatible by tapering-off non-contributory benefits with pension accumulation levels are not shown to improve formal sector participation and tax revenue significantly. In addition, this feature accounts for half of the total cost of the reform.

References

- [1] ACUÑA, RODRIGO AND AUGUSTO IGLESIAS (2001) "Chile's pension reform after 20 years." Washington D.C.: The World Bank, Discussion Paper 0129, December.
- [2] JOSEPH G. ALTONJI AND LEWIS M. SEGAL (1996) "Small-Sample Bias in GMM Estimation of Covariance Structures" *Journal of Business & Economic Statistics* , Vol. 14, No. 3 (Jul., 1996), pp. 353-366
- [3] ARENAS DE MESA, ALBERTO, JERE BEHRMAN, DAVID BRAVO, OLIVIA MITCHELL AND PETRA TODD (2007), *The Chilean Pension Reform Turns 25: Lessons from the Social Protection Survey*, ed. Stephen Kay and Tapen Sinha, in *Lessons from Pension Reform in the Americas*, Oxford University Press, 2007. Pages 23-58.
- [4] ARENAS DE MESA, ALBERTO AND VERONICA MONTECINOS (1999), The privatization of social security and women's welfare: gender effects of the Chilean reform. *Latin American Research Review*.
- [5] ATTANASIO, ORAZIO AND A. BRUGIAVINI (2003): "Social Security and Household Saving," *Quarterly Journal of Economics*, Vol. 118, No. 3, pp. 1075-1119.
- [6] ATTANASIO, ORAZIO AND S. ROHWEDDER (2003): "Pension wealth and household saving: Evidence from pension reforms in the United Kingdom," *The American Economic Review*, Vol. 93, No. 5, pp. 1499-1521.
- [7] ATTANASIO, ORAZIO, MEGHIR, COSTAS, AND ADRES OTERO (2011): "Pensions, Work and Informality: The impact of the 2008 Chilean Pension Reform," manuscript, University College, London.
- [8] BEHRMAN, JERE R., MARIA CECILIA CALDERON, OLIVIA S. MITCHELL, JAVIERA VASQUEZ, AND DAVID BRAVO (2011): "First-Round Impacts of the 2008 Chilean Pension System Reform," PRC WP2011-03. <http://www.pensionresearchcouncil.org>.
- [9] BERKOVEC, JAMES AND STEVEN STERN (1991): "Job Exit Behavior of Older Men," in *Econometrica*, Vol. 59, No. 1, 189-210.

- [10] BERTRANOU, FABIO (2001) Pension reform and gender gaps in Latin America: what are the policy options? *World Development*, 29(5).
- [11] BLAU, D.M., GILLESKIE, D.B. (2006): "Health insurance and retirement of married couples" *Journal of Applied Econometrics* 21, 935-953
- [12] BLAU, D.M., GILLESKIE, D.B., 2008. "The role of retiree health insurance in the employment behavior of older men." *IER* 49(2), 475-514
- [13] CASANOVA, MARIA (2009): "Happy Together: A Structural Model of Couples? Joint Retirement Choices," working paper, UCLA.
- [14] Dammon, Robert M., Chester S. Spatt, and Harold H. Zhang (2004): "Optimal Asset Location and Allocation with Taxable and Tax-Deferred Investing," in *The Journal of Finance*, Vol. 59, No. 3, 999-1037.
- [15] FIELDS, GARY S. AND OLIVIA S. MITCHELL (1984): "The effects of social security reforms on retirement ages and retirement incomes," in *Journal of Public Economics*, Volume 25, Issues 1-2, p. 143-159.
- [16] FRENCH, ERIC (2005): "The effects of health, wealth, and wages on labour supply and retirement behaviour". *Review of Economic Studies*, 72 , 395-427
- [17] FRENCH, ERIC AND JOHN BAILEY JONES (2011): "The Effects of Health Insurance and Self-Insurance on Retirement Behavior," in *Econometrica*, vol. 79, issue 3, 693-732.
- [18] GALLIPOLI, GIOVANNI AND LAURA TURNER (2011): "Social Security, Endogenous Retirement, and Intrahousehold Cooperation," working paper, Univ of British Columbia.
- [19] GOMES, FRANCISCO AND ALEXANDER MICHAELIDES (2005): "Optimal Life-Cycle Asset Allocation: Understanding the Empirical Evidence," in *The Journal of Finance*, Vol. 60, No. 2, 869-904.
- [20] GUSTMAN, ALAN L. AND THOMAS L. STEINMEIER (1985): "The 1983 Social Security Reforms and Labor Supply Adjustments of Older Individuals in the Long Run," in *Journal of Labor Economics*, Vol. 3, No. 2, 237-253.

- [21] GUSTMAN, ALAN L. AND THOMAS L. STEINMEIER (1986): "A structural retirement model" in *Econometrica*, 54, 555-584
- [22] GUSTMAN, ALAN L. AND THOMAS L. STEINMEIER (2000): "Retirement in Dual-Career Families: A Structural Model," in *Journal of Labor Economics*, vol. 18, no 3, 503-545.
- [23] GUSTMAN STEINMEIER (2002): "Social Security, pensions and retirement behaviour within the family." *Journal of Applied Econometrics*, 19, 723-737.
- [24] HANSEN, L. P. (1985): "Large Sample Properties of Generalized Method of Moments Estimators," *Econometrica*, 50, 1029-1054.
- [25] HECKMAN, J.J. AND B. SINGER (1984). "A method for minimizing the impact of distributional assumptions in econometric models for duration data". *Econometrica* 52: 271-320.
- [26] JAMES, ESTELLE, ALEJANDRA COX EDWARDS, AND REBECA WONG (2003), The Gender Impact of Pension Reform in *Journal of Pension Economics and Finance* 2(2).
- [27] JOUBERT, CLEMENT (2012): "Pension design with a large informal labor market: Evidence from Chile," working paper, University of Pennsylvania.
- [28] JOUBERT, CLEMENT (2010): *Dynamic labor supply and savings incentives under a privatized pension system: evidence from Chile*, Dissertation, University of Pennsylvania.
- [29] KEANE, M. P. AND K. I. WOLPIN (1994). "The solution and estimation of discrete choice dynamic programming models by simulation: Monte Carlo evidence". *Review of Economics and Statistics*: 648-672.
- [30] KEANE, M. P. AND K. I. WOLPIN (1997). "The career decisions of young men". *Journal of Political Economy* 105: 473-522.
- [31] MALONEY, WILLIAM (1999): "Does Informality Imply Segmentation in Urban Labor Markets? Evidence from Sectoral Transitions in Mexico," in *The World Bank Economic Review*, Vol. 13, No. 2, 275-302.

