

labour market as part-time workers). On the other hand, incentives to continue working full-time after age 65 were introduced in the regular retirement path, as detailed above. Finally, there is a possibility to exit the labour market through pre-retirement, i.e. through a special agreement with the firm that leads to private or public subsidies until the age of eligibility.

Table I
RETIREMENT PATHS IN SPAIN ACCORDING TO LABOUR STATUS

Labour Status	Retirement path	Eligibility requirements and rules determining benefits (2007)
Disabled	Disability*	At age 65 disability pensions are converted into retirement pensions, but keeping the same benefit level
Unemployed	Back to work (all)	
	Early retirement from age 60 (Old system)	Minimum $n = 30$ 8% penalty per year until age 65 (gradually reduced to 6% if $n \geq 40$)**
	Early retirement from age 61 (New system)	Minimum $n = 30$ 7.5% penalty per year until age 65 (gradually reduced to 6% if $n \geq 40$)**
	Regular retirement at 65	(See conditions below)
Worker	Special retirement at age 64	No early retirement penalty Substitution contract in the same firm
	Early retirement from age 60 (Old system)	8% penalty per year until age 65
	Regular retirement from age 65 (includes delayed retirement)	<65: Reduced age for special professional activities with no penalty Age 65: Minimum $n = 15$ (2 in the last 15) >65: Increases beyond 100% of RB by 2% per year (3% if $n \geq 40$)
	Partial retirement**	From age 60 Minimum $n = 15$ years Part-time work and proportional reduction of pension If age < 65 substituting contract No early retirement penalty
Retired	Flexible retirement	Part-time work and proportional reduction of pension

Notes: n = number of years of contribution; * Only disabled below age 65 might change state back to work; ** 7.5% ($n=30-34$), 7% ($n=35-37$), 6.5% ($n=38,39$), 6% $n \geq 40$; *** In 40/07 Act the minimum n was increased to 30 and 6 years of seniority in the same firm were required.



Table 2 shows the distribution of new entries to retirement in Spain in the last six years. Clearly, ordinary retirement is the most common and includes both a small share –around 1%– of early retirement at fixed age and a sizeable share –above 10%– of delayed retirement⁹.

Table 2
DISTRIBUTION OF NEW ENTRIES BY PATHWAYS (SPAIN 2002-2007)

Year / Retirement Pathway	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007
From disability	6.86%	5.84%	4.48%	2.33%	1.92%	0.60%
Early retirement	29.42%	33.79%	33.86%	24.02%	28.28%	26.77%
Old system: from age 60 on	25.44%	29.50%	27.95%	19.62%	22.57%	20.24%
From unemployment	12.58%	14.10%	14.18%	10.18%	11.21%	10.76%
From employment	12.86%	15.40%	13.77%	9.44%	11.36%	9.48%
New system: from age 61 and unemployment	0.51%	0.92%	1.60%	1.47%	1.88%	2.32%
Special retirement at age 64	2.35%	2.19%	3.40%	2.13%	2.57%	3.14%
Collective wage settlements	0.00%	0.05%	0.06%	0.10%	0.23%	0.27%
Pre-retirement	1.12%	1.13%	0.86%	0.70%	1.02%	0.81%
Partial retirement (from employment)	3.45%	5.30%	8.10%	7.78%	11.80%	12.82%
Flexible retirement (from retirement)	0.24%	0.52%	0.30%	0.31%	0.31%	0.20%
Ordinary retirement pensions (Including delayed)	60.04%	54.55%	53.26%	65.56%	57.69%	59.60%
< 60	1.14%	1.11%	0.98%	0.81%	1.11%	1.25%
60	0.97%	0.49%	0.49%	0.40%	0.24%	0.20%
61-64	1.83%	1.07%	1.35%	1.09%	1.22%	1.05%
65	44.83%	39.84%	38.25%	43.36%	41.93%	45.43%
> 65	11.26%	12.05%	12.19%	19.90%	13.19%	11.66%
Missing age	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.01%
Total	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%

Note: Pre-retirement includes only those which can be identified as receiving public subsidies.

Interestingly, while the share of pensioners opting for the OS early retirement rules is still 20.24% per cent, early retirement at age 61 has not been very attractive. To some extent, this fact is explained by the requirement of being unemployed, but one can think that workers have opted for other less costly ways

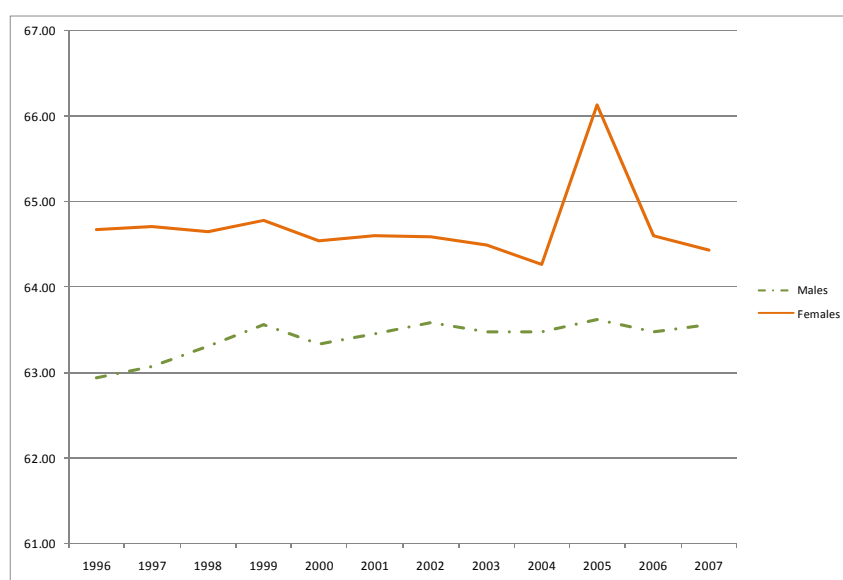
⁹ The table classifies new pensions using the variables “type of pension” and “situation of the pension” in the MCVL. In the next section a description of the database is provided.

to access early retirement, like partial retirement. In some cases they even use the flexible retirement situation to improve their benefits once retired (in 2006 only 12.38% of pensioners in this situation were below age 65)¹⁰. Indeed, in practice, some of the measures intending to delay retirement have still been used as a way to improve the pension benefit by early retirees. 98.75% of new entries and 87.76% of pensioners in partial retirement situation in 2006 were below age 65. Flexible retirement has indeed been used to stay longer in the labour market, but its impact is very limited as only 0.20% of new entries in 2007 have chosen this option.

Despite the abovementioned reform efforts, the average retirement age for males has been quite stable in the last years (Figure 1). Interestingly, at present females retire later, perhaps due to a joint retirement decision or to the need to complete their shorter contribution histories. This would also explain some of the differences observed between male and female retirement probabilities. Despite the stability of the average retirement age, Figure 2 indicates that the evolution of the share in new entries by age and sex has undergone substantial changes which seem to be driven by cyclical movements. Notice that changes in early and delayed retirement move in different directions. The share of those retiring after age 65 is only slightly affected by incentives to delay retirement introduced in the 35/2002 Act. One should bear in mind that most collective wage settlements deny workers the possibility of delaying retirement, so that incentives to work beyond age 65 might become inoperative.

Figure 1

EVOLUTION OF AVERAGE RETIREMENT AGE BY GENDER



Note: The sharp increase in average retirement for females in 2005 is due to a legal change allowing for compatibility of widow and retirement pensions from the old SOVI system.

Source: Own elaboration from MCVL.

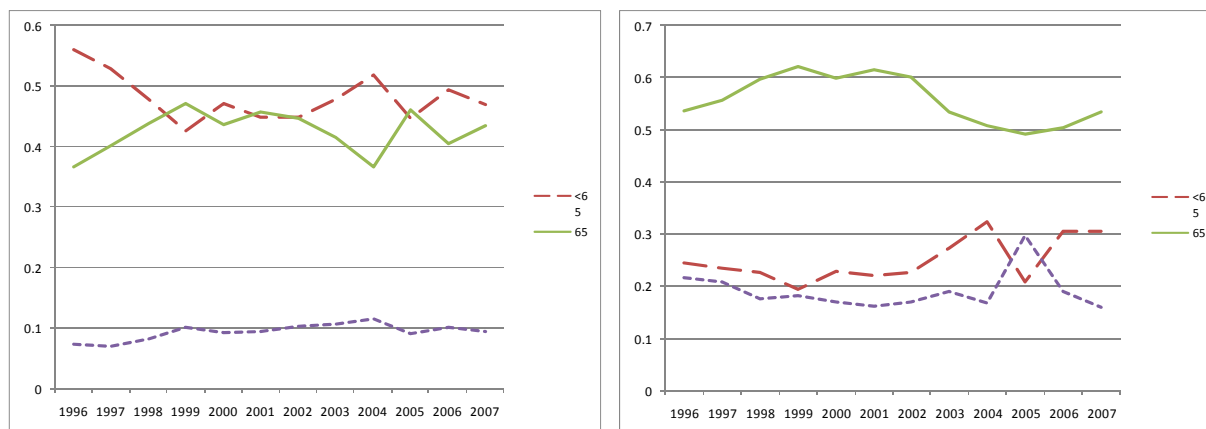
¹⁰ With respect to partial retirement that could start before retirement but could in principle be extended beyond 65, only 6.56% of pensioners in 2006 were older than 65.

Figure 2

SHARE OF NEW ENTRIES TO RETIREMENT BY AGE AND SEX (2002-2007)

a) Males

b) Females



Source: Own elaboration from MCVL.

Clearly the labour status before retirement matters. Ideally, a comprehensive consideration of the retirement decision should allow for transitions between the four different states and the best approach would be estimating a multinomial model for all the pathways simultaneously. Nevertheless, none of these transitions implies a voluntary decision, i.e. a decision that might be affected by changes in retirement incentives¹¹. Hence, given the complexity of the decision and that we are interested in the possibility of delaying retirement voluntarily, we simplify the decision as follows. First, we focus on employed workers – those who are more likely to delay retirement age¹². Second, as being disabled and becoming unemployed are usually external shocks and tend to affect all workers in the same way, as far as we can see, we abstract from the probability of workers reaching these states.

Note that, as shown in Table 1, workers who cannot opt for OS early retirement see their pathways to early retirement limited, special retirement at age 64 and partial retirement being their only options. These options tend to be dependent on the firm's decision, especially in the first option which implies the offer of a part-time job. Hence, we end up with the regular retirement option, which includes the possibility to delay retirement. We add to this the early retirement choice for OS workers, as this is the only alternative of early full-

¹¹ See Maes, 2008a for a survey comparing multinomial logit to binary response models.

