CENTER for RETIREMENT RESEARCH at BOSTON COLLEGE

NEW INSIGHTS ON SELF-EMPLOYMENT OF OLDER ADULTS IN THE UNITED STATES

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Abstract

Many people engage in self-employment, yet there exists a dearth of data on these arrangements. This paper addresses this gap by creating a novel dataset of self-employment roles to examine heterogeneity in self-employment arrangements. The approach uses non-public 2016 *Health and Retirement Study* (HRS) data on employer names and locations and narrative descriptions of industry and occupation for older workers reporting self-employment to classify self-employment of older adults in the United States into entrepreneurial roles (own/run; manage; independent). Using this classification system along with the breadth of information collected in the HRS, this work finds substantial differences in demographic characteristics, work characteristics, income, and benefits, as well as substantial variation in quality of life and retirement expectations. The paper also links the classification to administrative records on self-employment and wage employment to identify discrepancies by role across data sources.

The paper found that:

- Of the self-employed in the HRS, business management and ownership are associated with being male and having higher education; greater labor income and wealth; and expectations of working longer.
- Independent roles are associated with being more likely to identify as retired, while business management roles are associated with better mental health.
- Self-employment in general is associated with being less likely to say they would like to leave work but stay employed for money or health insurance and with having a more favorable view of work, though disparities by self-employment exist across role as well.
- Further work linking to administrative records suggests substantial discrepancies between survey responses and administrative records.

The policy implications of the findings are:

- Meaningful differences in the nature of work and characteristics of the self-employed exist.
- One-size-fits-all policies will not address the needs of this diverse group.

- Combining survey and administrative records is critical for identifying the prevalence and characteristics of heterogeneity among the self-employed and formulating appropriate policy.

Introduction

As workers age, their choices about whether to continue working and in what capacity can greatly influence their later life economic security and wellbeing. Such choices determine their accumulation and claiming of public and private retirement savings as well as the physical and emotional tolls and benefits associated with working. One such decision that greatly impacts these outcomes is the choice to pursue wage employment or self-employment. Estimates from the 2016 wave of the Health and Retirement Study (HRS) suggest that workers increasingly choose self-employment as they age: from 15.4 percent of workers younger than age 55, to 17.1 percent of workers aged 55-65, and 33.8 percent of workers aged 65 and older.

While much work has explored the determinants of older workers transitioning to self-employment, heterogeneity in self-employment has not been explored extensively. Such heterogeneity is increasingly of interest with the rise in discussion of app- and Internet-based employment and the well-being of workers in contingent and gig work more generally. For example, an individual pursuing self-employment in the transportation sector could choose to drive for an app-based ride-sharing service, advertise their own chauffeur services, drive on a contract basis for an established business, or manage their own established business. For each of these roles, the barriers to entry, work stresses, and compensation vary. Identifying such roles is important to be able to assess why an individual would choose one role over another, to examine disparities in outcomes across roles, and to understand how individuals move across roles.

However, identifying such roles is difficult, as few sources of detailed information on self-employment arrangements (Bernhardt, 2014) or entrepreneurial activities (Light and Munk, 2018) exist. Administrative records, derived from tax reporting, and electronic transaction records, such as those compiled by the JPMorgan Chase Institute, are valuable sources of information on alternative work arrangements, but on their own, they lack information on many demographic, health, and family characteristics of interest, and do not capture employment taking place outside of these purviews. Household surveys, like the American Community Survey and Current Population Survey (CPS), ask about self-employment, but do not provide detailed employment characteristics. While more focused surveys, like the Bureau of Labor Statistics' Contingent Worker Supplement (CWS), collect data on alternative work arrangements and some demographic characteristics, they do not include the full breadth of individual and household characteristics of interest and are generally cross-sectional. In addition, discrepancies

appear across administrative records, electronic transaction records, and different sources of survey data in identifying trends in contingent work and gig employment (Abraham et al., 2013, 2018; Allard and Polivka, 2018; Jackson et al., 2017; Katz and Krueger, 2019). While administrative records and electronic transaction records are valuable sources of information on alternative work arrangements, on their own, they lack information on many demographic, health, and family characteristics of interest, and do not capture employment taking place outside of their own purviews, pointing to the need for better understanding the nature of survey reports of self-employment.

