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A comparison of pension-relevant preferences, traits, skills, and attitudes between the self-employed and employees in the Netherlands

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Abstract

The group of self-employed persons in the Netherlands is diverse and growing. In this paper, we report on a large survey, including incentivized experiments, among the Dutch working population (N=4,282) to analyze important pension-relevant preferences, traits, skills, and attitudes of the self-employed compared to employees. Our data contain a rich set of measures, including economic preferences, social preferences, personality traits, cognitive skills, financial skills, financial well-being, and attitudes toward pension saving. Data from the survey are enriched with demographic and socio-economic variables from register data provided by Statistics Netherlands. The exploratory analysis investigates differences between employees and the self-employed, where we distinguish between self-employed persons without personnel (solo self-employed), self-employed persons with personnel, and owner-managers.

The results show that compared to employees, the self-employed in the Netherlands indicate having a higher willingness to take risks, are more patient, and are more optimistic (stated preferences). Interestingly, when using measures based on behavior (revealed preferences), differences between the self-employed and employees are smaller or even vanish. Regarding pensions, the self-employed consider themselves more knowledgeable, save extra or intend to do so in the future, feel more responsible for their own pension, but some groups of the self-employed tend to regard solidarity as less important than employees.

There is considerable heterogeneity within the group of self-employed. Compared to other self-employed persons, the solo self-employed characterize themselves as having less financial security and a tendency of lower trust in institutions. The self-employed with personnel exhibit higher negative reciprocity and lower trust in public institutions than other groups of self-employed. Owner-managers tend to show higher negative reciprocity, higher financial literacy, and lower financial anxiety than other groups of self-employed. The self-employed do not differ on average from employees as to other characteristics, such as self-control, overconfidence, and information avoidance.

Samenvatting

Een vergelijking van pensioenrelevante voorkeuren, karaktereigenschappen, vaardigheden en attitudes tussen zelfstandigen en werknemers in Nederland

De groep zelfstandigen in Nederland is divers en groeit. In dit artikel gaan we dieper in op pensioenrelevante voorkeuren, karaktereigenschappen, vaardigheden en houdingen van Nederlandse zelfstandigen in vergelijking tot werknemers. Daarvoor maken we gebruik van een grootschalig steekproefonderzoek onder de Nederlandse beroepsbevolking (N=4,282) en hanteren, naast een enquête, experimentele methoden met echte financiële prikkels. Onze data bevatten een groot aantal kenmerken, waaronder economische en sociale voorkeuren, persoonlijkheidskenmerken, cognitieve vaardigheden, financieel welzijn, en houdingen ten opzichte van pensioensparen. Gegevens uit het onderzoek zijn verrijkt met demografische en sociaaleconomische variabelen uit registergegevens van het Centraal Bureau voor de Statistiek (CBS). De exploratieve analyse heeft betrekking op een vergelijking tussen werknemers en zelfstandigen, waarbij onderscheid wordt gemaakt tussen zelfstandigen zonder personeel (zpz), zelfstandigen met personeel (zmp), en directeur-grotoaandeelhouders (dga).

De resultaten laten zien dat, in vergelijking tot werknemers, zelfstandigen in Nederland aangeven een grotere bereidheid te hebben om risico's te nemen en geduldiger en optimistischer zijn. Het is interessant dat deze verschillen kleiner worden of zelfs verdwijnen als de kenmerken worden gebaseerd op gedrag (*revealed preferences*) in plaats van zelfinschatting (*stated preferences*). Met betrekking tot houdingen ten opzichte van pensioen schatten zelfstandigen zichzelf in als beter geïnformeerd, geven aan meer te doen aan pensioensparen of de intentie daartoe te hebben, en voelen zich meer verantwoordelijk voor hun eigen pensioen, maar sommige groepen zelfstandigen vinden solidariteit minder belangrijk dan werknemers.

Er bestaat een grote heterogeniteit binnen de groep zelfstandigen. In vergelijking met andere zelfstandigen, kenmerken zpz'ers zich door minder financiële zekerheid en een neiging tot lager vertrouwen in instituties. Zmp'ers daarentegen beoordelen zichzelf met hogere negatieve reciprociteit en lager vertrouwen in publieke instituties dan andere groepen zelfstandigen. Dga's tonen hogere negatieve reciprociteit, hebben meer financiële kennis en geven aan zich minder zorgen te maken over hun financiële situatie dan andere zelfstandigen. Zelfstandigen onderscheiden zich echter niet van werknemers ten aanzien van andere kenmerken, waaronder de mate van zelfbeheersing, overmoed en informatievermijding.

1. Introduction

In 2022, nearly one sixth of the Dutch working population is self-employed.¹ Over the past two decades, this share increased from 12 to 16 percent (Statistics Netherlands, 2021), and it is projected to keep increasing over the coming decade (Bosch et al., 2012; SER, 2010; Van Stel & de Vries, 2015). As the number of self-employed keeps rising, there is a growing concern about the socio-economic position of this group, including the adequacy of their retirement savings (e.g., Ministry of Social Affairs and Employment, 2021). The self-employed tend to make little use of traditional pension saving instruments (Zwinkels et al., 2017) and have significantly lower pension replacement rates than employees (de Bresser & Knoef, 2015; Knoef et al., 2017; Knoef et al., 2016; Zwinkels et al., 2017).