¹² In particular we select those whose last contract was not labelled as special, including unemployment, civil servants, and some other categories. This way we eliminate both those who already accessed retirement through unemployment and those who might do so in year 2007.

time retirement for those who retire straight from work. Finally, we also eliminate those workers who can access retirement at a reduced variable or fixed age¹³. Summarizing, we focus on the shaded area in Table I. Employed workers can opt for ordinary retirement either at age 65 or delayed. We basically focus on this choice though we take into account that a subgroup of them –identifiable *ex-ante* as OS worker– can opt for early retirement under special conditions.

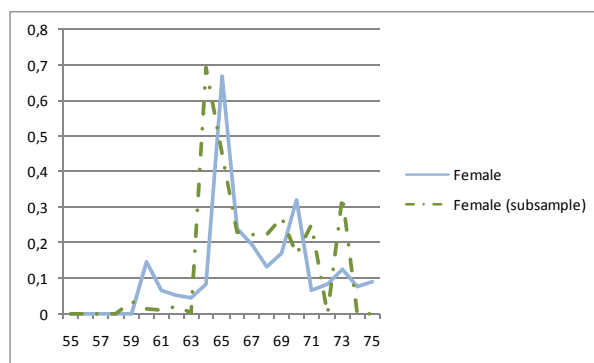
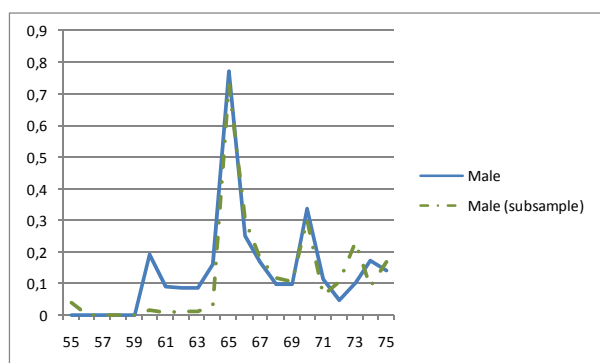
Figure 3 shows the observed hazard rates for the whole sample of individuals at retirement age (73,356 individuals aged 56-75) and the subsample on which we focus. The latter includes 28,318 individuals aged 56-75, including the 46.5% of males and the 23.6% of females in the sample. The small share of females implies that their behaviour is less representative. In the case of males, by selecting employed workers who can opt for delayed retirement, the probability of retiring shifts to the right, while this is not so clear in the case of females. The probability of retiring before age 65 is thus low and basically due to early retirement of OS. The subsample selected that retires on average later (1.81 and 0.26 years later for males and females, respectively) is the starting point for the subsequent simulation analysis.

Figure 3

OBSERVED HAZARD RATES BY GENDER (SAMPLE VERSUS SUBSAMPLE)

a) Males

b) Females



Source: Own elaboration from MCVL.

¹³ We can identify all these workers both *ex ante* and *ex post*. In particular workers before 01/01/1967 can be identified *ex-ante* by their entry date in the labour market and *ex-post* by the type of retirement path. Special professions can be identified *ex-ante* by their contribution regime in most cases (except firemen) and one can also indirectly identify them *ex-post* by looking at their retirement age and the absence of the corresponding early retirement penalty.



3. THE DATA: THE CONTINUOUS WORKING LIFE SAMPLE (MCVL)¹⁴

The MCVL is a sample extracted from Social Security administrative data. Four per cent of all individuals registered with the Social Security administration – both contributors and recipients of benefits – over the sampling year are selected and their entire life history in the social security records is included in the data set¹⁵. Thus, although it is not a pure panel, the data set is rich in longitudinal data. This feature, however, complicates the structure of the information as the registration unit varies substantially ranging from the person – in the personal data file – to the contract – in the affiliation file – or to the contract and year – in the contribution file. This structure also complicates the data selection. Furthermore, the quality of data is not homogenous, deteriorating the further back in time we go as more data are missing. The data collection itself was initiated at different points in time: data on pensions were first included around 1996; data on contributions around 1980; while some data on affiliation (contract registering) are available from as early as 1970. Clearly all these factors condition our analysis. We provide details of the data employed below. We focus primarily on the pension file whose registration unit is defined by the individual, the benefit and the year, but we also recover contributory data for those individuals in our sample.

Among the difficulties of dealing with such a large administrative data set –the sample size reaches about a million people in 2005– the most challenging are dealing with empty contribution bases and relating contribution, affiliation and benefit data from the same individual, all defined with different registration units. In particular, in order to extract reliable data regarding contributions in a specific time unit, it is necessary to follow up all the contracts in which an individual has been involved, computing time and contribution separately so as to avoid an erroneous correspondence between working time and contribution per unit of time. Below we describe in detail how we dealt with this.

As outlined above, this paper seeks to examine the impact of certain reform measures on the probability of retiring. The MCVL allows for this kind of analysis because it contains data of the main factors included in the initial pension formula. Specifically, over the period covered by the data base, we are able to recover the number of working years, the life-cycle contributions of the individual and the retirement age, thus determining any penalizations for early retirement. It is also possible to recover these variables – except the not yet

¹⁴ See MTAS (2006b) for a detailed description of the *Muestra Continua de Vidas Laborales* (MCVL), available upon request at www.seg-social.es/Internet_1/Lanzadera/index.htm?URL=82.

¹⁵ Both workers and pensioners are thus included and also individuals receiving unemployment benefits or benefits prior to early retirement. The latter can be identified by the type of relation they have with the Social Security.

observed retirement age –to analyze future pension rights for potential pensioners– i.e., all the individuals in the sample who can opt for retirement. For pensioners, the total number of lifetime working years considered in computing the initial pension is also registered in the MCVL. Nevertheless, it is also necessary to obtain the annual working time in order to fill the gaps in the contribution data, in line with Spanish legislation¹⁶. Hence the annual contribution period or working time is obtained by recovering all the contracts signed by the individual for each year, taking into account part-time work as well as the possibility of contracts that ran simultaneously. At the same time, the average hourly contribution is obtained. One of the main problems we faced was the existence of missing contribution data. This can occur either within a contract registered in the contribution file or due to a lack of correspondence between the affiliation data –starting long before 1980– and contribution data –starting in 1980. For example, we might find, even after 1980, no recorded contribution for one specific worker, while data regarding affiliation showed the worker to be actually contributing¹⁷. An imputation process is developed to provide figures for the missing contributions. By tracking affiliation and contribution data, we treat missing values differently considering whether the individual is actually working– actual missing value –or not– if he is out of the labour force. In the former case, data from the same individual are used in order to recover absent contributions. If this is not available in the same year, the average value in the last 15 years is used, so that the value of *RB* is not affected by the missing contribution. In the latter case, the gaps occurring in the last 15 years are filled with the minimum contribution threshold, according to Spanish legislation.

4. METHODOLOGY

We follow the general approach taken by Gruber and Wise (2004), among others, by considering the alternative retirement paths as perfect substitutes so that a binary response model can be estimated and a weighted incentive measure can be used as an explanatory variable¹⁸. Nevertheless, we partially deviate from this approach as explained below.

¹⁶ When the individual presents a non-contributory period within the last 15 years considered for computing the *RB*, the minimum contribution threshold rather than zero is considered to compute the *RB*.

¹⁷ Information regarding contributions was first gathered in 1980, but it is more reliable after 2001. The providers of the sample found that the share of contracts with missing data fell from 78% in 1984 to 94% in 1992 and to 99% in 2003.

¹⁸ See Maes 2008a for a survey.

For each worker, i , a latent variable is defined, Y_i^* , which denotes the change in utility of moving from the state of working in year 2006 to retirement in 2007. The change in the utility is determined by a vector of observable explanatory variables, including incentives for retirement, personal characteristics, labour market conditions, etc, and a stochastic error term, u_i :

$$Y_i^* = U_i - U_{i,work,2006} = \beta_1 SSW_i + \beta_2 I_i + \beta_3 X_i + u_i \quad (2)$$

Where X_i is a vector that includes individual socio-demographic characteristics, SSW_i is the Social Security Wealth of a worker, and I_i stands for the incentive measures derived from SSW_i . The latter is calculated for each individual –the individual subscript is omitted here– as the expected present value of future pension benefits in case of retirement at age, h , higher than the actual age (a), as:

$$SSW_h = \sum_{s=h+1}^S \gamma^{s-a} \pi_s B_s(h) \quad (3)$$

Where S is the age of certain death, γ denotes the time discount factor, π_s is the conditional survival probability at age s for an individual alive at age a , and $B_s(h)$ is the pension expected at age $s > h$ in case of retiring at age h ¹⁹.

Note that what we observe are the discrete choices of retirement in 2007,

$$Y_i = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } Y_i^* > 0 \text{ (retirement in 2007)} \\ 0 & \text{otherwise (working in 2007)} \end{cases} \quad (4)$$

Thus, the probability of choosing retirement in 2007 can be expressed as

$$\text{Pr ob(worker select retirement)} = \text{Pr ob}(Y_i = 1) = \text{Pr ob}(Y_i^* > 0) \quad (5)$$

We assume that u_i of equation (2) is type I extreme-value and i.i.d. across both alternatives (retirement and working) and individuals. The estimation can then be implemented through a logit model:

$$P_i = \text{Pr ob}(Y_i = 1) = \frac{\exp(\beta_1 SSW_i + \beta_2 I_i + \beta_3 X_i)}{1 + \exp(\beta_1 SSW_i + \beta_2 I_i + \beta_3 X_i)} \quad (6)$$

In order to deal with the possibility of different retirement paths we proceed as follows. As seen above, in our subsample the old-age benefits are generally determined by the “standard” public old-age pension system which includes the possibility of delayed retirement. However, we also consider the incidence of a different retirement pathway only available for employees who contributed in the old system (OS), i.e. before 1967. This type of pension is not available to all individuals, and might be relevant for the individual’s economic incentives to retire, so it should be included in the model. Here we assume that the

¹⁹ According to Spanish legislation, pensions are updated to inflation once created.

probability of receiving this kind of benefit is determined as a discrete choice model. Let w_i^* be the difference in utility of retirement via OS or standard retirement in 2007. This change in the utility is determined by a vector of observable explanatory variables (Z) such that,

$$w_i^* = \delta_1 Z_i + \varepsilon_i \quad , \quad (7)$$

though, we only observe the discrete choice of retirement in 2007 as,

$$w_i = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } w_i^* > 0 \text{ (path of retirement in 2007 : old system)} \\ 0 & \text{otherwise (path of retirement in 2007 : standard)} \end{cases} \quad , \quad (8)$$

where $w_i = 1$ indicates that the individual has access to an OS retirement pension in 2007. z_i denotes a vector of individual characteristics, and ε_i represents the error term. We estimate equation (7) by means of logit procedure (similar to (6)).