This paper adds to the discussion by examining self-employment activities of older workers in the *Health and Retirement Study* (HRS) and linking these survey data to administrative records.

This paper uses novel restricted-access data on employer names and locations along with respondent narratives on industry and type of work collected in the 2016 HRS to classify self-employment of older adults in the United States into three roles (own/run; manage; independent). Using the classification along with the breadth of information collected in the HRS, this work finds substantial differences in demographic characteristics, work characteristics, income, and benefits, as well as substantial variation in quality of life and retirement expectations by role. Further work linking to administrative records suggests substantial discrepancies between survey responses and administrative records, in line with the findings of Abraham et al. (2018). These findings warrant future analysis to better understand how self-employment roles fit into the changing nature of work and the transition to retirement as well as how different roles contribute to differences in estimates from survey data and administrative records.

Data and Approach

This analysis uses newly-available and non-public information in the 2016 HRS. The HRS is a longitudinal study of a representative sample of approximately 20,000 Americans over age 50 and their spouses. Since 1992 it has been conducted every two years with new cohorts added every six. The HRS asks questions on a breadth of topics including work history, current employment, disability, retirement plans, net worth, income, health insurance and health status.

In addition to publicly-available HRS data, the analysis leverages novel non-public data collected in the 2016 HRS on the employer names and locations for older workers reporting self-employment. For the 1992 through 2014 waves, the HRS collected information on employer names and locations only for respondents reporting that they worked as an employee. Beginning in 2016, this information was also collected for individuals reporting self-employment.

The analysis uses the data on employer names and locations for older workers reporting self-employment in conjunction with non-public narrative descriptions of industry and occupation to classify self-employment reports into a useful framework. The narratives include answers to the following open-ended questions: "What industry do you work in? That is, what does your company do or make?" and "What sort of work do you do?" In 2016, 19.9 percent of respondents reporting working for pay (7.8 percent of all respondents) reported self-employment for their current main employer, nearly all respondents reporting self-employment provided information on the names and addresses of their employers and answers to the open-ended industry and type of work questions.

The approach classifies self-employment reports into three entrepreneurial roles (own/run; manage; independent) along the lines of Light and Munk (2018). Jobs are classified as "own/run" when a respondent explicitly claimed to own the business by using such terms as own, co-own, owner, proprietor, president, or chief executive officer (CEO) or to run the business by using such terms as director, officer, or I run the business. Jobs are classified as "manage" when a respondent explicitly claimed a managerial or executive role by using such terms as boss, manager, supervisor, executive, chief financial officer (CFO), or vice president. Jobs are classified as "independent" when a respondent did not express owning or managing a business or managing people (all other cases). 1,673 self-employment reports were classified according to this approach.

Results

Descriptive Findings. Examining roles across different types of work, as shown in Figure 1, reveals considerable variation. For example, only 5.3 percent of respondents in caregiver roles reported running or owning their own businesses (least ownership), compared to 16.7 percent of practitioners (doctors, lawyers, etc.) (most ownership). Likewise, only 5.3 percent of caregivers reported managing people or a business (least management), compared to

20.8 percent of practitioners (most management). Further, while 89.5 percent of caregivers did not report ownership or managerial responsibilities (most independent), only 62.5 percent of practitioners did not report ownership or managerial responsibilities (least independent). Distributions of roles for other types of work also varied substantially, with, for example, artistic work more likely to be associated with independent roles compared to construction work and retail, which are more likely to be associated with ownership or managerial responsibilities.

Comparing the distribution of the number of workers respondents reported working for their employer across roles in Table 1 shows that independent roles are much more likely to report having only one worker, 61.9 percent as compared to 10.8 percent for managing roles and 33.5 percent for ownership roles. In contrast, managing roles are much more likely to report having 3-9 workers, 52.8 percent as compared to 14.4 percent for independent roles and 33.0 percent for ownership roles. It is important to note that while there are clear differences in the distribution of the number of workers by role, on its own, this information is not sufficient to classify jobs into roles. It is also interesting to note that across all roles, a non-trivial share of respondents report working with more than 10 workers. While for some respondents the number of workers reported could reflect the number of workers in their establishment, for others, this could reflect the number of workers for their employer across all establishments, for example, an Uber driver reporting the total number of Uber workers.

