WHAT EXPLAINS THE WIDENING GAP IN RETIREMENT AGES BY EDUCATION?

By Matthew S. Rutledge*

Introduction

Over the last three decades, the average retirement age has increased by about three years, to 64.6 for men and 62.3 for women. But this trend is not uniform across socioeconomic groups: for example, high school graduates are retiring just a bit later than in the 1990s, leading to a wide gap between them and college graduates. This brief reviews studies by the U.S. Social Security Administration’s Retirement Research Consortium (RRC) and others that examine several potential causes of the unequal increases in retirement ages by education.

The discussion proceeds as follows. The first section quantifies the growing gap in average retirement ages by education. The second section discusses four reasons why the gap may have widened: 1) growing inequality in health and longevity; 2) variations in labor market conditions; 3) the differential impact of Social Security policy changes; and 4) dissimilarities in marital status that affect the joint retirement decision. The final section concludes that these factors have increased retirement ages much more for college graduates than for those with less education. This latter group is thus more likely to retire early, putting them at greater risk of inadequate incomes and heavier reliance on the social safety net.

Retirement Age Trends

The gains in the average retirement age since the 1990s have been driven almost solely by those with more education. Today, male college graduates retire three years later than high school graduates (see Figure 1). While the story is more complicated for women because of the dramatic change in their labor force participation over the latter half of the 20th century, the overall message is similar: like men, the gap in average retirement ages by education has grown substantially.

Figure 1. Average Retirement Age for Men, by Educational Attainment, 1976-2016

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year Interval</th>
<th>High school graduates</th>
<th>College graduates</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1976-1979</td>
<td>64.6</td>
<td>64.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1980-1989</td>
<td>64.9</td>
<td>62.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1990-1999</td>
<td>64.6</td>
<td>62.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2000-2009</td>
<td>65.3</td>
<td>62.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2010-2016</td>
<td>65.7</td>
<td>62.8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


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Why Aren’t the Less-Educated Retiring Later?

Working longer is perhaps the most effective way for Americans to improve their retirement security, and the life expectancy gains that have lengthened the duration of retirement have made working longer even more necessary. Fortunately, some aspects of the nation’s retirement income system and labor market structures now encourage later retirement. Older workers are healthier and better-educated than prior generations, and jobs are less physically demanding. Employer retirement plans have transitioned from defined benefit (DB) to defined contribution (DC), which are associated with later retirement. Social Security changes – in particular, an older Full Retirement Age (FRA) and a more generous delayed retirement credit – have also encouraged later retirement. Furthermore, the increase in female labor force participation has meant that more women are working in their 50s and 60s, which encourages their husbands to work longer so that they can retire together.

But these factors appear to have had less impact on workers without a college degree. The following discussion reviews the evidence on why less-educated workers have largely been left out of the trend toward later retirement.

Setbacks in Health and Longevity

Health is one of the most important factors contributing to the retirement decision. In fact, according to Munnell, Sanzenbacher, and Rutledge (2015), it is the single most important factor in earlier-than-planned retirement, even more than involuntary job loss. Health matters in two ways. First, workers who experience a health shock are more likely to retire early. Second, workers who were in poor health when setting their retirement expectations also tend to retire earlier than they had planned, suggesting that unhealthy workers are often too optimistic about their ability to work longer.

Blundell et al. (2017) also find that both health shocks and initial health conditions are key factors driving employment status at older ages. Not surprisingly, their results show that the less-educated are generally in worse health. Their study adds that health is an especially important driver of retirement decisions among less-educated individuals: the association between health and employment is strongest among high school dropouts, and becomes weaker with greater educational attainment (see Figure 2).

These studies suggest that improvements in health and longevity would lead to later retirement ages across all educational groups, as long as they all experienced gains. But the less-educated have seen less improvement in health and longevity than those with more education. While better-educated individuals have always lived longer, the difference by education is widening. Bound et al. (2015) find that some subgroups – in particular, the least-educated quartile of white women – have seen life expectancy in middle age actually fall. Further, some studies, such as Munnell, Soto, and Golub-Sass (2008), find evidence that less-educated individuals have seen smaller gains in disability-free life expectancy, which suggests that they also have less capacity to work longer.

In addition, from 1984 through about 2010, a rising share of workers exited work early through Social Security Disability Insurance (SSDI), especially among those with no college degree. Such early exits mechanically reduce the average retirement age and limit any potential return to employment, given that most beneficiaries exit the labor force permanently.

Changing Labor Market Outcomes

Two factors related to the labor market have also pushed retirement ages higher in general, but may have a smaller influence on less-educated workers: 1) the transition from DB to DC retirement plans; and 2) improving work conditions.
The transition from DBs to DCs likely pushed retirement ages later for various reasons. DBs often have incentives to retire early – for example, benefits that max out at a relatively young age – while DCs are age-neutral. DC plans also place more financial risk on workers, which may encourage them to keep working and saving. Hou et al. (2017), comparing retirement ages between early Baby Boomers (born 1948-1953) and the pre-war cohort (1931-1941), find that the DB-to-DC transition had an even greater impact on retirement ages than improved health.