Taking into account (2) and (7), each incentive measure l_i is –for those who are identified *ex-ante* as eligible for OS retirement– a weighted average of this option and the ordinary retirement option. Following Eklöf and Hallberg (2006) we can construct a system of simultaneous equation as,

$$\begin{aligned} Y_i^* &= \beta_1 SSW_i + \beta_2 (w_i^{OS} + (1 - w_i)^{std}) + \beta X_i + u_i \\ w_i^* &= \delta_1 Z_i + \varepsilon_i \end{aligned} \quad (9)$$

Where the superscript OS refers to the incentive if the individual has access to the old system pension entitlements and *std* refers to the standard pensions in the general retirement rules. Nevertheless, our estimation method is simpler as we can observe *ex-ante* OS workers while they can only identify them *ex-post*. We first estimate (8) and use the estimated probabilities to obtain the weighted incentive measure for those who *ex-ante* can opt for the OS retirement path.

There is some previous work applied to Spain in this framework. First, Boldrin and Jiménez-Martín (2004) and Jiménez-Martín (2006), estimate retirement probabilities using an earlier preliminary version of the MCVL, not generally available. They also focus on employed individuals, though in this case the alternative pathways to retirement are long-term unemployment benefits and disability. These are considered as fully exogenous to the agents so that the probabilities used as weights are the observed average²⁰. As said above, we ignore those exogenous choices that can indeed affect retirement behaviour but to the same extent for all the agents. Instead, given the focus of the paper we

²⁰ Argimón *et al.* (2009) also estimated retirement probabilities but retirement incentives are not considered among the explanatory variables. They find that employment status determines the pathway to retirement.

control for the possibility that some agents can still opt for early retirement straight from employment if they were workers in 1967.

Second, more recently and using the MCVL, in the context of the employment search behaviour García-Pérez *et al.* (2009) perform a reduced form estimation of the joint determination of the exit rate from employment and unemployment, using a duration model. They argue that the combination of generous unemployment benefits and strong early retirement penalties reduces the search effort of workers near retirement age. As a result, access to retirement through unemployment turns out to be the chosen path for a substantial share of low-skilled males. Besides the estimation method, we deviate from them, mainly by focusing on the choice between ordinary or delayed retirement.

The variables included in our estimation are some socioeconomic variables detailed in the results section and the incentive measures detailed below. Four incentive measures are derived from the measure of Social Security Wealth (SSW) defined in equation (3)²¹. All of them measure gains in SSW from delaying retirement from now to a future age/year. First, the social security accrual (SSA) only considers the present age (a) and the next ($a+1$) and, hence, it is defined as the difference between SSW_{a+1} and SSW_a . Second, the implicit tax (T) measures the work disincentives as the ratio between SSA and the potential wage earned over the year, with a negative sign. Third, the peak value (PV) considers all the possible future ages(h)/years, up to maximum retirement age. Hence, it is defined as the maximum difference between SSW_h and the initial, given, SSW_a . Finally, the last incentive measure –the option value (OV)– is, on the one hand, similar to T , in that it takes into account future expected wages. On the other hand, similarly to PV , it measures the gain from postponing retirement to any future feasible age, but in terms of utility. In particular, following the specification in Gruber and Wise (2004), assuming that the utility function is linear in SSW, we can express the OV of retiring as a function of PV as follows,

$$OV_h = \sum_{s=h+1}^S \gamma^{s-a} \pi_s w^*(h) + zPV_h \quad (10)$$

Being z the constant relation between utility and SSW in the utility function. The first term on the right-hand side in equation (10) is the present value of expected wages until retirement and the second term is proportional to PV – the gain in SSW from postponing retirement until the best option²².

²¹ The incentives used have become standard in empirical studies. The term social security wealth should, in principle, refer to the net receipts from the pension system –the present value of pension benefits, minus contributions–, but most empirical studies avoid considering the whole life cycle, taking into account only the revenue side, the pension benefits.

²² In particular we assume a value of 0.99 for the discount factor γ and a value one for z .

5. RESULTS

5.1. Baseline results

Tables 3 and 4 show the results of the regression analysis for males and females, respectively. As in other studies, several specifications are tried for age. In particular, retirement age is included as a variable, either using a quadratic specification (Tables 3a and 4a), or using age dummies (Tables 3b and 4b). First, it is interesting to note that results are robust to the incentive chosen as they are quite similar in all four cases. Second, as could be expected, a strong impact of age is found, especially when introduced using age dummies, so that other relevant variables lose significance.

In the quadratic specification, age has a positive and decreasing significant effect. Nevertheless, the incentive variable fails to be significant and/or does not have the expected negative sign, while at least the option value –which could be considered the most complete incentive measure–, turns significant and has the expected sign in the age dummies specification²³. Furthermore, as shown in Figure 4, the age profile of the hazard rate is more realistic in the age dummies specification. In fact, this specification turns out to be the best way to capture the strong impact of age dummies, usually interpreted as the fact that they capture some of the legal settings and social norms not fully reflected by the incentive variables. This also happens in our case, despite the attempt to neatly isolate those who can opt for delayed retirement. Clearly the difficulties in capturing the role of the firm in the retirement decision are also behind this lack of significance.

Table 3a
REGRESSION RESULTS FOR MALES (QUADRATIC AGE)

	A) Option Value	B) Accrual	C) Tax	D) Peak Value
Number of obs	22,354	22,354	22,354	22,354
LR chi2(17)	4,420	4,515	4,496	4,437
Prob > chi2	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
Pseudo R2	0.62	0.63	0.63	0.62
Log likelihood	-1,374	-1,326	-1,336	-1,365
Age	7.213 * (0.003)**	5.490 * (0.003)*	6.172 * (0.0044) *	6.615 * (0.0032)

(Follow)

²³ For Germany, Börsch-Supan *et al.* (2004) also find a better fit when using age dummies, but incentive measures are significant in both cases.

(Continuation)

	A) Option Value	B) Accrual	C) Tax	D) Peak Value
Age ²	-0.055 * (-2.26E-05)**	-0.040 * (-1.85E-05)*	-0.046 * (-3.28E-05)*	-0.049 * (-2.42E-05)*
Wage	-1.44E-04 * (-5.94E-08)**	-1.51E-04 * (6.94E-08)*	-1.31E-04 * (-9.32E-08)*	1.60E-04 * (-7.82E-08)*
SSW	7.88E-06 * (3.26E-09)**	4.17E-06 * (1.92E-09)*	6.01E-06 * (4.29E-09)*	7.69E-06 * (3.76E-09)*
Incentive	-8.46E-07 (-3.50E-10)	4.39E-06 * (2.02E-09)*	3.43E-04 * (2.45E-07)*	1.33E-06 * (6.51E-10)**
Share part-time	2.065 * (8.54E-04)**	2.082 * (9.57E-04)**	2.44 * (1.74E-03)*	1.836 * (8.99E-04)**
Days last contract	6.18E-05 ** (2.56E-08)**	6.21E-05 ** (2.85E-08)**	6.26E-05 ** (4.47E-08)**	6.09E-05 ** (2.98E-08)**
Days worked	-8.96E-05 * (-3.71E-08)**	-7.83E-05 * (-3.60E-08)**	-8.47E-05 * (-6.05E-08)**	-1.10E-04 * (-5.39E-08)*
High skill	0.087 (3.70E-05)	0.262 (1.32E-04)	0.342** (2.76E-04)	0.011 (5.42E-06)
Medium skill	-0.028 (-1.14E-05)	-0.036 (-1.65E-05)	0.044 (3.17E-05)	-0.080 (-3.96E-05)
Industry	0.091 (3.79E-05)	0.094 (4.38E-05)	0.101 (7.28E-05)	0.085 (4.22E-05)
Construction	0.214 (9.51E-05)	0.206 (1.02E-04)	0.206 (1.58E-04)	0.223 (1.18E-04)
Inc.	-0.193 ** (-8.00E-05)	-0.201 (-9.27E-05)	-0.208 ** (-1.49E-04)**	-0.294 ** (-1.44E-04)**
College	-0.1366 (-5.32E-05)	0.004 (1.91E-06)	0.003 (2.13E-06)	-0.112 (-5.23E-05)
Marry	-0.111 (-4.62E-05)	-0.122 (-5.66E-05)	-0.140 (-1.01E-04)	-0.122 (-6.01E-05)
Young dependants	-0.129 (-5.08E-05)	-0.205 (-8.76E-05)	-0.167 (-1.12E-04)	-0.134 (-6.25E-05)
Old dependants	6.29E-04 (2.60E-07)	-0.026 (-1.17E-05)	-0.076 (-5.23E-05)	-0.014 (-6.73E-06)
Constant	-240.173 *	-188.908 *	-209.377 *	-223.167 *

Notes: For each variable marginal effect in brackets. The symbol * implies that variable is significant at 95% level of confidence and ** that it is significant at 90% level of confidence.

Table 3b
REGRESSION RESULTS FOR MALES (AGE DUMMIES)

	A) Option Value	B) Accrual	C) Tax	D) Peak Value
Number of obs	22,354	22,354	22,354	22,354
LR chi2(17)	4,839	4,782	4,782	4,781
Prob > chi2	0.00	0,00	0.00	0.00
Pseudo R2	0.68	0,67	0.67	0.67
Log likelihood	-1,164	-1,193	-1,193	-1,193
Age60 (1)	2.768 * (1.43E-03)**	3.068 * (0.012)*	3.063 * (0.012)*	3.062 * (0.011)*
Age61 (1)	1.399 ** (3.48E-04)**	2.160 * (5.01E-03)**	2.165 * (5.18E-03)**	2.155 * (4.97E-03)**
Age62 (1)	1.285 ** (3.02E-04)**	2.235 * (5.43E-03)**	2.241 * (5.61E-03)**	2.229 * (5.37E-03)**
Age63 (1)	1.430 ** (3.72E-04)**	2.500 * (7.44E-03)**	2.506 * (7.69E-03)**	2.494 * (7.36E-03)**
Age64 (1)	1.871 * (6.39E-04)**	3.118 * (0.014) **	3.124 * (0.015)**	3.111 * (0.014)**
Age65 (1)	5.664 * (0.029)**	6.629 * (0.321)*	6.560 * (0.313)*	6.592 * (0.313)*
Age66 (1)	3.601 * (4.48E-03)**	4.681 * (0.076)**	4.824 * (0.089)**	4.785 * (0.084)**
Age67 (1)	2.752 * (1.87E-03)**	3.980 * (0.039)**	4.135 * (0.047)**	4.096 * (0.044)**
Age68 (1)	2.092 * (9.15E-04)	3.469 * (0.024)	3.631 * (0.029)	3.585 * (0.027)
Age69 (1)	1.844 ** (6.86E-04)	3.249 * (0.019)	3.436 * (0.024)	3.365 * (0.022)
Age70 (1)	3.007 * (2.47E-03)	4.943 * (0.099)**	5.071 * (0.114)**	5.040 * (0.108)**
Age71 (1)	1.105 (2.61E-04)	2.755 ** (0.012)	2.875 ** (0.014)	2.847 ** (0.013)
Age72 (1)	1.268 (3.30E-04)	3.474 * (0.024)	3.589 * (0.028)	3.547 * (0.026)
Wage	2.26E-05 (2.92E-09)	-1.32E-04 * (-1.06E-07) *	-1.30E-04 * (-1.07E-07)*	-1.32E-04 * (-1.06E-07)*