Comparing the employment and compensation characteristics by role in

Table *2* shows that managing roles are more likely to be paid a regular salary or wages while independent roles are less likely to have a spouse doing work for the business. The percent receiving net earnings or profits was not significantly different across roles.

Table 3 shows many differences in individual characteristics across self-employment role classifications. We see differences in demographic characteristics, work characteristics, income, and benefits, as well as substantial variation in quality of life and retirement expectations by role.

First examining the extent to which different roles are associated with different demographic characteristics, the first panel of Table 3 shows distinct differences between the employed and the self-employed and across self-employment roles. Self-employment in general and management and ownership in particular are associated with being male, non-Hispanic, and married, as well as doing other work for pay and increased education. Self-employment in general is associated with being White, a veteran, and older age.

Given the differences in demographic characteristics and nature of different roles, it follows that we may see different economic outcomes across roles. Considering such outcomes, the second panel of Table 3 shows self-employment in general and management and ownership in particular associated with greater household wealth and savings and home ownership. Self-employment in general is associated with having less labor income and more pension income. Among the self-employed, management and ownership are associated with working more hours, having greater labor income, and having any health insurance and own employer-sponsored health insurance.

To better understand the nature of work by role, the third panel of Table 3 shows variation in work demands by role. While the findings show smaller differences in physical demands across role, they show stark differences in work-related stress. Compared to employees, for whom 61.3 percent reported that their job involved much stress, independent roles were less likely to say that their job involved much stress (47.9 percent) while managing roles were more likely to say that their job involved much stress (69.5 percent). Ownership roles were similarly likely as employees to report that their job involved much stress (59.6 percent).

Being interested in knowing the extent to which different roles are associated with differential wellbeing, the fourth panel of Table 3 shows substantial variation in quality of life and retirement expectations by role. Self-employment in general and management and ownership in particular are associated with being more likely to report excellent or very good health. Managing roles were less likely to report being depressed and more likely to report enjoying life. Self-employment is associated with being more likely to say they are retired: 26.2 percent of the employed, 73.3 percent of independent roles, 38.8 percent of managing roles, and 45.0 percent of ownership roles. Self-employment is generally associated with expecting to work longer.

The HRS's Psychosocial and Lifestyle Questionnaire asks further questions to better understand views toward working. Using the data collected in this questionnaire, Table 4 presents difference in attitudes toward working by role. While only a subset of HRS respondents are asked these questions resulting in a smaller analysis sample, some estimates vary starkly across roles. The self-employed are much less likely than the wage employed to say that they would like to leave work, but plan to keep working because they need the money or health insurance. While we see smaller differences across different elements of job satisfaction,

estimate generally show greater satisfaction and overall quality of life associated with self-employment. Among the self-employed, ownership appears to generally be associated with greater work satisfaction and quality of life.

Using employer name information in conjunction with the industry and type of work narratives provides further information on specific sectors of interest. Examining the employer names suggests that 1.1 percent of self-employed HRS respondents reported Internet- or app-based employment and 1.1 percent of self-employed HRS respondents reported direct-sales-related employment. 0.1 percent of employer-employed HRS respondents reported Internet- or app-based employment.

These findings suggest substantial variation in demographic, economic, and job characteristics across roles. Being cross-sectional in nature, these results cannot identify whether these differences reflect selection into different roles or come about through the role. Future longitudinal work will be valuable to identify how characteristics relate to entry into different roles and the outcomes from choosing different roles. Given the differences identified in retirement perceptions and expectation across roles, future work examining the relationship between different self-employment roles and the transition to retirement is also warranted.

Comparison to Administrative Records. To better understand discrepancies across survey and administrative record measures of self-employment, the analysis next compares survey employment reports to reported wage and self-employment earnings across roles. To do this, the HRS data are linked to Social Security Administration (SSA) administrative earnings records. These records are compiled from information provided to SSA by employers and the Internal Revenue Service (IRS) through IRS Form W-2, quarterly earnings records, and annual income tax forms. SSA uses this information to calculate benefit amounts for all types of beneficiaries (Olsen and Hudson, 2009).