But the transition to DCs may have had less of an impact on less-educated workers because they were less likely to have had DB coverage in the first place. For the most part, they have simply moved from a scenario where they had little DB wealth to one where they have little DC wealth. Munnell et al. (2016a) estimate that, in 1992, the bottom quartile of educational attainment owned only 11 percent of total DB wealth held by American households; in 2010, the bottom quartile owned 11 percent of all DC wealth.

Meanwhile, the shift from manufacturing to service-sector employment has made jobs less physically demanding in general, which should enable workers to postpone retirement. In fact, one would expect this change to especially lengthen the careers of less-educated workers, who tend to hold these jobs. But their working conditions remain relatively poor. Maestas et al. (2016) find that the less-educated are more likely to report that their jobs involve moving heavy loads, repetitive movements, or needing to stand all or almost all of the time (see Figure 3). And while workers may desire more flexibility and autonomy as they age, less-educated workers report being less able to control their own schedules, having more frequent changes in their schedules, having more difficulty taking time off, and being more likely to experience threatening behavior on the job. In other words, less-educated workers still seem to have working conditions that would encourage earlier job exit.

**Social Security Incentives**

Less-educated households are more reliant on Social Security benefits. The increase in Social Security’s FRA reduces benefits at any given claiming age, so, if anything, less-educated workers would be expected to increase their retirement age by more than more-educated workers to make up for the reduction in their dominant form of retirement income.

**Changes in Marital Status**

The broad increase in female labor force participation and changes in marital status throughout the latter half of the 20th century have, in several ways, pushed retirement ages up overall. First, the average retirement age for women increases automatically as...
more women are working at all ages. Second, women with greater labor market experience are better able to maintain their current job at older ages, better able to find new opportunities, and more likely to identify with a career; all of these factors should encourage women to retire later. Third, as women work longer, men may follow suit because couples often prefer to retire together. This joint retirement effect can be substantial: Gustman and Steinmeier (2002) estimate that having a retired spouse increases the probability of retiring by the equivalent of being one year older.

But the desire to jointly retire is only relevant for couples, and less-educated individuals are increasingly less likely to be married at older ages. The share of male high school graduates who are married at ages 50-64 fell by 24 percentage points between 1976 and 2016, compared to a decrease of only 11 percentage points among college-educated men (see Figure 4). So less-educated men are less likely to face pressure to work longer to match the behavior of a spouse.

Conclusion

Although the overall average retirement age has increased substantially, men with only a high school diploma have seen almost no change for several reasons. First, they have seen less of an improvement in their health and longevity than more-educated workers. Second, although the transition from DB to DC plans and better working conditions have generally led to later retirements, less-educated workers were less likely to have DBs in the first place, and their working conditions still may not be conducive to extending careers. Third, although Social Security reforms have promoted later claiming, delaying benefits may still not make sense for less-educated workers. Finally, the greater work experience of married women has encouraged their husbands to retire later, but the less-educated are less likely to approach their retirement years as part of a couple.

Of course, the less-educated could see their retirement ages catch up to college graduates if these factors improve, but some of the factors only seem to be getting worse: groups with lower socioeconomic status have fallen further behind in life expectancy, and their marriage rates are still trending downward. Unless these factors reverse, and without a stronger response to insufficient retirement saving, the less-educated are likely to continue retiring too early. In that event, they will face lower living standards in retirement and greater reliance on programs targeted at retirees with low incomes, such as Supplemental Security Income.
Endnotes

1 Munnell (2015, 2017). The average retirement age is defined as the first age (starting at 50 or older) when the labor force participation rate falls below 50 percent.

2 These calculations use Current Population Survey data aggregated by the Integrated Public Use Micro Data Series (IPUMS) initiative at the University of Minnesota (Flood et al. 2017).

3 The results are similar when using education quartiles as a way of adjusting for increasing educational attainment (see Bound et al. 2015).

4 See Munnell (2011, 2015) for a review of the factors encouraging later retirement.

5 Munnell, Triest, and Jivan (2004) and Friedberg and Webb (2005) find that workers with DC plans retire on average two years later than those with DB plans.

6 Olshansky et al. (2012); Sanzenbacher et al. (2015); Auerbach et al. (2017).

7 Case and Deaton (2016) also find an increase in middle-age mortality among whites with less than a high school degree, though, unlike Bound et al. (2015), they do not adjust for the changing composition of that group as educational attainment has increased.

8 Crimmins and Saito (2001) also find a rising disparity in disability-free life expectancy by education. On the other hand, Cutler, Ghosh, and Landrum (2013) show similar improvements for better- and less-educated individuals. Overall, Coile, Milligan, and Wise (2017) suggest that less-educated individuals actually have more untapped potential work capacity than the better-educated – their health is somewhat worse, but they retire substantially earlier.

9 Autor and Duggan (2006); Liebman (2015).

10 Behaghel and Blau (2012) show that the increase in the claiming age after the FRA change does not differ by years of education.

11 The earnings test on Social Security is eliminated once individuals reach the FRA, which reduces work disincentives for those at or above this age. But this reform would only have a small effect on less-educated workers, because they are unlikely to work near those ages. RRC-funded work by Gelber et al. (2017) shows a somewhat smaller response to the earnings test among non-white beneficiaries, but does not examine results by education.
References


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