- [32] MITCHELL, OLIVIA S. AND GARY S. FIELDS (1984): The Economics of Retirement Behavior, *Journal of Labor Economics* , Vol. 2, No. 1, pp. 84-105
- [33] RUST, JOHN AND CHRISTOPHER PHELAN (1997): “How Social Security and Medicare Affect Retirement Behavior in a World of Incomplete Markets,” in *Econometrica*, Vol. 65, No. 4, 781-831.
- [34] STOCK, JAMES H. AND WISE, DAVID A. (1990): “Pensions, the option value of work and retirement” in *Econometrica* 58, 1151-1180
- [35] TURNER L., GALLIPOLI G., 2011.”Social Security, Endogenous Retirement, and Intra-household Cooperation” - 2011 Meeting Papers - ideas.repec.org
- [36] VAN DER KLAUW, WILBERT AND KENNETH I. WOLPIN (2008): “Social security and the retirement and savings behavior of low-income households,” in *Journal of Econometrics*, 145, 21-42.

A List of estimation moments

The following is the list of moments of the joint distribution of savings, labor force participation and sector choices used to fit the model to the data. They correspond to information on the estimation sample in year 2006.

1-3	% of married couples with under 3 million in private savings (age 35-54,45-55,55-65)
4-6	% of married couples with over 6 million in private savings (age 35-54,5-55,55-65)
7-9	% of single males with under 3 million in private savings (age 35-54,45-55,55-65)
10-12	% of single males with over 6 million in private savings (age 35-54,45-55,55-65)
13-15	% of single females with under 3 million in private savings (age 35-54,45-55,55-65)
16-18	% of single females with over 6 million in private savings (age 35-54,45-55,55-65)
19-21	% of married couples with under 3 million total wealth (age 35-45, 45-55, 55-65)
22-24	% of married couples with over 12 million total wealth (age 35-45, 45-55, 55-65)
25-27	% of single males with under 3 million total wealth (age 35-45, 45-55, 55-65)
28-31	% of single males with over 12 million total wealth (age 35-45, 45-55, 55-65)
32-33	% of single males with under 3 million total wealth (age 35-45, 45-55, 55-65)
34-36	% of single males with over 12 million total wealth (age 35-45, 45-55, 55-65)
37-40	% working - males (age 35-45,45-55,55-65,65-70)
41-44	% working - married females (age 35-45,45-55,55-65,65-70)
45-48	% working - married females (age 35-45,45-55,55-65,65-70)
49-51	% in part-time work 35-45 - married females (age 35-45,45-55,55-65)
52-54	% in part-time work 35-45 - single females (age 35-45,45-55,55-65)
55-58	% in the Formal sector - males (No HS, HS dropout, HS graduate, College graduate)
59-62	% in the Formal sector - females (No HS, HS dropout, HS graduate, College graduate)
63-68	% males transiting into formal and informal from formal, informal or inactive
69-74	% females transiting into formal and informal from formal, informal or inactive
75-77	Average annual earnings in Formal sector - males (No HS, HS dropout, HS graduate)
78-83	Average annual earnings, males (XP ≥ 5 years, 5-15 , 15-25 , 25-35 , 35-45 , 45-55)
84-86	Average annual earnings in Informal sector - males (No HS, HS dropout, HS graduate)
87-92	Average annual earnings in Informal sector - males (XP ≥ 5 years, 5-15 , 15-25 , 25-35 , 35-45 , 45-55)
93-95	Average annual earnings in formal sector - females (No HS, HS dropout, HS graduate)
96-99	Average annual earnings in formal sector - females (XP ≥ 5 years, 5-15 , 15-25 , 25-35)
100-102	Average annual earnings in informal sector - females (no HS, HS dropout, HS graduate)
103-106	Average annual earnings in informal sector - females (XP ≥ 5 years, 5-15 , 15-25 , 25-35)
107	% with under 1.5 million annual earnings - formal sector - males
108	% with under 1.5 million annual earnings - informal sector - males
109	% with over 4.5 million annual earnings - formal sector - males
110	% with over 4.5 million annual earnings - informal sector - males
111	% with under 1.5 million annual earnings - formal sector - females
112	% with under 1.5 million annual earnings - informal sector - females
113	% with over 4.5 million annual earnings - formal sector - females
114	% with over 4.5 million annual earnings - informal sector - females
115	Average 1st difference in earnings - males (conditional on working at t and t-1)
116	Average 1st difference in earnings - females (conditional on working at t and t-1)
117-118	Fertility, females (married, single)
119-121	Fertility (no HS, HS dropout, HS graduate)
122-123	Fertility - married females (with one-two kid, with three-four kids)
124-125	Fertility - single females (with one-two kid, with three-four kids)
126-129	% of break ups (age 35-45,45-55,55-65,65-75)
130-132	% of break-ups (no HS, HS dropout, HS graduate)
133-135	% of break-ups (Age difference ≥ 5 years, Age difference ≥ 5 but ≤ 5 , Age difference ≤ -5)
136-139	% working in the formal sector - males (35-45,45-55,55-65,65-70)
140-142	% working in the formal sector - married females (35-45,45-55,55-65)
143-146	% working in the formal sector - married females (35-45,45-55,55-65,65-70)
147-150	% working, single females - no child (age 35-45,45-55,55-65)
151	% working 35-45 - married females - two or more children LFP
152	% working 45-55 - married females - two or more children LFP
153	% working 55-65 - married females - two or more children LFP
154	% working 65-70 - married females - two or more children LFP
155	% working 35-45 - single females - two or more children LFP
156	% working 45-55 - single females - two or more children LFP
157	% working 55-65 - single females - two or more children LFP
158	% working 65-70 - single females - two or more children LFP