(Follow)

(Continuation)

	A) Option Value	B) Accrual	C) Tax	D) Peak Value
SSW	1.90E-06 * (2.46E-10)	3.26E-06 * (2.61E-09) **	2.86E-06 * (2.35E-09)*	2.96E-06 * (2.36E-09)*
Incentive	-1.52E-05 * (-1.97E-09) **	-4.17E-07 (-3.34E-10)	2.65E-05 (2.18E-08)	7.42E-09 (5.91E-12)
Share part-time	3.180 * (4.12E-04) **	2.620 * (2.10E-03)*	2.617 * (2.15E-03)*	2.601 * (2.07E-03)*
Days last contract	7.23E-05 * (9.36E-09)**	6.84E-05 ** (5.47E-08)**	6.88E-05 ** (5.67E-08)**	6.85E-05 ** (5.46E-08)**
Days worked	-6.31E-06 (-8.17E-10)	-9.36E-06 (-7.49E-09)	-9.85E-06 (-8.11E-09)	-8.93E-06 (-7.12E-09)
High Skill (1)	0.510 ** (7.92E-05)	0.695 ** (7.16E-04)**	0.720 ** (7.70E-04)**	0.702 ** (7.22E-04)
Medium Skill (1)	0.146 (1.87E-05)	0.161 (1.28E-04)	0.164 (1.34E-04)	0.158 (1.24E-04)
Industry (1)	0.042 (5.41E-06)	0.060 (4.85E-05)	0.064 (5.26E-05)	0.063 (5.07E-05)
Construction (1)	0.158 (2.16E-05)	0.126 (1.05E-04)	0.133 (1.14E-04)	0.129 (1.08E-04)
Inc. (1)	0.064 (8.35E-06)	0.123 (9.86E-05)	0.110 (9.05E-05)	0.119 (9.49E-05)
College (1)	-0.098 (-1.22E-05)	0.103 (8.68E-05)	0.116 (1.01E-04)	0.110 (9.23E-05)
Marry (1)	-0.106 (-1.38E-05)	-0.125 (-1.01E-04)	-0.124 (-1.03E-04)	-0.123 (-9.86E-05)
Young dependants (1)	-0.406 ** (-4.56E-05) **	-0.383 ** (-2.68E-04)**	-0.379 ** (-2.73E-04)	-0.381 ** (-2.65E-04)**
Old dependants (1)	-0.131 (-1.60E-05)	-0.157 (-1.17E-04)	-0.159 (-1.22E-04)**	-0.154 (-1.15E-04)
Constant	-7.127 *	-7.741 *	-7.757 *	-7.723 *

Notes: For each variable marginal effect in brackets. The symbol * implies that variable is significant at 95% level of confidence and ** that it is significant at 90% level of confidence. (1) Marginal effect is for discrete change of dummy variable from 0 to 1.

Table 3c
AUXILIARY EQUATION (MALES)

	Total Effects	Marginal Effects
Age	185.757	0.019
Age ²	-1.499	1.52E-04
Share part-time	21.232	2.15E-03
Days last contract	8.42E-05	8.53E-09
Days worked	3.08E-04	3.12E-08
High Skill (1)	0.151	1.61E-05
Industry (1)	-0.149	-1.52E-05
Construction (1)	-0.730	-5.67E-05
College(1)	4.001	4.74E-03
Secondary	0.754	9.48E-05
Constant	-5770.655	

(1) Marginal effect is for discrete change of dummy variable from 0 to 1.

Table 4a
REGRESSION RESULTS FOR FEMALES (QUADRATIC AGE)

	A) Option Value	B) Accrual	C) Tax	D) Peak Value
Number of obs	5,936	5,936	5,936	5,936
LR chi2(17)	926	918	919	925
Prob > chi2	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
Pseudo R2	0.61	0.60	0.60	0.61
Log likelihood	-302	-305	-305	-302
Age	4.805 * (2.48E-03)**	5.478 * (3.46E-03)**	5.399 * (3.83E-03)**	4.820 * (-2.51E-03)**
Age ²	-0.035 * (-1.83E-05)**	-0.041 * (-2.58E-05)**	-0.040 * (-2.83E-05)**	-0.035 * (-1.84E-05)**
Wage	-1.89E-04 * (-9.78E-08)**	-1.71E-04 * (-1.08E-07)**	-4.42E-04 * (-3.14E-07)**	-1.88E-04 * (-9.80E-08)**
SSW	7.66E-06 * (3.96E-09)**	9.33E-06 * (5.89E-09)**	9.21E-06 * (6.53E-09)**	7.62E-06 * (3.97E-09)**
Incentive	-4.57E-06 * (-2.37E-09)**	3.24E-04 * (2.05E-07)	2.90E-04 ** (2.06E-07)**	4.58E-06 * (2.38E-09)**

(Follow)



(Continuation)

	A) Option Value	B) Accrual	C) Tax	D) Peak Value
Share part-time	0.627 (3.24E-04)	0.549 (3.47E-04)	0.568 (4.03E-04)	0.624 (3.25E-04)
Days last contract	3.99E-05 (-2.06E-08)	-3.89E-05 (-2.45E-08)	-3.21E-05 (-2.28E-08)	-3.92E-05 (-2.04E-08)
Days worked	-4.65E-05 (-2.40E-08)	-5.41E-05 (-3.42E-08)	-3.35E-05 (-2.37E-08)	-4.68E-05 (-2.44E-08)
High skill	0.110 (5.50E-05)	-0.272 (-1.57E-04)	0.011 (7.99E-06)	-0.123 (-6.14E-05)
Medium skill	-0.362 (-1.92E-04)	0.0347 (2.24E-04)	0.411 (3.00E-04)	0.360 (1.92E-04)
Industry	0.0908 ** (3.790E-05)	0.593 ** (4.50E-04)	0.596 (5.09E-04)	0.590 ** (3.69E-04)
Construction Inc.	-4.125 ** (-5.43E-04) **	-3.852 (-6.57E-04) **	-3.681 (-7.33E-04) **	-4.108 ** (-5.46E-04) **
College	-0.212 (1.13E-04)	0.207 (1.35E-04)	0.261 (-1.92E-04)	0.213 (1.14E-04)
Marry	-0.399 (-1.75E-04)	-0.302 (-1.68E-04)	-0.336 (-2.07E-04)	-0.391 (-1.73E-04)
Young dependants	0.309 (-1.66E-04)	-0.294 (1.92E-04)	0.310 (2.28E-04)	0.310 (1.67E-04)
Old dependants	-0.478 (-5.080E-05)	-0.526 (-2.69E-04)	-0.486 (-2.84E-04)	-0.487 (-2.08E-04)
Constant	0.0006 (2.04E-04)	0.658 (5.55E-04)	0.625 (5.84E-04)	0.641 (4.42E-04)
	-164.451 *	-184.769 *	-183.662 *	-164.940

Notes: For each variable marginal effect in brackets. The symbol * implies that variable is significant at 95% level of confidence and ** that it is significant at 90% level of confidence.

Table 4b
REGRESSION RESULTS FOR FEMALES (AGE DUMMIES)

	A) Option Value	B) Accrual	C) Tax	D) Peak Value
Number of obs	5,936	5,936	5,936	5,936
LR chi2(17)	1,024	1,022	1,022	1,022
Prob > chi2	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
Pseudo R2	0.67	0.67	0.66	0.67
Log likelihood	-252	-254	-253	-254
Age60 (1)	4.774 * (0.017)**	4.801 * (0.020)**	4.821 * (0.019)**	4.803 * (0.020)**
Age61 (1)	3.253 ** (4.37E-03)	3.376 ** (5.70E-03)	3.374 ** (5.47E-03)	3.377 ** (5.72E-03)
Age62 (1)	3.222 ** (4.49E-03)	3.354 ** (5.93E-03)	3.353 ** (5.69E-03)	3.355 ** (5.94E-03)
Age63 (1)	3.789 ** (8.13E-03)	3.949 * (0.011)	3.947 * (0.011)	3.950* (1.10E-02)
Age64 (1)	1.906 (1.19E-03)	2.110 (1.73E-03)	2.104 (1.65E-03)	2.111 (1.74E-03)
Age65 (1)	7.374 * (0.230)**	7.298 * (0.244)**	7.418 * (0.258)**	7.304 * (0.245)**
Age66 (1)	5.606 * (0.057)	6.276 * (0.120)	6.095 * (0.099)	6.267 * (0.120)
Age67 (1)	4.525 * (0.020)	5.201 * (0.044)	4.997 * (0.035)	5.191 * (0.044)
Age68 (1)	4.229 ** (0.015)	4.694 ** (0.028)	4.540 ** (0.023)	4.686 ** (0.027)
Age69 (1)	4.246 ** (0.015)	4.770 ** (0.030)	4.603 ** (0.024)	4.763 ** (0.030)
Age70 (1)	5.179 * (0.038)	5.721 * (0.074)	5.590 * (0.063)	5.716 * (0.073)
Age71 (1)	4.539 ** (0.020)	5.197 ** (0.045)	5.038 ** (0.037)	5.189 ** (0.045)
Age72 (1)	5.036 ** (0.033)	6.008 * (0.096)	5.804 ** (0.077)	5.996 ** (0.095)
Wage	-1.86E-06 (-4.21E-10)	-1.81E-04 * (-4.76E-08)	-1.84E-04 * (-4.65E-08)	-1.81E-04 * (-4.76E-08)

(Follow)

(Continuation)