This analysis links HRS respondents to their earnings information in SSA's Summary Earnings File (SER) and Detail Earnings File (DER). The self-employment earnings information examined in this analysis come from IRS Form 1040 Schedule SE (self-employment tax). For this exercise, respondents are classified as self-employed in the HRS if they classify their main employment as self-employment or if they report self-employment earnings. Respondents are

classified as self-employed in the administrative records if they either have self-employment earnings in the DER or have self-employment quarters of coverage in the SER.

Results comparing survey and administrative reports are presented in Table 5.[1] Across all roles, workers reporting self-employment were much more likely to have only self-employment earnings: 32.3 percent of independent roles, 27.9 percent of managing roles, and 27.0 percent of ownership roles. They were also more likely to have both self-employment and wage earnings: 6.9 percent of independent roles, 10.0 percent of managing roles, and 6.8 percent of ownership roles. These compare to 4.5 percent of employees that had self-employment and wage earnings and 1.7 percent that had only self-employment earnings and to 0.5 percent of non-workers that had self-employment and wage earnings and 1.3 percent that had only self-employment earnings.

Nonetheless, a substantial share of the self-employed had only wage earnings: 18.6 percent of independent roles, 39.6 percent of managing roles, and 37.8 percent of ownership roles. These compare to 90.5 percent of employees and 10.3 percent of non-workers having only wage earnings.

In addition, a substantial share of the self-employed had no self-employment or wage earnings: 42.3 percent of independent roles, 22.5 percent of managing roles, and 28.4 percent of ownership roles. These compare to 3.4 percent of employees and 88.0 percent of non-workers having no self-employment or wage earnings. Differences in the shares of earnings types across roles, particularly in the share having only wage earnings and the share having no reported earnings suggest meaningful differences in the nature of jobs across roles.

The results of this paper comparing survey reports of self-employment in the HRS to administrative records of self-employment earnings in SSA's SER and DER can be considered in light of the findings of Abraham et al. (2018) who compared survey reports of self-employment in the CPS to administrative records of self-employment earnings in SSA's DER. For the purposes of this analysis, HRS respondents are classified as self-employed if they report positive self-employment wages, profits, or income. While such a comparison is worthwhile, it is important to note that a number of differences exist between the two samples: the HRS focuses on adults age 50 and older and this sample covers 2016 while the CPS sample used by Abraham

[1] These results include all respondents linked to earnings records. Analyses limiting the sample to include only respondents interviewed in 2016 or only including the self-employed who reported positive self-employment income produced quantitatively similar results.

et al. (2018) includes the population age 16 and older and covers 1996-2012. In addition, Abraham et al. (2018) weight their analysis to be population representative, but such weights for the HRS-SSA-linked were not yet available at the time of this study. Nonetheless, despite such sample differences, understanding the general magnitudes of agreement between survey data and administrative records across different surveys is valuable.

To compare the HRS and CPS samples, Table 6 presents comparable estimate to those of Abraham et al. (2018), presented in. Considering the differences in samples, the results are remarkably similar. 97.5 percent of respondents with no self-employment earnings in the HRS also had no self-employment earnings in administrative records, and 34.3 percent of respondents reporting self-employment earnings in the HRS also had self-employment earnings in administrative records, compared to 95.1 percent and 48.9 percent, respectively, in the CPS, by per Abraham et al. (2018). Referring back to Table 5 to examine how this estimate varies across roles, summing the estimates for only self-employment earnings and self-employment and wage earnings reveals that 39.2 percent of independent roles, 37.9 percent of managing roles, and 33.8 percent of ownership roles had a record of self-employment earnings in the SER or DER. The results suggest substantial survey-reported self-employment was not captured in administrative records and was captured as wage earnings, particularly among management and ownership roles.