B Exclusion Restrictions

Table 1: Effect of Sample Exclusions on the Distribution of Earnings

Annual Earnings (million pesos)		mean	p10	p25	p50	p75	p90
Before exclus.	Married men	4.8	1.2	1.9	2.8	4.6	8.4
	Single men	3.1	0.7	1.6	2.2	3.6	5.8
	Married wom.	3.1	0.6	1.2	1.9	3.6	7.2
	Single wom.	3.0	0.6	1.2	1.9	3.0	6.0
After exclus.	Married men	5.2	1.2	1.9	2.5	4.2	7.2
	Single men	2.7	0.6	1.4	2.0	3.0	5.4
	Married wom.	2.9	0.5	1.0	1.9	3.6	7.0
	Single wom.	2.7	0.6	1.1	1.9	3.0	5.8

Table B.1: **Exclusions: Households who contributed to the INP system**

variable	mean
Couples (%)	66.7
Single Women (%)	21.8
Single Men (%)	11.5
Lab. Force Part. (wom., %)	32.1
Lab. Force Part. (men, %)	60.9
Formal sector* (wom., %)	58.8
Formal sector* (men, %)	56.1
Age (men)	59.7
Age (wom.)	57.4
Schooling (men, years)	8.0
Schooling (wom., years)	7.9
Children	3.1

Source: Encuesta EPS, Superintendencia de Pensiones

* as a fraction of those working

Table B.2: **Exclusions: Households who contributed to the INP system**

variable	mean	p10	p25	p50	p75	p90
Annual Earnings (men, MM PS)	3.5	0.8	1.5	2.2	3.6	6.6
Annual Earnings (wom., MM PS)	2.5	0.6	1.1	1.8	2.6	5.2
Non-Pension assets** (MM PS)	16.5	0.0	4.0	9.7	18.0	35.0

Source: Encuesta EPS, Superintendencia de Pensiones

Note: MM PS = Million Pesos

** The top 2% of pension values were trimmed in calculating these statistics to avoid sensitivity to outliers in the data

Table B.3: **Exclusions: Individuals younger than 35 in 2004**

variable	mean
Couples (%)	48.6
Single Women (%)	24.2
Single Men (%)	27.2
Lab. Force Part. (wom., %)	51.6
Lab. Force Part. (men, %)	87.8
Formal sector* (wom., %)	73.0
Formal sector* (men, %)	71.4
Age (men)	30.2
Age (wom.)	28.5
Schooling (men, years)	11.4
Schooling (wom., years)	11.7
Children	1.0

Source: Encuesta EPS, Superintendencia de Pensiones

* as a fraction of those working

Table B.4: **Exclusions: Individuals younger than 35 in 2004**

variable	mean	p10	p25	p50	p75	p90
Annual Earnings (wom., MM PS)	2.4	0.6	1.2	1.8	3.0	4.5
Annual Earnings (men, MM PS)	3.2	1.2	1.6	2.4	3.6	5.5
Non-Pension assets** (MM PS)	8.9	-0.1	0.3	4.8	11.9	20.9
Pension assets** (wom., MM PS)	1.8	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.3	1.8
Pension assets** (men, MM PS)	7.0	0.0	0.2	1.1	3.0	6.0

Source: Encuesta EPS, Superintendencia de Pensiones

Note: MM PS = Million Pesos

** The top 2% of pension values were trimmed in calculating these statistics to avoid sensitivity to outliers in the data

Table B.5: **Exclusions: Individuals who remarried after the age of 35**

variable	mean
Couples (%)	59.7
Single Women (%)	26.9
Single Men (%)	13.5
Lab. Force Part. (wom., %)	38.2
Lab. Force Part. (men, %)	70.1
Formal sector* (wom., %)	64.6
Formal sector* (men, %)	55.6
Age (men)	54.8
Age (wom.)	52.0
Schooling (men, years)	8.3
Schooling (wom., years)	8.1
Children	2.7

Source: Encuesta EPS, Superintendencia de Pensiones

* as a fraction of those working

Table B.6: **Exclusions: Individuals who remarried after the age of 35**

variable	mean	p10	p25	p50	p75	p90
Annual Earnings (wom., MM PS)	3.4	0.5	1.0	1.7	3.6	6.0
Annual Earnings (men, MM PS)	7.9	0.7	1.4	2.0	3.6	6.6
Non-Pension assets** (MM PS)	12.7	0.0	1.9	5.1	15.0	29.7
Pension assets** (wom., MM PS)	2.7	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.8	5.7
Pension assets** (men, MM PS)	11.5	0.0	0.0	2.4	7.7	17.7

Source: Encuesta EPS, Superintendencia de Pensiones

Note: MM PS = Million Pesos

** The top 2% of pension values were trimmed in calculating these statistics to avoid sensitivity to outliers in the data

Table B.7: **Exclusions: Inconsistent or missing answers**

variable	mean
Couples (%)	71.2
Single Women (%)	18.8
Single Men (%)	10.0
Lab. Force Part. (wom., %)	47.0
Lab. Force Part. (men, %)	81.2
Formal sector* (wom., %)	60.0
Formal sector* (men, %)	61.7
Age (men)	49.4
Age (wom.)	48.6
Schooling (men, years)	10.0
Schooling (wom., years)	9.9
Children	2.9

Source: Encuesta EPS, Superintendencia de Pensiones

* as a fraction of those working

Table B.8: **Exclusions: Inconsistent or missing answers**

variable	mean	p10	p25	p50	p75	p90
Annual Earnings (wom., MM PS)	3.5	0.6	1.2	1.9	4.2	6.1
Annual Earnings (men, MM PS)	7.0	1.3	1.8	3.0	4.8	9.6
Non-Pension assets** (MM PS)	14.5	0.0	3.0	6.9	16.2	30.5
Pension assets** (wom., MM PS)	2.6	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.5	4.1
Pension assets** (men, MM PS)	13.2	0.0	0.4	4.2	10.7	26.7