	A) Option Value	B) Accrual	C) Tax	D) Peak Value
SSW	7.11E-06 * (1.61E-09)	5.83E-06 * (1.54E-09)	6.53E-06 * (1.65E-09)	5.86E-06 * (1.55E-09)
Incentive	-1.99E-04 (-4.51E-08)	6.49E-07 (1.71E-10)	-7.15E-05 (-1.81E-08)	5.97E-07 (1.58E-10)
Share part-time	1.234 (2.80E-04)	1.063 (2.80E-04)	1.107 (2.80E-04)	1.063 (2.80E-04)
Days last contract	-4.2E-05 (-9.48E-09)	-3.97E-05 (-1.04E-08)	-3.96E-05 (-1.00E-08)	-3.96E-05 (-1.05E-08)
Days worked	-2.2E-05 (-4.98E-09)	-6.49E-06 (-1.71E-09)	-7.32E-06 (-1.85E-09)	-6.68E-06 (-1.76E-09)
High Skill (1)	0.200 (4.86E-05)	0.392 (1.19E-04)	0.381 (1.10E-04)	0.389 (1.18E-04)
Medium Skill (1)	0.331 (7.65E-05)	0.366 (9.86E-05)	0.365 (9.45E-05)	0.366 (9.88E-05)
Industry (1)	0.394 (1.01E-04)	0.410 (1.22E-04)	0.405 (1.15E-04)	0.410 (1.23E-04)
Construction (1)	-2.859 ** (-2.24E-04)	-3.113 ** (-2.64E-04)	-2.932 ** (-2.51E-04)	-3.105 ** (-2.65E-04)
Inc. (1)	0.471 (1.15E-04)	0.457 (1.29E-04)	0.475 (1.30E-04)	0.458 (1.30E-04)
College (1)	-0.358 (-6.98E-05)	-0.401 (-8.94E-05)	-0.371 (-8.03E-05)	-0.399 (-8.91E-05)
Marry (1)	0.359 (8.49E-05)	0.378 (1.04E-04)	0.374 (9.90E-05)	0.378 (1.04E-04)
Young dependants (1)	-0.555 (-1.01E-04)	-0.471 (-1.03E-04)	-0.507 (-1.05E-04)	-0.474 (-1.03E-04)
Old dependants (1)	0.664 (2.02E-04)	0.645 (2.26E-04)	0.632 (2.11E-04)	0.645 (2.26E-04)
Constant	-7.373 * (-7.373E-01)	-7.450 * (-7.450E-01)	-7.456 * (-7.456E-01)	-7.450 * (-7.450E-01)

Notes: For each variable, marginal effect in brackets. The symbol * implies that variable is significant at 95% level of confidence and ** that it is significant at 90% level of confidence. (1) Marginal effect is for discrete change of dummy variable from 0 to 1.

Table 4c
AUXILIARY EQUATION (FEMALES)

	Total Effects	Marginal Effects
Age	82.777	0.089
Age ²	-1.290	-1.01E-04
Share part-time	3.531	0.695
Days last contract	-6.15E-04	-1.21E-04
Days worked	9.85E-05	1.94E-05
High Skill (I)	1.057	0.166
Industry (I)	-0.467	-0.093
Construction (I)	-0.212	-0.044
College(I)	0.089	0.017
Secondary (I)	0.071	0.014
Constant	-2.553	

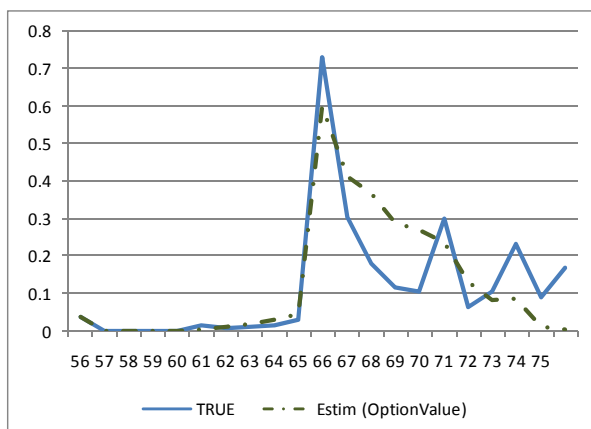
(I) Marginal effect is for discrete change of dummy variable from 0 to 1

Figure 4

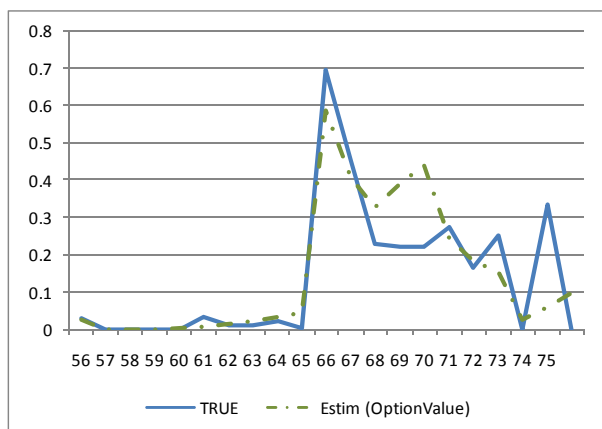
OBSERVED VERSUS ESTIMATED HAZARD RATES BY AGE AND GENDER

a) Quadratic age

Males

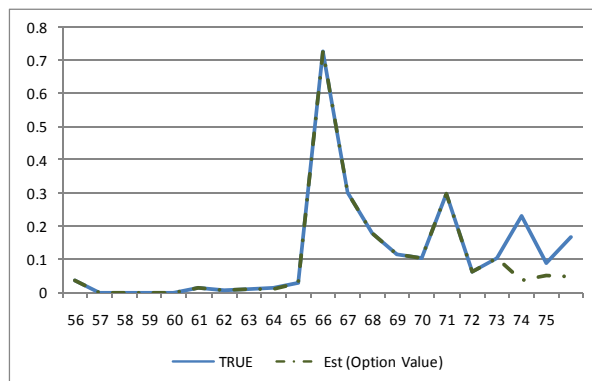


Females

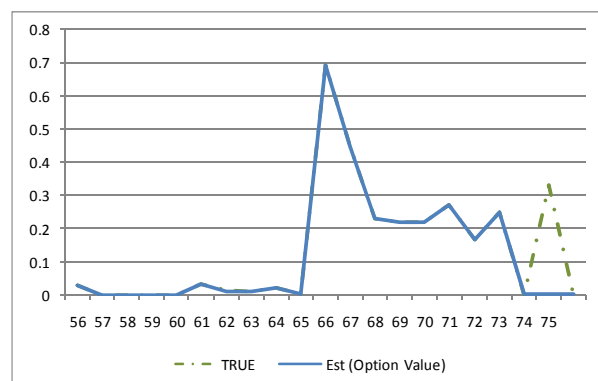


b) Age dummies

Males



Females



Source: Own elaboration.

Given that our main focus is simulating the effect of some reforms in a realistic way, we opt for the age dummies specification²⁴. Tables 3b and 4b show the corresponding regression results for males and females, respectively. As said above, only in the case of the option value, the coefficient for the incentive measure has the expected negative sign, showing that the probability of retiring is lower the higher the incentive. Gruber and Wise (2004) summarize comparable results from an international project finding that, although for most countries the coefficients for incentives have the expected negative sign and are significant for the retirement decision, this does not happen in some of them. This is the case, in particular, in the results for Spain, where only the accrual –a short run incentive– turns significant and has the expected sign in the linear age specification (Boldrin *et al.*, 2004)²⁵.

Regarding the other variables, it is interesting to note that SSW turns significant and that the estimated coefficient has a positive sign. The coefficient for SSW is usually interpreted as a measure of the income effect the worker is experiencing when delaying retirement for one year and hence exchanging consumption for leisure. If leisure is a normal good, we should expect a positive coefficient and this is what we obtain. Some studies obtain the opposite sign. The reason is usually that SSW is partially endogenous and is closely related to tastes for work, which might tend to have the opposite effect: the higher the income the lower the probability of retirement. Some studies try to palliate this problem by using instrumental variable estimates or by introducing a proxy for the taste for work as an explanatory variable. In our case, some of the variables

²⁴ We also tried a more stylized specification in which dummies tried to capture the retirement peaks at specific ages, but as the dummies specification was satisfactory enough, we opt for this, which allows for a better account of reforms, as we will see in the reforms section.

²⁵ The abovementioned results correspond to the general employees regime –which groups the majority of both contributors and pensioners–; while, for the self-employed, the option value also turns significant and negative.

included could play this role: estimated wage, college education and qualification level. Only being a qualified worker²⁶ is significant in the specification chosen, taking *OV* as the incentive, while it also has a positive sign. The opposite happens –a significant positive or negative sign is obtained for the estimated wage– in the case of the other three incentives and the specification using quadratic age. Interestingly, in a similar framework, Maes (2008b) obtains a positive sign for *SSW* and a negative one for lifetime wages, while Börsch-Supan *et al.* (2004) obtain a negative sign for *SSW* and a positive sign for estimated wage.

Clearly there is an identification problem that also interacts with the effect of age discussed above. As Gruber and Wise (2004) point out, when age increases the retirement desire increases, but not necessarily linearly. The introduction of wage as an explanatory variable might help to capture heterogeneous tastes for work, but the problem is, then, that both age and wage enter the incentives calculation. Hence, the introduction of all these variables worsens the identification of the effect of the incentives. In fact, as seen above, the age dummies specification gives a very realistic shape or retirement probability by age but implies that age is the main explanatory variable in the regression.

In the case of females similar results are obtained, while some differences remain²⁷. First, the incentive measure is significant only at the 10% confidence level in the specification chosen and being a qualified worker is not significant. Second, the additional significant variables besides age and incentives differ. The share of part-time work has a positive and significant effect for males while for females this happens only at the 10% confidence level. The duration of the last contract has a significant effect which turns out, quite surprisingly, to be positive – the duration of the whole working life has a negative but not significant effect. Only one other variable turns significant for males: having kids at home decreases the probability of retirement as in Börsch-Supan *et al.* (2004) and Maes (2008b). For females, two variables referring to the industry sector are significant. First, being in construction has a negative effect on the probability of retirement, while there are few cases and probably performing administrative tasks. Second, the legal type of firm –being a public limited company– has a positive effect.

5.2. The scope for reform

Overall, the results shown above indicate that the incentive measures explicitly governed by legislation have a small impact on the retirement decision. This conclusion will also influence the effect of the reforms we will simulate below. The starting point of our simulation is the age dummies specification

²⁶ The MCVL contains information about worker educational attainment but is not reliable due to its unclear updating process. Hence, we use the contribution group as a proxy.

²⁷ We refer to the chosen specification –using the *OV* incentive– unless specified.