Discussion

This paper used novel restricted-access data on employer names and locations along with respondent narratives on industry and type of work collected in the 2016 HRS to classify self-employment of older adults in the United States into roles. Using the classification, along with the breadth of information collected in the HRS, this work found substantial differences in demographic characteristics, work characteristics, income, and benefits, as well as substantial variation in quality of life and retirement expectations by role. Further work linking to administrative records suggests substantial discrepancies between survey responses and administrative records, in line with the findings of Abraham et al. (2018).

These findings suggest meaningful differences in self-employment by role, which indicates that the classification outlined by the paper's approach is valuable in identifying important characteristics of self-employment that would otherwise not be available in existing data sources.

Examining the classification roles in light of collected information on self-employment shows that neither one of these HRS survey questions nor a combination of these questions parses out the information identified using the classification such that the classification provides insights beyond what is captured in survey questions.

The classification outlined in this study could be valuable in enhancing existing analyses by exploring heterogeneity by role. One example includes a recent working paper by Munnell, Sanzenbacher, and Walters (2019), who use the HRS to examine patterns in non-traditional employment and effects on well-being. Considering heterogeneity in these patterns by self-employment roles would provide additional insights into the dynamics of self-employment over the life course.

The results of this study provide greater insight into the nature of self-employment and permit future work that more thoroughly considers the causes and implications of differences in self-employment roles. Future work can examine additional characteristics and the potential mechanisms that contribute to these differences. The findings warrant future analysis to better understand how self-employment roles fit into the changing nature of work and the transition to retirement, as well as how different roles contribute to differences in estimates from survey data and administrative records. In particular, future longitudinal work is valuable to identify how characteristics relate to entry into different roles and the outcomes from choosing different roles.

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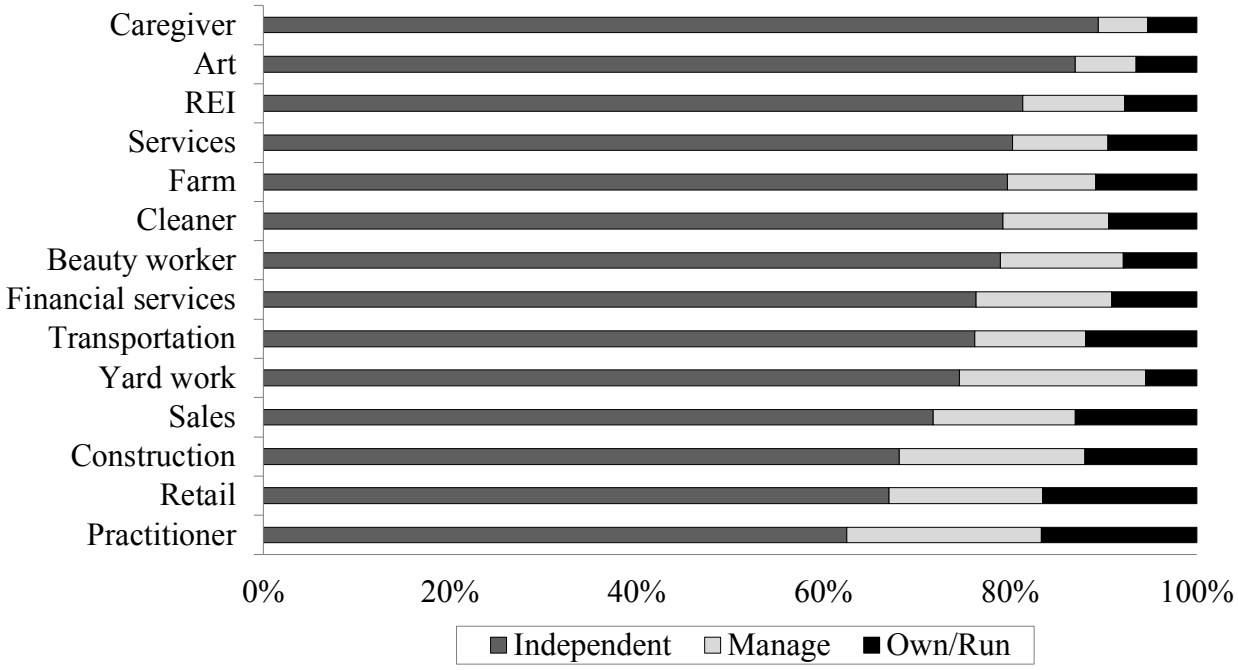
Figure

Figure 1. *Distribution of Classifications by Type of Work*



Source: 2016 HRS self-employment employer names and industry and occupation narratives.