Source: Encuesta EPS, Superintendencia de Pensiones

Note: MM PS = Million Pesos

** The top 2% of pension values were trimmed in calculating these statistics to avoid sensitivity to outliers in the data

C Parameter Estimates

Table C.1: Probability of no pregnancy: logistic regression

	Coef.	Std. Err.	z
married	-0.92086***	0.241469	-3.81
number of kids	-0.78756***	0.085428	-9.22
married*kids	0.302895***	0.092842	3.26
schooling	-0.05482***	0.01195	-4.59
age	0.149925***	0.011537	13
constant	0.449574	0.478111	0.94

D Results

Table C.2: Simulated Method of Moments Estimates

Name	Symbol	Estimate	Std. errors	z
CRRA coefficient	σ	-0.5755***	0.0198	-29.0286
Marginal utility of consumption coefficients:				
Stock of children (female)	ν_0^f	0.2750***	0.0665	4.1375
Stock of children (male)	ν_0^m	0.8734***	0.0633	13.7912
Leisure (female)	ν_1^f	1.6336***	0.2487	6.5686
Leisure (male)	ν_1^m	0.9219***	0.1620	5.6907
Utility from staying at home				
female, type 1	δ_l^f	0.0725***	0.0144	5.0204
female, type 2	δ_l^f	0.2225***	0.0371	5.9927
male, type 1	δ_l^m	-0.0280**	0.0121	-2.3178
male, type 2	δ_l^m	-0.0355***	0.0093	-3.8372
Utility of part-time work (female)	δ_p^f	0.4992***	0.0411	12.1562
Log Income coefficients (Formal sector, male):				
Constant (type 1)	θ_{0F}^m	-0.2138***	0.0724	-2.9509
Constant (type 2)	θ_{0F}^m	-0.2825**	0.1110	-2.5447
Schooling	θ_{1F}^m	0.1100***	0.0080	13.7818
Experience	θ_{2F}^m	0.0320***	0.0057	5.6262
Experience squared	θ_{3F}^m	-0.0006***	0.0001	-4.8938
Log Income coefficients (Informal sector, male):				
Constant (type 1)	θ_{0I}^m	-0.6252***	0.1945	-3.2142
Constant (type 2)	θ_{0I}^m	-0.1839*	0.0969	-1.8986
Schooling	θ_{1I}^m	-0.0075	0.0062	-1.2084
Experience	θ_{2I}^m	0.0200***	0.0048	4.1708
Experience squared	θ_{3I}^m	0.0001	0.0001	0.7821
Log Income coefficients (Formal sector, female):				
Constant (type 1)	θ_{0F}^f	-0.4509***	0.1017	-4.4355
Constant (type 2)	θ_{0F}^f	-0.4784**	0.2042	-2.3432
Schooling	θ_{1F}^f	0.0980***	0.0094	10.4468
Experience	θ_{2F}^f	0.0423***	0.0086	4.9384
Experience squared	θ_{3F}^f	-0.0008***	0.0003	-2.7306
Log Income coefficients (Informal sector, female):				
Constant (type 1)	θ_{0I}^f	-0.3125***	0.0983	-3.1792
Constant (type 2)	θ_{0I}^f	-0.6488***	0.2945	-2.2026
Schooling	θ_{1I}^f	0.0000	0.0009	0.0000
Experience	θ_{2I}^f	0.0400***	0.0086	4.6626
Experience squared	θ_{3I}^f	-0.0005*	0.0003	-1.7201
Probability of no separation coefficients				
Constant	π_0	-5.2075***	0.1519	-34.2915
Age of the husband	π_1	0.0274***	0.0009	30.2029
Schooling	π_2	0.0278***	0.0008	37.0225
Age difference	π_3	0.0017***	0.0001	14.0455
Switching costs				
Between sectors (male)	δ_s^m	0.0085***	0.0017	5.0223
Between sectors (female)	δ_s^f	0.0040***	0.0005	7.8330
Returning to work (male)	δ_w^m	0.6735***	0.0729	9.2444
Returning to work (female)	δ_w^f	0.6704***	0.0692	9.6889
Type logit coefficients				
Constant	ρ_0	0.1000	0.0796	1.2562
Schooling (female)	ρ_s^f	0.0134	0.0086	1.5590
Schooling (male)	ρ_s^m	-0.0035	0.0039	-0.8920
Shock variances				
Earnings (male, formal sector)	σ_F^m	0.1950***	0.0442	4.4158
Earnings (male, informal sector)	σ_I^m	0.5812***	0.1119	5.1942
Earnings (female, formal sector)	σ_F^f	0.2200***	0.0528	4.1687
Earnings (female, informal sector)	σ_I^f	0.6758***	0.1525	4.4321
Utility of staying home (male)	σ_H^m	0.1530***	0.0284	5.3819
Utility of staying home (female)	σ_H^f	0.2663***	0.0419	6.3600

Table C.3: Income tax brackets

Bracket minimum	0.0	4.9	10.9	18.2	25.5	32.7	43.6	54.6
Bracket maximum	4.9	10.9	18.2	25.5	32.7	43.6	54.6	-
Tax rate	0.0	0.05	0.10	0.15	0.25	0.32	0.37	0.40

Entries in million Chilean pesos (1 USD = 475 CLP as of 9/12/2011).