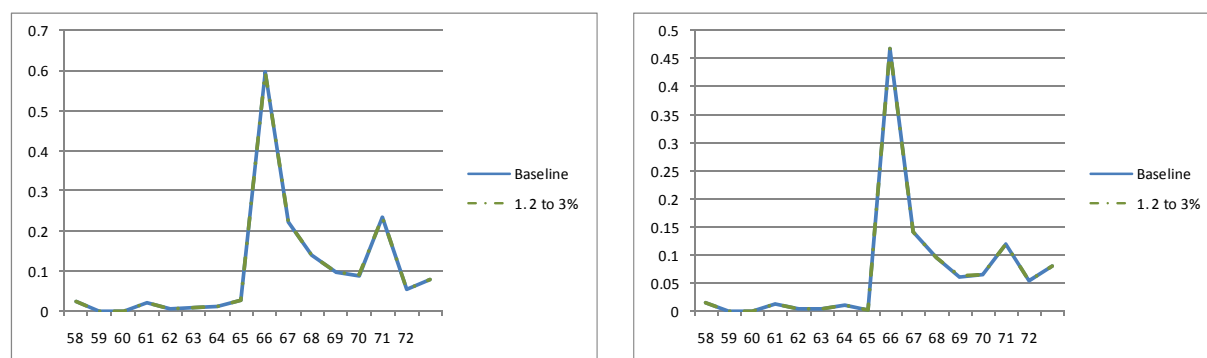
using the option value as incentive. As said above, our main focus is analyzing the scope for measures delaying retirement in Spain. Nevertheless, we relate these measures to some proposals that have been on the political agenda for a long while. These are mainly driven by two sometimes conflicting main goals, i.e. fostering sustainability and contributivity.

First, we deal with measures directly aiming to delay retirement age and, hence, to reach sustainability in the face of future population ageing. In a first step, we simulate the effect of the last measure introduced in this line in the Spanish Social Security system. In particular, the 35/02 Act introduced an increase of one percentage point in the incentive to delay retirement for those who had contributed 40 years – at the moment fixed at 2% for those who already reached 35 years.

The effect of this measure is plotted in Figure 5, as well as in Table 5 at the end, which summarizes the effect of all the measures on retirement age analyzed. It has a very limited impact in the expected direction, but so small that it is not observable, either in the Figure or in the average retirement age. This is not surprising as it is a marginal change and only affects a small share of pensioners – only 1.87% of 2007 male new entries had 40 or more years of contribution (0.57% for females). As seen above, a stronger version of this measure – the introduction of 2% in 2002 – does not seem to have had a big impact according to the evolution of average retirement age shown in Figure 1. In any case, there seems to be no scope for increasing this incentive further, given that 3% is near the actuarially fair value. At the moment, 100% of RB is obtained by working 35 years, which would mean 2.86% per year if the scale were fully proportional. Only a whole reformulation of the weight scale given to the working career would potentially have an impact on the retirement age, as discussed below²⁸.

Figure 5

EFFECT OF CHANGING THE INCENTIVE TO DELAY RETIREMENT FROM 2% TO 3% (WITH 40 OR MORE YEARS OF CONTRIBUTION) ON THE HAZARD RATES MALES FEMALES



Source: Own elaboration.

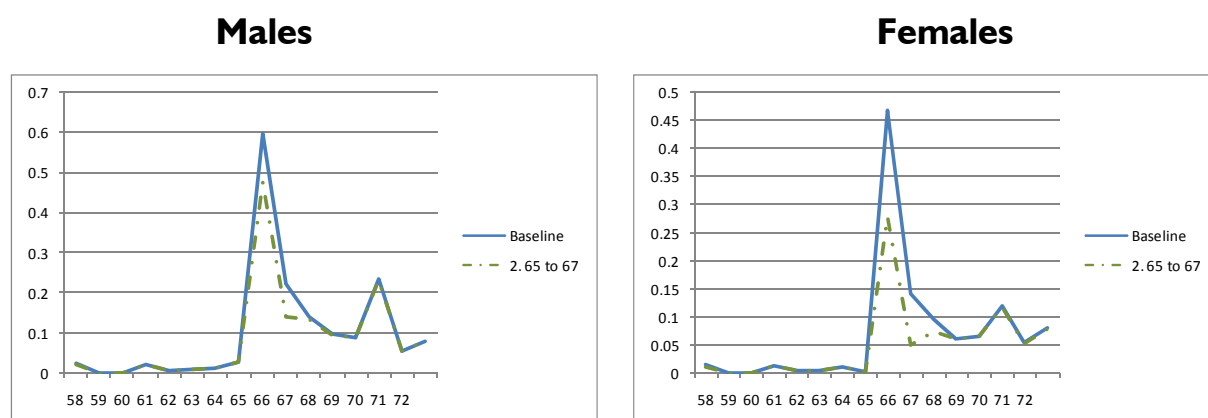
²⁸ See the appendix for a discussion of the shape of $p(n)$.

Given the small impact of marginal incentives to delay retirement, the most effective measure would be a direct change in the legal retirement age. Hence, in a second step, we simulate a measure of this kind. In particular, we directly move the legal retirement age from 65 to 67 and redefine the incentive measures consequently. The effects are shown in Figure 6. Panel a) shows only the effect of the change in the incentive, while panel b) shows the total effect – including that of switching the age dummies two years. In the first case the effect is more limited given the reduced response of retirement probability to incentives, while in the second case there is a sizeable effect as the peak at age 65 moves towards 67. Although the hazards show a high impact for females, the change in average retirement age is higher for males: 0.53 years compared to 0.40 when only the change in incentive is considered, and 1.7 compared to 1.10 when the total effect is considered.

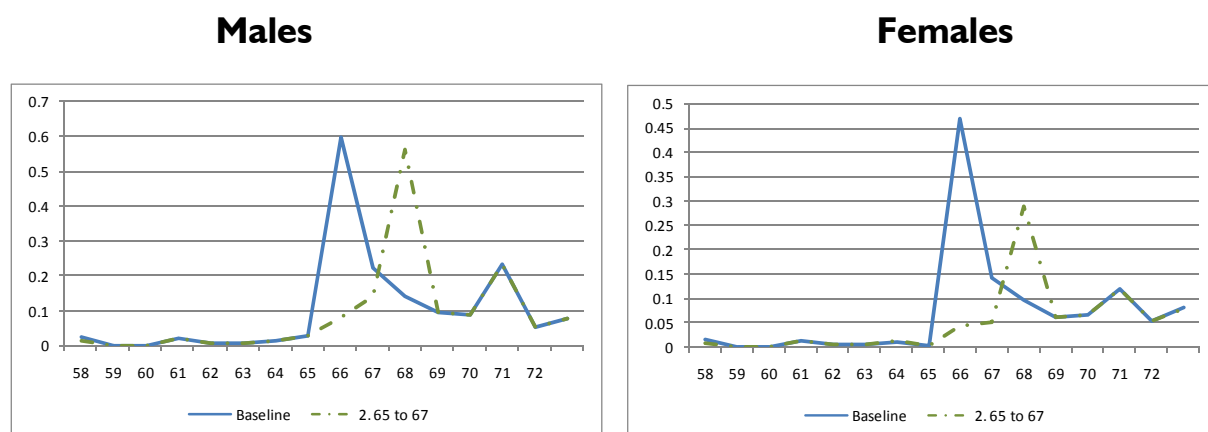
Figure 6

EFFECT OF DELAYING THE LEGAL RETIREMENT AGE FROM 65 TO 67

a) Effect of the change in the incentive on the hazard rates



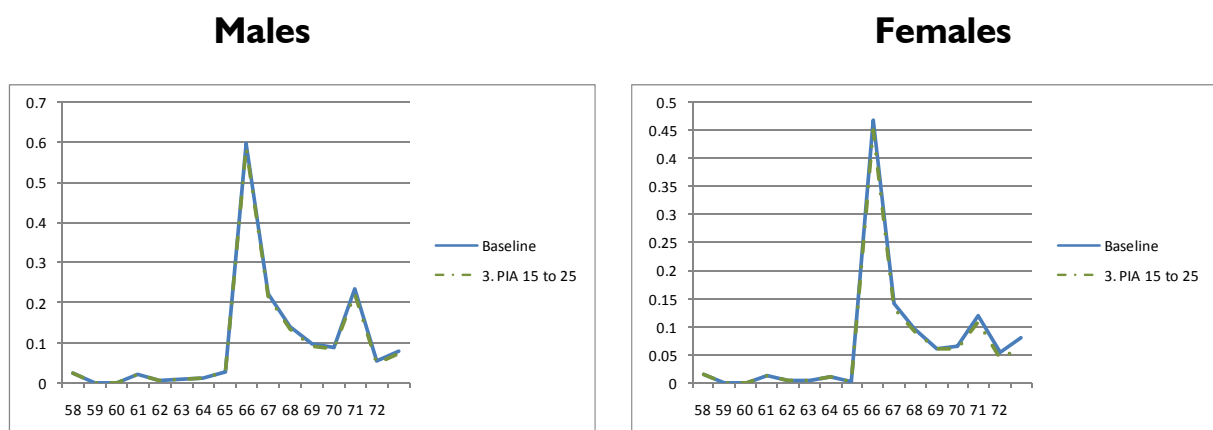
b) Total effect: change in the incentive and switch of age dummies



Second, measures aiming to foster the contributory nature of the system are analyzed. On the one hand, it is proposed to use the full working career to

compute the RB, instead of the last 15 years as is done now. On the other hand, a linear relation between the number of years of contribution and the share of RB received as a pension has been proposed, instead of the present system which establishes a particular scale giving more weight to the first years and less to the last years and establishing, at the same time, a minimum eligibility threshold²⁹. In fact it would be interesting to simulate the effect of both measures which clearly would change the age profile of SSW, hence affecting retirement age. Nevertheless, it is not yet possible to fully develop these analyses with the available waves of the MCVL. Only the former can be completely simulated, while the latter only to some extent, as the MCVL only registers contributions since 1981³⁰. Hence, as an approximation we simulate the effect of going back to the last 25 years instead of the last 15 in order to compute RB. Figure 7 shows the results. The expected effect of this measure is a cut in pension entitlements as the RB is computed by using older –and lower– wages³¹. Hence, we could expect a delay in retirement age. Nevertheless the hazard rate seems to be the same in the case of males, while there is a reduction in the probability of retirement in the last years for females. On average, retirement age increases only by 0.07 years in the case of males, while for females it does not move in the expected direction –the average retirement age decreases– probably due to their shorter earnings histories.

Figure 7
EFFECT OF COMPUTING THE RB USING 25 INSTEAD OF 15 YEARS



Source: Own elaboration

²⁹ See the appendix for details on past legal changes.