Tables

Table 1. *Number of Workers by Role*

	Independent	Manage	Own/Run
Percent with 1 worker	61.9	10.8	33.5
Percent with 2 workers	14.1	18.2	15.4
Percent with 3-9 workers	14.4	52.8	33.0
Percent with 10+ workers	9.6	18.2	18.1
Observations	1,260	231	182

Source: 2016 RAND HRS Fat File and 2016 HRS self-employment employer names and industry and occupation narratives.

Table 2. *Self-Employment Characteristics by Role*

	Independent		Manage		Own/Run	
	Mean	SE	Mean	SE	Mean	SE
Percent paid regular salary or wages	40.7	1.4	53.7	3.3	40.1	3.6
Percent receiving net earnings or profits	78.3	1.2	79.2	2.7	82.4	2.8
Percent whose spouse does work for business	4.1	0.6	10.0	2.0	10.4	2.3
Observations	1,260		231		182	

Source: 2016 RAND HRS Fat File and 2016 HRS self-employment employer names and industry and occupation narratives.

Table 3. *Respondent and Work Characteristics by Role*

	Employee		Independent		Manage		Own/Run	
	Mean	SE	Mean	SE	Mean	SE	Mean	SE
Demographic characteristics								
Percent Male	44.4	0.6	54.1	1.4	68.0	3.1	64.3	3.6
Percent White	60.4	0.6	70.3	1.3	70.1	3.0	68.7	3.4
Percent Hispanic	19.1	0.5	17.5	1.1	15.6	2.4	10.4	2.3
Percent Married	62.7	0.6	63.8	1.4	70.1	3.0	72.0	3.3
Percent Veteran	10.2	0.4	13.9	1.0	13.0	2.2	13.2	2.5
Percent doing other work for pay	12.6	0.4	13.4	1.0	16.0	2.4	21.4	3.0
Age	58.2	0.1	62.2	0.3	60.9	0.5	60.1	0.6
Years of education	13.4	0.0	13.4	0.1	13.9	0.2	14.3	0.2
Work, income, and benefits								
Weekly hours worked at main job	37.8	0.2	30.0	0.6	42.4	1.3	39.7	1.6
Labor income (000's)	50.5	0.7	18.5	2.1	34.9	8.1	38.3	6.0
Pension income (000's)	2.3	0.1	3.8	0.5	3.8	1.6	2.8	1.2
Household wealth (000's)	263.6	8.2	651.3	52.4	1,113.9	193.1	1,665.5	326.7
Household savings (000's)	41.9	2.1	84.0	9.5	135.8	25.0	204.5	73.7
Any health insurance	88.5	0.4	82.5	1.1	84.0	2.4	87.9	2.4
Own employer HI	56.9	0.6	15.2	1.0	25.1	2.9	24.7	3.2
Spouse employer HI	11.3	0.4	16.6	1.0	16.9	2.5	24.2	3.2
Own home	72.1	0.5	76.6	1.2	83.5	2.4	87.9	2.4
Work characteristics								
Lots of physical effort	36.8	0.6	40.3	1.4	43.8	3.3	39.7	3.7
Lifting heavy loads	16.5	0.4	15.1	1.0	18.8	2.6	20.7	3.0
Stooping/kneeling/crouching	28.4	0.5	30.8	1.3	36.2	3.2	27.9	3.4
Good eyesight	87.5	0.4	84.6	1.0	83.4	2.5	88.8	2.4
Involves much stress	61.3	0.6	47.9	1.4	69.5	3.1	59.6	3.7
Quality of life and retirement expectations								
Excellent or very good self-reported health	45.8	0.6	48.7	1.4	57.0	3.3	58.2	3.7
Percent depressed	8.5	0.3	9.0	0.8	4.6	1.4	8.8	2.2
Percent enjoys life	93.4	0.3	92.0	0.8	97.3	1.1	89.5	2.4
Percent says they're retired	26.2	0.8	73.3	2.7	38.8	5.3	45.0	6.3
Prob. working at 62	56.3	0.5	55.2	1.4	63.3	2.9	68.6	3.1
Prob. working at 65	38.9	0.5	44.8	1.3	49.3	2.7	55.4	3.2
Prob. working at 70	14.7	0.3	22.3	1.0	26.8	2.1	25.7	2.5
Observations	6,968		1,260		231		182	

Source: 2016 RAND HRS Longitudinal File and 2016 HRS self-employment employer names and industry and occupation narratives.