Table C.4: Effect of Sample Exclusions on the Distribution of Earnings

Annual Earnings (million pesos)		mean	p10	p25	p50	p75	p90
Before exclus.	Married men	4.8	1.2	1.9	2.8	4.6	8.4
	Single men	3.1	0.7	1.6	2.2	3.6	5.8
	Married wom.	3.1	0.6	1.2	1.9	3.6	7.2
	Single wom.	3.0	0.6	1.2	1.9	3.0	6.0
After exclus.	Married men	5.2	1.2	1.9	2.5	4.2	7.2
	Single men	2.7	0.6	1.4	2.0	3.0	5.4
	Married wom.	2.9	0.5	1.0	1.9	3.6	7.0
	Single wom.	2.7	0.6	1.1	1.9	3.0	5.8

Table C.5: Summary Statistics (in 2004)

variable	mean
Couples (%)	66.9
Single Women (%)	22.0
Single Men (%)	11.1
Lab. Force Part. (wom., %)	36.2
Lab. Force Part. (men, %)	74.9
Formal sector* (wom., %)	59.5
Formal sector* (men, %)	61.4
Age (men)	51.4
Age (wom.)	50.8
Schooling (men, years)	8.7
Schooling (wom., years)	8.5
Children	3.0

Source: Encuesta EPS, Superintendencia de Pensiones

* as a fraction of those working

Table C.6: **Distributon of Earnings, Non-Pension and Pension Assets in 2004**

variable	mean	p10	p25	p50	p75	p90
Annual Earnings (wom., MM PS)	2.2	0.5	1.0	1.6	2.6	4.8
Annual Earnings (men, MM PS)	5.0	1.0	1.6	2.2	3.6	6.0
Non-Pension assets** (MM PS)	13.0	0.0	2.5	7.0	15.0	27.9
Pension assets** (wom., MM PS)	2.5	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.5	4.2
Pension assets** (men, MM PS)	9.0	0.0	0.0	2.7	8.9	19.5

Source: Encuesta EPS, Superintendencia de Pensiones

Note: MM PS = Million Pesos

** The top 2% of pension values were trimmed in calculating these statistics to avoid sensitivity to outliers in the data

Table D.1: **Earnings by schooling (million CLP)**

Schooling	Men				Women			
	Formal		Informal		Formal		Informal	
	Data	Model	Data	Model	Data	Model	Data	Model
No high school	2.28	2.04	1.64	1.87	1.53	1.69	1.25	1.32
Some high school	3.20	3.30	2.62	2.81	1.97	2.54	1.78	2.17
High school grad	4.43	5.68	3.85	3.78	3.23	4.09	2.51	3.58
College grad	9.69	9.88	6.84	4.42	6.20	5.98	4.98	4.28
Total	3.65	3.64	2.52	2.73	3.01	3.07	1.90	2.19

Source: modfit.dta

Table D.2: **Men at t-1 (Data) by Men at t (Data) (%)**

Men at t-1 (Data)	Men at t (Data)			
	Formal	Informal	Home	Total
Formal	84.5	10.0	5.4	100.0
Informal	17.2	67.0	15.8	100.0
Home	7.6	16.1	76.3	100.0
Total	43.2	29.2	27.5	100.0

Source: modfit.dta

Table D.3: **Men at t-1 (Model) by Men at t (Model) (%)**

Men at t-1 (Model)	Men at t (Model)			
	Formal	Informal	Home	Total
Formal	82.5	9.1	8.4	100.0
Informal	7.2	74.4	18.4	100.0
Home	4.6	18.0	77.4	100.0
Total	43.2	28.2	28.6	100.0

Source: modfit.dta

Table D.4: **Women at t-1 (Data) by Women at t (Data) (%)**

Women at t-1 (Data)	Women at t (Data)			
	Formal	Informal	Home	Total
Formal	80.4	7.6	12.0	100.0
Informal	15.1	55.1	29.8	100.0
Home	3.2	7.0	89.8	100.0
Total	23.6	15.3	61.1	100.0

Source: modfit.dta

Table D.5: **Women at t-1 (Model) by Women at t (Model) (%)**

Women at t-1 (Model)	Women at t (Model)			
	Formal	Informal	Home	Total
Formal	82.6	4.1	13.2	100.0
Informal	4.6	64.4	31.0	100.0
Home	2.5	3.1	94.4	100.0
Total	30.6	8.4	61.0	100.0

Source: modfit.dta

Table D.6: **Non-pension savings (million CLP)**

Respondent's age	Data	Model
35	10.75	10.76
45	17.55	17.49
55	26.05	25.85
65	29.92	30.20
75	25.62	27.15
85	24.27	26.51
Total	22.37	22.58

Source:

Figure D.1:

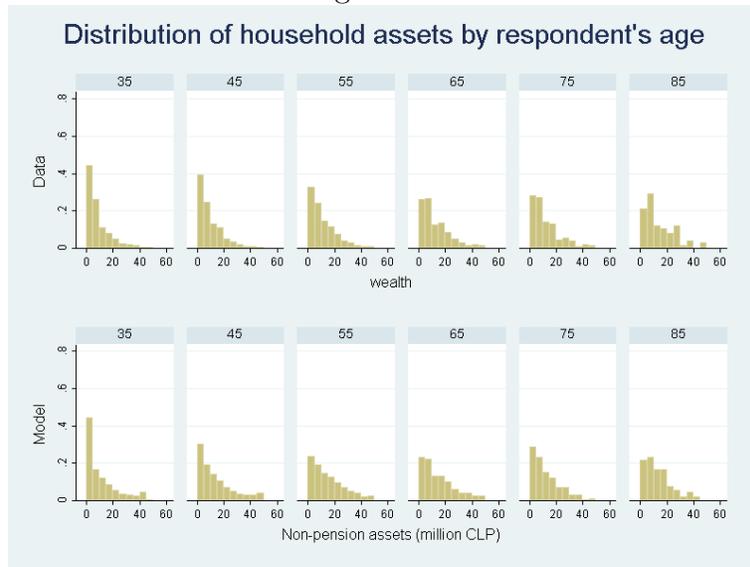


Figure D.2:

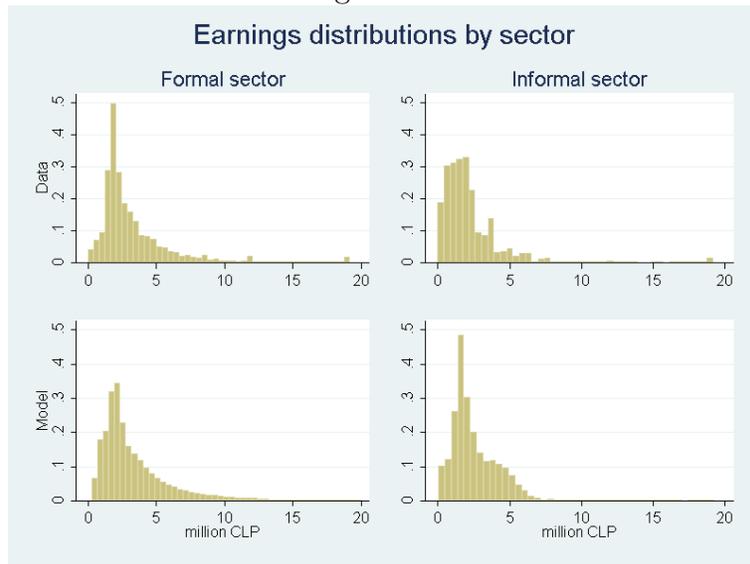


Figure D.3:

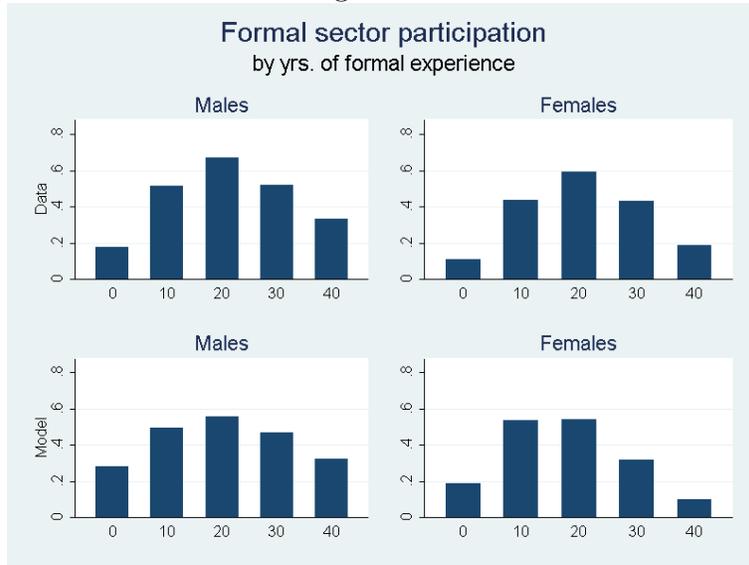


Figure D.4:

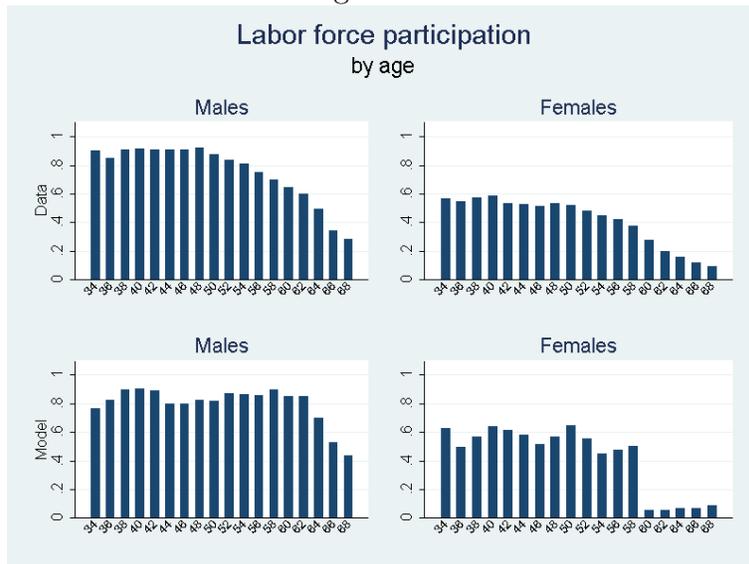


Figure D.5:

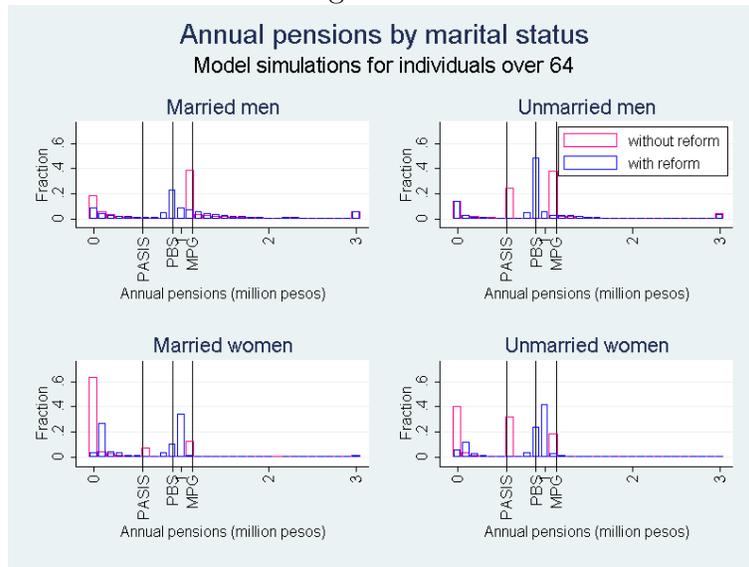


Figure D.6:

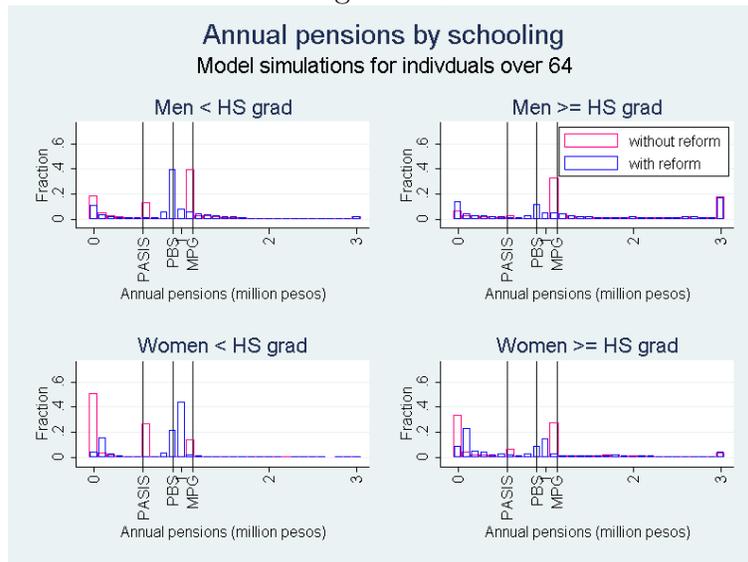


Figure D.7:

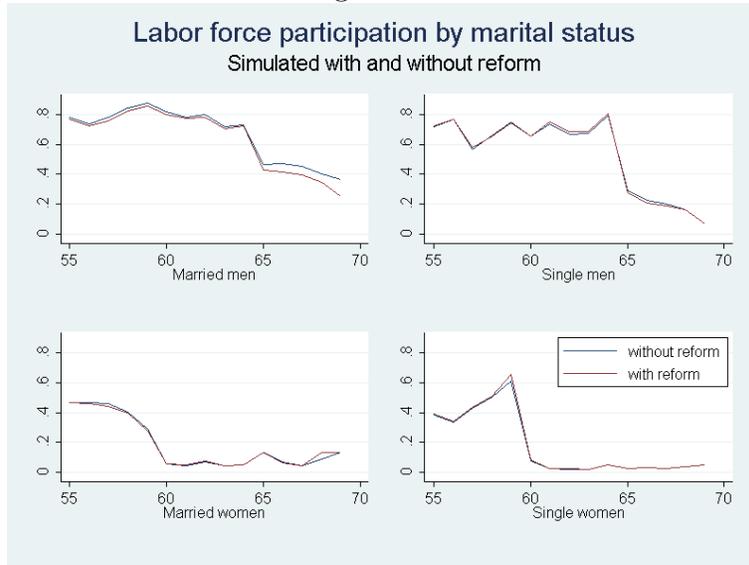


Figure D.8:

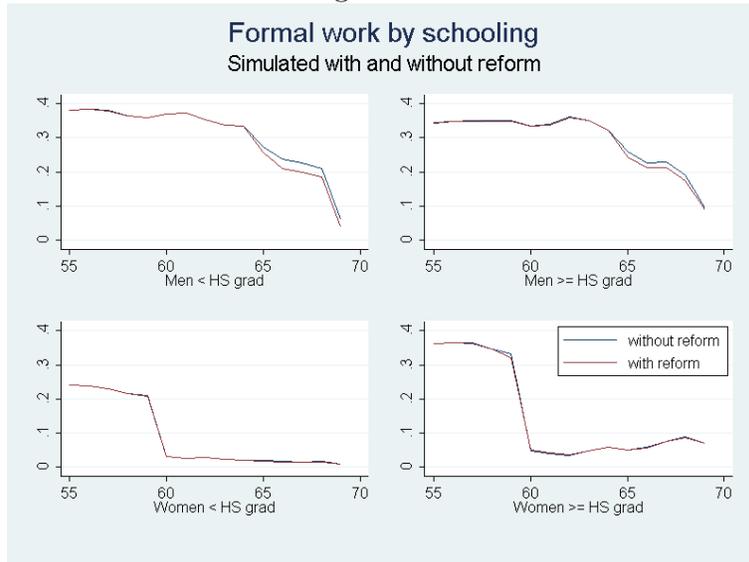


Table D.7: **Out-of-sample model fit (2009 data) - Couples (1)**

variable	mean	sd	p10	p25	p50	p75	p90
Children (model)	3.33	1.93	2.00	2.00	3.00	4.00	6.00
Children (data)	3.34	1.92	2.00	2.00	3.00	4.00	6.00
Men's LFP (model)	0.70	0.46	0.00	0.00	1.00	1.00	1.00
Men's LFP (data)	0.70	0.46	0.00	0.00	1.00	1.00	1.00
Wom's LFP (model)	0.28	0.45	0.00	0.00	0.00	1.00	1.00
Wom's LFP (data)	0.31	0.46	0.00	0.00	0.00	1.00	1.00
Men in formal sect. (model)	0.62	0.49	0.00	0.00	1.00	1.00	1.00
Men in formal sect. (data)	0.63	0.48	0.00	0.00	1.00	1.00	1.00
Wom. in formal sect. (data)	0.62	0.49	0.00	0.00	1.00	1.00	1.00
Wom. in formal sect. (model)	0.61	0.49	0.00	0.00	1.00	1.00	1.00

Source: comparedata.dta

Table D.8: **Out-of-sample model fit (2009 data) - Couples (2)**

variable	mean	sd	p10	p25	p50	p75	p90
Men's earnings (model)	3.28	2.03	1.27	1.88	2.84	4.21	5.76
Men's earnings (data)	3.56	4.48	1.20	1.91	2.40	3.84	6.00
Wom.'s earnings (model)	2.58	1.70	0.80	1.38	2.14	3.44	4.94
Wom.'s earnings (data)	2.52	2.59	0.48	0.96	1.80	3.00	5.28
Savings (model)	15.42	16.45	0.06	0.44	10.48	24.08	43.83
Savings (data)	14.86	46.78	0.00	0.00	7.97	17.00	30.00

Source: comparedata.dta

Table D.9: **Out-of-sample model fit (2009 data) - Single females (1)**

variable	mean	sd	p10	p25	p50	p75	p90
Children (model)	2.90	2.52	0.00	1.00	2.00	4.00	6.00
Children (data)	2.83	2.42	0.00	1.00	2.00	4.00	6.00
Wom's LFP (model)	0.39	0.49	0.00	0.00	0.00	1.00	1.00
Wom's LFP (data)	0.39	0.49	0.00	0.00	0.00	1.00	1.00
Wom. in formal sect. (data)	0.52	0.50	0.00	0.00	1.00	1.00	1.00
Wom. in formal sect. (model)	0.63	0.48	0.00	0.00	1.00	1.00	1.00