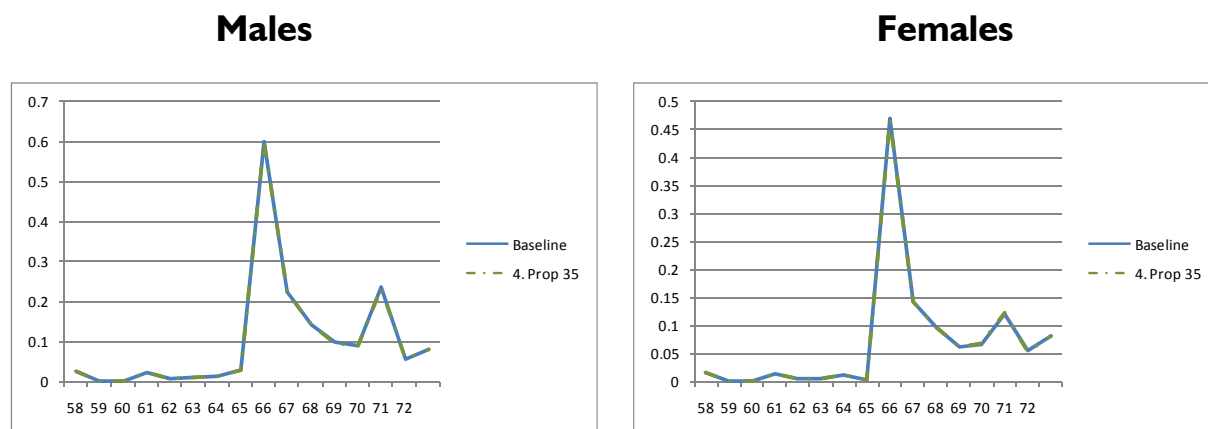
³⁰ As said above, contribution data start being collected in 1980 and the problem of missing data is quite strong at the beginning.

³¹ Though inflation is recovered in 13 of the 15 years by inflation uprating, the rest of wage increase due to productivity growth is not.

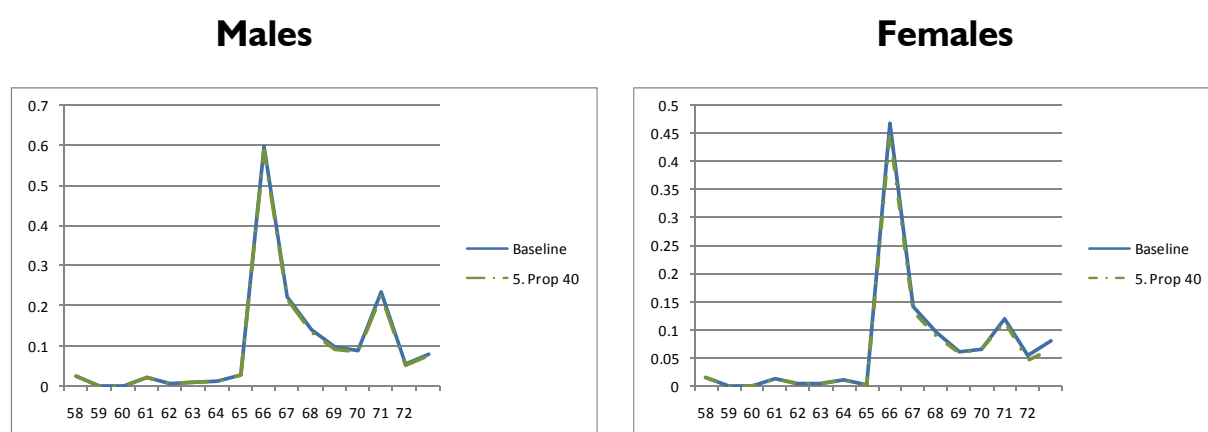
Figure 8

EFFECT OF MOVING TO A PROPORTIONAL RELATION BETWEEN THE SHARE OF RB AND THE NUMBER OF CONTRIBUTED YEARS (35 YEARS GIVES 100%)

a) 35 years gives 100%



b) 40 years gives 100%



Source: Own elaboration.

With respect to the reform establishing a linear relation between the number of years of contribution and the share of RB received as a pension, we simulate two possibilities. In the first case, the current maximum is held so that individuals get 100% for 35 years of contribution, meaning 2.86% a year. This has a small impact as it affects a small share of pensioners. Hence we derive a second case, in which the maximum is increased to 40 years, so that each year entitles individuals with 2.50% of the RB. The results are shown in Figure 8. In the latter case, there is also a sizeable pension cut (see also Figure 9) and the shape of SSW changes. The small response to incentives implies that the retirement age only changes by 0.01 when 35 years are considered and by 0.06 years when 40 years are considered – the latter moving again in the opposite direction for females (-0.04 years).

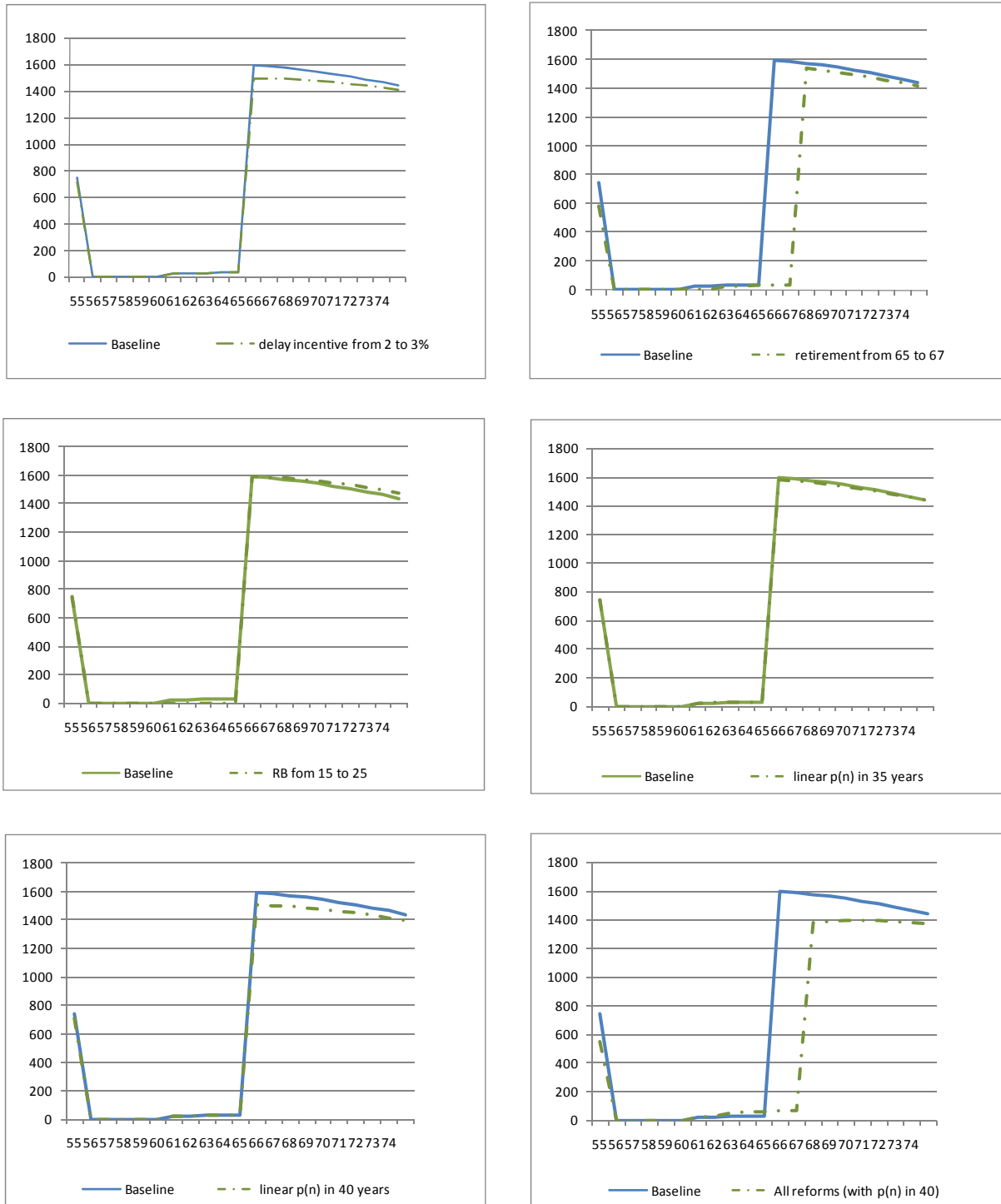
Finally, it is worth noting that measures fostering the *Bismarckian* nature of the system might have a positive impact on sustainability as they tend to decrease the level of initial pension entitlements. Regarding the measures simulated above it is clear that the effect of the former is a cut in pension benefit, while the latter is not so clear, as it could favour the workers with short working careers below the minimum eligibility threshold (see the Appendix).³² Interestingly, as said above, the combination of both reforms could change the age profile of SSW and have an impact on retirement age, especially for the present baby boom cohorts whose entry in the labour market was substantially delayed by obtaining a degree. Nevertheless, given the small response of changes in incentives to the probability of retirement, there is only a very small change in the retirement age. In order to see the direct effect on pension rights, Figure 9 plots the average pension by age obtained in the baseline case, compared to the different reform scenarios. One can see that abovementioned Bismarckian measures have a sizable but not huge impact on pension entitlements. On the one hand, the change to a 40-year period of contribution with a linear relation to the share of *RB* received as a pension benefit has a significant effect. On the other hand, the change from 15 to 25 years used to compute *RB* has a very limited direct impact. The reason is that by going back ten years the steepest part of the wage longitudinal profile is not yet reached. Forward extensions of this measure do, however, have potentially stronger effects. Again, the direct change of the legal retirement age proves the most effective measure.

Overall, given the scarce effect of changes in incentives on the probability of retirement, the direct increase of retirement age seems to be the most secure way to delay retirement. As shown in Table 5, this would have a sizeable impact on the average retirement age, which could increase by 1.7 years in the case of males. Considering that the subsample employed in the analysis, which omits early retirement, contains 46.5% of males, the average retirement age for males could increase by 0.8 years. In the case of females it is more difficult to extrapolate, given the present change in female labour participation.

³² Quite interestingly, the main measure also has a clear redistributive impact. High income workers tend to have steeper longitudinal wages profiles and are hence more affected by going back to past contribution history. Jimeno (2003) finds a similar effect using hypothetical working careers.

Figure 9

EFFECT OF THE DIFFERENT REFORMS ON THE (INITIAL) PENSION BENEFIT



Source: Own elaboration.