Table 4a. *Work Sentiments by Role*

	Employee		Independent		Manage		Own/Run	
	Mean	SE	Mean	SE	Mean	SE	Mean	SE
Would like to leave work altogether, but plan to keep working because they need the money	81.7	0.9	66.7	2.9	61.0	6.4	57.9	8.1
Would like to leave work altogether, but plan to keep working because they need health insurance	68.2	1.2	34.5	3.2	38.0	6.9	44.1	8.6
Self-rated ability to work (1-10)	8.7	0.0	7.9	0.1	8.1	0.2	8.6	0.3
Self-rated ability to meet physical demands of job (1-10)	8.6	0.0	7.9	0.1	7.9	0.3	8.5	0.2
Self-rated ability to meet mental demands of job (1-10)	8.7	0.0	8.4	0.1	8.6	0.2	8.8	0.3
Self-rated ability to meet interpersonal demands of job (1-10)	8.6	0.0	8.3	0.1	8.3	0.2	8.5	0.3
My work schedule makes it difficult to fulfill personal responsibilities	11.8	0.7	8.1	1.7	6.9	3.4	10.0	4.8
Because of my job, I don't have the energy to do things with my family or other important people in my life	12.7	0.8	9.9	1.8	8.6	3.7	7.5	4.2
Job worries or problems distract me when I am not at work	10.5	0.7	8.4	1.7	13.8	4.6	15.0	5.7
My work leaves me enough time to attend to my personal responsibilities	65.3	1.1	75.3	2.6	72.4	5.9	76.9	6.8
My work gives me energy to do things with my family and other important people in my life	47.0	1.2	56.8	3.0	55.2	6.6	77.5	6.7
Because of my job, I am in a better mood at home	47.8	1.2	60.7	3.0	55.2	6.6	67.5	7.5
All things considered, I am satisfied with my job	87.8	0.8	92.2	1.6	91.4	3.7	97.5	2.5

Source: 2016 RAND HRS Fat File and 2016 HRS self-employment employer names and industry and occupation narratives.

Table 5b. *Comparison of Survey Reports and Administrative Records by Role*

	Employee		Independent		Manage		Own/Run		Non-Worker	
	Mean	SE	Mean	SE	Mean	SE	Mean	SE	Mean	SE
Only self-employment earnings	1.7	0.2	32.3	2.0	27.9	4.3	27.0	5.2	1.3	0.2
Self-employment and wage earnings	4.5	0.4	6.9	1.1	10.0	2.9	6.8	2.9	0.5	0.1
Only wage earnings	90.5	0.5	18.6	1.7	39.6	4.7	37.8	5.7	10.3	0.4
No self-employment or wage earnings	3.4	0.3	42.3	2.1	22.5	4.0	28.4	5.3	88.0	0.5
Observations	3,198		548		111		74		4,781	

Source: 2016 RAND HRS Fat File, 2016 HRS self-employment employer names and industry and occupation narratives, and 2016 Social Security Administration Summary Earnings File and Detail Earnings File.

Table 6. *Comparison of Survey Reports and Administrative Records of Self-Employment Earnings*

	No self-employment earnings in SER/DER	Self-employment earnings in SER/DER
No self-employment earnings in HRS		
Number	7,488	190
Row share	97.5%	2.5%
Column share	91.2%	33.6%
Self-employment earnings in HRS		
Number	719	376
Row share	65.7%	34.3%
Column share	8.8%	66.4%

Source: 2016 RAND HRS Fat File, 2016 HRS self-employment employer names and industry and occupation narratives, and 2016 Social Security Administration Summary Earnings File and Detail Earnings File.

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