Source: comparedata.dtaTable D.10: **Out-of-sample model fit (2009 data) - Single females (2)**

variable	mean	sd	p10	p25	p50	p75	p90
Wom.'s earnings (model)	2.58	1.74	0.73	1.29	2.21	3.47	5.10
Wom.'s earnings (data)	2.51	2.31	0.53	0.96	1.91	3.00	5.64
Savings (model)	5.20	9.28	0.00	0.00	0.00	7.27	17.93
Savings (data)	13.38	65.53	0.00	0.00	5.00	15.00	28.00

Source: comparedata.dtaTable D.11: **Out-of-sample model fit (2009 data) - Single males (1)**

variable	mean	sd	p10	p25	p50	p75	p90
Children (model)	1.97	2.28	0.00	0.00	1.00	3.00	5.00
Children (data)	1.90	2.14	0.00	0.00	1.00	3.00	5.00
Men's LFP (model)	0.69	0.46	0.00	0.00	1.00	1.00	1.00
Men's LFP (data)	0.61	0.49	0.00	0.00	1.00	1.00	1.00
Men in formal sect. (model)	0.57	0.49	0.00	0.00	1.00	1.00	1.00
Men in formal sect. (data)	0.55	0.50	0.00	0.00	1.00	1.00	1.00

Source: comparedata.dtaTable D.12: **Out-of-sample model fit (2009 data) - Single males (2)**

variable	mean	sd	p10	p25	p50	p75	p90
Men's earnings (model)	3.15	2.13	1.17	1.72	2.59	4.08	5.70
Men's earnings (data)	2.95	3.13	0.66	1.51	2.16	3.42	6.00
Savings (model)	10.77	12.39	0.00	0.10	7.56	16.79	27.18
Savings (data)	12.10	32.69	0.00	0.00	4.72	14.65	27.25

Source: comparedata.dta

Table D.13: Comparison of lifetime outcomes (women): Reform vs. no Reform

variable	mean	p10	p25	p50	p75	p90
Δ PDV Child sub. payments	0.66	0.30	0.30	0.59	0.89	1.19
Δ PDV SPS payments	1.41	0.00	0.68	1.54	2.10	2.53
Δ PDV MPG payments	-0.01	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
Δ PDV PASIS payments	-0.20	-0.88	-0.08	0.00	0.00	0.00
Δ PDV all gvt. payments	1.86	0.59	1.19	1.93	2.52	3.05
Δ PDV Taxes collected	0.05	-1.19	-0.03	0.00	0.20	1.31
Δ PDV Consumption	0.11	-0.01	0.03	0.10	0.18	0.29
Δ PDV Utility	-0.05	-0.23	-0.10	0.01	0.01	0.02
Δ Years worked	-0.05	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
Δ Years formal	-0.06	-1.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	1.00
Δ Contr. density	-0.00	-0.04	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.04
Pension benefits (baseline)	1.67	0.43	0.68	1.05	1.48	2.08
Pension benefits (alternative)	0.89	0.10	0.25	0.45	0.90	1.32

Source: Own simulations based on estimated model

Table D.14: **Comparison of lifetime outcomes (men): Reform vs. no Reform**

variable	mean	p10	p25	p50	p75	p90
Δ PDV SPS payments	1.83	0.62	1.43	1.85	2.40	2.92
Δ PDV MPG payments	-0.06	-0.16	-0.03	0.00	0.00	0.00
Δ PDV PASIS payments	-0.16	-0.63	-0.01	0.00	0.00	0.00
Δ PDV all gvt. payments	1.62	0.43	1.30	1.67	2.04	2.62
Δ PDV Taxes collected	0.58	-0.08	0.00	0.00	0.73	2.55
Δ PDV Consumption	0.04	-0.17	-0.03	0.06	0.18	0.33
Δ PDV Utility	0.07	-0.00	0.00	0.01	0.06	0.17
Δ Years worked	0.40	-1.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	3.00
Δ Years formal	0.53	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	3.00
Δ Contr. density	0.02	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.12
Pension benefits (baseline)	1.31	0.49	0.67	0.99	1.61	1.89
Pension benefits (alternative)	1.27	0.24	0.52	0.92	1.22	1.65

Source: Own simulations based on estimated model

Table D.15: **Comparison of lifetime outcomes (women): Tapering vs. no Tapering**

variable	mean	p10	p25	p50	p75	p90
Δ PDV Child sub. payments	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
Δ PDV SPS payments	0.88	0.00	0.27	0.85	1.44	1.79
Δ PDV MPG payments	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
Δ PDV PASIS payments	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
Δ PDV all gvt. payments	0.88	0.00	0.27	0.85	1.44	1.79
Δ PDV Taxes collected	0.01	-0.12	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.08
Δ PDV Consumption	0.05	0.00	0.01	0.04	0.08	0.12
Δ PDV Utility	-0.09	-0.29	-0.26	0.00	0.00	0.01
Δ Years worked	-0.02	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
Δ Years formal	0.07	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
Δ Contr. density	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
Pension benefits (baseline)	1.67	0.43	0.68	1.05	1.48	2.08
Pension benefits (alternative)	1.46	0.37	0.52	0.81	1.11	1.89

Source: Own simulations based on estimated model

Table D.16: Comparison of lifetime outcomes (men): Tapering vs. no Tapering

variable	mean	p10	p25	p50	p75	p90
Δ PDV SPS payments	1.07	0.00	0.31	1.28	1.66	1.91
Δ PDV MPG payments	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
Δ PDV PASIS payments	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
Δ PDV all gvt. payments	1.07	0.00	0.31	1.28	1.66	1.91
Δ PDV Taxes collected	-0.11	-0.19	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
Δ PDV Consumption	0.05	0.00	0.02	0.04	0.08	0.13
Δ PDV Utility	0.01	-0.01	-0.00	0.00	0.01	0.03
Δ Years worked	-0.01	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
Δ Years formal	-0.12	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
Δ Contr. density	-0.01	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
Pension benefits (baseline)	1.31	0.49	0.67	0.99	1.61	1.89
Pension benefits (alternative)	1.07	0.45	0.53	0.76	1.12	1.47

Source: Own simulations based on estimated model