Table 5
EFFECT ON AVERAGE RETIREMENT AGE (ARA) IN POLICY SCENARIOS

	ARA		Increase in ARA due to reform	
	Male	Female	Male	Female
Observed ARA				
Sample (Number of observations)	64.32 (48,089)	65.00 (25,267)		
Subsample (Number of observations)	66.13 (22,357)	65.26 (5,961)		
Estimated ARA	Male	Female	Male	Female
Baseline	66.02	67.38		
1. Increase $p(n)$ above 100% from 2% to 3% per year ($n \geq 40$)	66.02	67.38	0.00	0.00
2. Retirement age 65 to 67				
a) Effect of changes in incentive	66.55	67.79	0.53	0.41
b) Total affect (delaying age b) dummies)	67.71	68.48	1.70	1.10
3. Years to compute RB from 15 to 25	66.09	67.31	0.07	-0.07
4. Linear $p(n)$ maximum 35 years	66.03	67.39	0.01	0.01
5. Linear $p(n)$ maximum 40 years	66.08	67.34	0.06	-0.04

6. FINAL REMARKS

In this paper we have analyzed the scope for measures delaying retirement age in Spain using the MCVL. As a first step, after discussing all the available retirement paths, a subsample is extracted for those individuals who access retirement in 2007 and can opt for delayed retirement. The analysis focuses on the retirement decision of employed workers who can opt for ordinary retirement at age 65 or delayed retirement. Among the alternative pathways, the one that is most dependent on the worker decision –and least on the firm– is considered, i.e. the regular retirement option, which includes the possibility to delay retirement. We also control for the possibility of eligible workers choosing early retirement choice in the OS. The analysis leaves aside special retirement at age 64, partial and flexible retirement.

We estimate retirement probabilities in 2007 and their sensitivity to legal pension incentive measures. Overall, our results indicate that, despite our attempt to focus on the relevant subsample, the incentive measures explicitly governed by legislation have a limited impact on the retirement decision, this being mostly determined by age. When age is specified as single year dummy it captures most of the significance and hence there is little room for policy simulations. If age is introduced as a quadratic, some of the variables included turn out significant, but the estimated probability does not fit the age profile and the effect of incentives is not significant. Clearly, the difficulties in capturing the role of the firm in the retirement decision are also behind this lack of significance.

Based on the age dummies specification, we proceed to simulate reforms using the option value incentive measure, the only one which turns out significant with the expected sign. According to the focus of our analysis, we first simulate the impact of the last reform introduced in Spain fostering delayed retirement, finding a small impact. This is not surprising, given that it affects a small share of pensioners and is a marginal change.

We analyze other measures often discussed in order to foster the Bismarckian nature of the system. Interestingly, these measures would in most cases produce a cut in pension entitlements and/or a change in the SSW age profile, which could foster a delay in retirement age, improving sustainability. We simulate those most feasible, given constraints present in the data set. In particular, an extension of the number of past wages used to compute the *RB* from 15 to 25 and a linear relation between the share of *RB* received as a pension and the number of years of contribution. Those measures have an effect on retirement age, mainly due to the reduction in pension that they motivate for most pensioners. Nevertheless, it is still limited, given that in the model specified incentives have a small impact on the probability of retirement. Finally, we simulate the effect of a direct delay in the legal retirement age from 65 to 67, which produces a substantial delay of average retirement age for males of 1.7 years in the subsample chosen – implying a change of average age in the whole male sample of 0.8 years. Changes for females are a bit lower but in any case the change in female labour force participation makes it more difficult to extrapolate to the future, given the expected changing patterns in female labour force participation.

APPENDIX: CHANGES IN THE WEIGHT ATTACHED TO THE TOTAL NUMBER OF YEARS CONTRIBUTED IN THE SHARE OF RB OBTAINED AS A PENSION

In this appendix we focus on the first term in the r.h.s. of Equation [1] $p(n)$, i.e. the weight attached to the number of contribution years, so as to compute the share of the *RB* received as a pension. Table I.1 summarizes the different legal changes undergone by this scale. According to the present one fixed by the 24/1997 Act, $p(n)$ is decreasing after the minimum, so that the weight attached to the first years is higher –which results in a redistributive effect. The former scale gave a lower weight to the initial years. The following columns show further reforms in line with the Toledo Agreement proposal, fostering the Bismarckian nature of the system: specifically, full proportionality considering the present maximum of 35 years– that is 2.86% a year –or a maximum of 40 years– that is 2.5% a year. As shown in Table I.1, for the various scales considered, the weight attached to one particular year oscillates between 5% in the first ten years prior to the 1997 reform, to 2% during the last years of the current legislation.

Figure I.1 illustrates the potential effect of reforms on this legal parameter. On the one hand, the function $p(n)$ is plotted for each of the legal scales considered. It is worth noting, first, that individuals who do not meet the minimum eligibility requirement would clearly benefit from a proportional rule. Second, it is clear that for those crediting between 15 and 35 years, both the previous and the present rules (26/1985 and 24/1997 Acts, respectively) are more generous than the two proportional rules.

On the other hand, the cumulative distribution of new registration with respect to the number of contribution years, in the 2004 MCVL wave, is also shown. This highlights the share of individuals affected by each legal scale and hence its specific effect. First, note that most individuals –72%– credit up to 35 contribution years and, as such, are affected neither by the legal changes already enacted nor by moving to a system of full proportionality with a maximum of 35 years. Second, we can see that the legal change introduced in 1997 only affected 6% of new pensions. Finally, it is interesting to note that an eventual change to full proportionality would affect almost 50% of individuals, which accounts for the highest effect obtained for this simulated legal change.

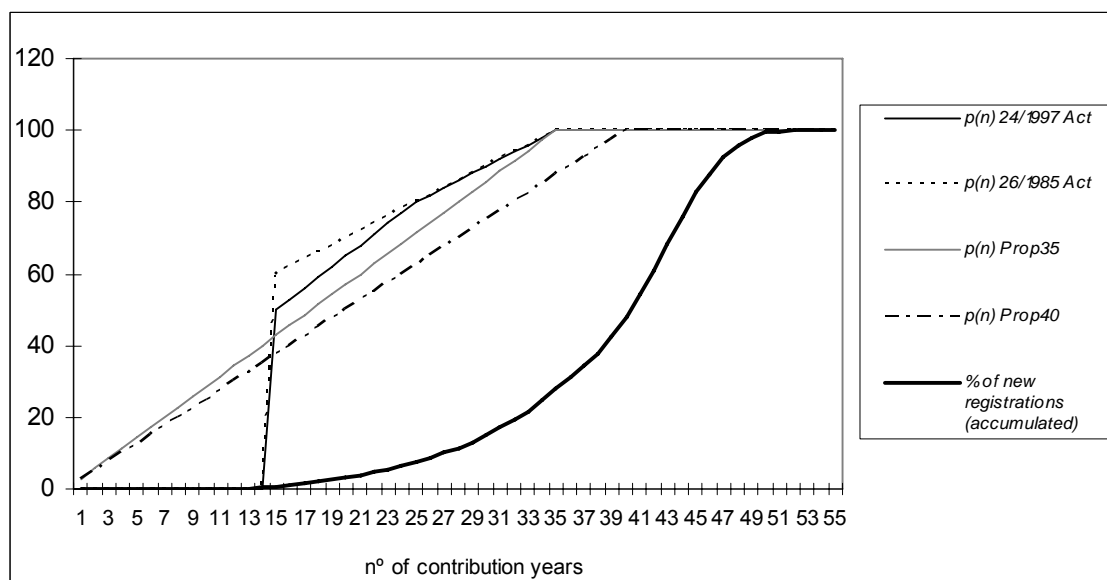
Table I.1
WEIGHT ATTACHED TO CONTRIBUTION YEARS
IN THE SHARE OF RB (several legal scenarios)

	Prior to 1985	26/1985 Act	24/1997 Act	Total Proportionality
Minimum eligibility condition	10 years	15 years	15 years	–
Contribution years	Total p(n) (per year)			
10	50% (5.0%)	–	–	–
15	(2.0%)	60% (*) (5.0%) (2.0%)	50% (3.3%)	In 35 years (2.86%)
16-25		(2.0%)	(3.0%)	In 40 years (2.50%)
26-35			(2.0%)	

(*) 60%: according to the same previous scale, 50% from the first 10 years (5% a year) plus 10% from the next 5 years (2% a year).

Figure I.1

AVERAGE EFFECT ON PENSIONS FROM FIXING DIFFERENT FUNCTIONS OF P(N)



Source: Authors' calculations using MCVL data and legal parameters.

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SÍNTESIS

PRINCIPALES IMPLICACIONES DE POLÍTICA ECONÓMICA

En este artículo se analiza el margen que queda para establecer medidas destinadas a incentivar el retraso de la edad de jubilación en España. Para ello se realiza un experimento de micro simulación a partir de la Muestra continua de vidas laborales (MCVL) del Ministerio de Trabajo e Inmigración. En concreto, en primer lugar se parte del análisis de la distribución de las altas de pensión en los últimos años con el fin de acotar la muestra de los individuos relevantes –aquellos que pueden optar a la jubilación retrasada. Con ello se eliminan alrededor de un 30% de las altas de jubilación que acceden a la misma pasando por el desempleo.

En segundo lugar se estima la probabilidad de jubilarse en 2007, en función de características socioeconómicas y de variables que recogen los incentivos a retrasar la edad de jubilación. Éstas últimas resultan tener poco impacto. En tercer lugar, partiendo de la estimación anterior se simula el efecto de la última medida dirigida a aumentar la edad de jubilación: El aumento de la proporción de la base reguladora a recibir como pensión del 2% a 3% por año cotizado más allá de los 65. Como era de esperar, dado que se trata de una reforma marginal, se obtiene un resultado muy limitado sobre la edad media de jubilación.

Asimismo, se simula el efecto de las medidas dirigidas a reforzar al contributividad del sistema –la consideración de toda la carrera laboral en el cálculo de la base reguladora y del porcentaje de la misma a recibir como pensión–, con el fin de analizar su posible impacto sobre la edad de jubilación. Sin embargo, a pesar del considerable recorte en la pensión que suponen, el impacto sobre la edad de jubilación es, de nuevo, limitado.

El trabajo concluye que, dada la actual estructura de la fórmula de cálculo de la pensión, no queda margen para una extensión de los incentivos, sino que sólo una completa reformulación de la fórmula de cálculo de la pensión, o un retraso directo de la edad de referencia para la jubilación más allá de los 65 años, puede tener un efecto sustancial en la edad media de jubilación. El efecto de ésta última se estima en un retraso de la edad media de jubilación de 1,7 años para los hombres de la muestra, lo cual equivale a un retraso de 0,8 años para el total de los hombres en edad de jubilación en 2007.

Con todo, es necesario realizar más investigación para analizar hasta qué punto los resultados se deben a la especificación empleada y/o al hecho de que se mide el impacto ex ante en lugar del impacto ex post.

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Junto al original del Papel de Trabajo se entregará también un resumen de un máximo de dos folios que contenga las principales implicaciones de política económica que se deriven de la investigación realizada.

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