In response to this concern, the adequacy of retirement saving by the self-employed is addressed in the proposed pension reform in the Netherlands (Ministry of Social Affairs and Employment, 2022). In particular, the new pension agreement contains a clause that stipulates that pension funds may experiment with simplification of retirement saving for the self-employed in the second pillar. The aim of these experiments is to stimulate the self-employed to build up sufficient retirement savings. This experiment lasts up to four years, after which the effects will be evaluated and decisions will be made about more structural changes. Participation in the experiments by the self-employed is voluntary.

An important aspect for the design and success of these experiments is to understand why the self-employed currently have relative low pension replacement rates compared to employees. Previous studies propose three possible reasons for this (see Table 1). First, current retirement saving options may not be attractive because they are considered too expensive (Ministry of Social Affairs and Employment, 2016), or the administrative burden is too high (Koopmans et al., 2021). Second, the self-employed may simply differ in their preferences for saving or taking risks (Linde, 2019; Ministry of Social Affairs and Employment, 2013).² If these are the reasons for low replacement rates, then policies targeted at stimulating pension saving among the self-employed

1 This statistic is in line with the definition of self-employment used by Statistics Netherlands, which classifies an individual as self-employed if the person works for own account and risk. This includes self-employed without personnel ("zfp"), self-employed with personnel ("zmp"), owner-managers ("dga") with and without personnel, contributing family workers, and other self-employed. Individuals who receive income from both employment and self-employment are classified according to the income source that constitutes the largest share of their income. The working population is comprised of individuals aged 15 to 75.

Table 1. Potential reasons why self-employed persons have lower pension replacement rates compared to employees, as identified in previous literature

Reason	Underlying Causes	Source
Attractiveness of available retirement saving options	Expensiveness	Ministry of Social Affairs and Employment (2016), Linde (2019)
	Administrative burden	Koopmans et al., 2021
Preferences	Saving preferences (i.e., less or more liquid savings)	Ministry of Social Affairs and Employment (2013), Linde (2019)
	Risk preferences	Linde (2019)
Behavioral biases and cognitive limitations	Impatience (present bias)	Ministry of Social Affairs and Employment (2013), Linde (2019)
	Procrastination	Ministry of Social Affairs and Employment (2013), Linde (2019)
	Overconfidence / over-optimism	Linde (2019)
	Loss aversion	Linde (2019)
	Financial Literacy	Ministry of Social Affairs and Employment (2013)

would need to reduce the related costs and the administrative burden, or otherwise make saving more financially attractive to be successful. Policies that aim to stimulate pension saving by the self-employed through nudges and/or changes in the choice architecture (e.g. Linde, 2019) may be less successful because the underlying cause for having lower pension replacements rates is personal preferences or financial and time constraints.³ Third, there could be reasons related to behavioral biases and cognitive limitations (e.g., time inconsistency, procrastination, overconfidence, etc.), in which case policies should be designed to address those biases and limitations (Linde, 2019; Ministry of Social Affairs and Employment, 2013).

The access to sectoral pension funds proposed in the pension agreement provides the self-employed the possibility of a new means of saving. According to the first set of reasons discussed above, the perceived attractiveness of this option would be an important driver for take-up. Access to sectoral pension funds may then be viewed as a good option because such funds tend to have lower costs compared to individual saving options. If the second set of reasons is most relevant, self-employed persons may be hesitant to enter sectoral funds as they may not want their savings being tied

- 2 There is some evidence that suggests that it is not preferences for saving that explain the lower replacement rates of the self-employed. For instance, De Bresser and Knoef (2015) found that the self-employed prefer to have higher rather than lower levels of consumption after retirement compared to employees. Mastrogiacomo (2016) finds that the self-employed have comparable goals and expectations as employees in terms of income after retirement, but that they generally save too little to reach those goals.
- 3 Such proposals could still be beneficial if a different choice architecture helps to reduce the administrative burden.

up in a fund that caters to the possibly quite different preferences of employees. If the third set of reasons related to bounded rationality is most important, the choice architecture that is used to offer the self-employed access to sectoral funds would be an important aspect to take into account.

In this paper, we focus on the second and third sets of reasons – preferences and behavioral biases and cognitive limitations – of the self-employed that could explain the relatively low replacement rates. Previous studies on this topic mostly draw conclusions from international literature that study *employees* in countries where they are responsible for their own pension. These findings are then extrapolated to the Dutch self-employed. Evidence from the literature on entrepreneurship, however, suggests that the self-employed may differ from employees in terms of personality characteristics (e.g., Beugelsdijk & Noorderhaven, 2005; Simoes et al., 2016). An important question is therefore to what extent the employed and the self-employed in the Netherlands differ in terms of preferences and behavioral biases and cognitive limitations. The degree of similarity between employed and self-employed persons determines to what extent findings from employees in other countries can be extrapolated to the Dutch situation. Most studies that focus on behavioral characteristics of the self-employed have considered one or only few preferences and beliefs, and, to the best of our knowledge, no study so far has elicited a comparable comprehensive set of measures as we do, which also focuses on possible heterogeneity across different groups of self-employed individuals.

Using data from a large survey, including incentivized experiments, on the Dutch working population, we conduct an empirical comparison of Dutch employees and self-employed persons. Our data contain a rich set of measures, including economic preferences (risk, higher-order risk, time, ambiguity aversion), social preferences (solidarity, altruism, and reciprocity), personality traits (self-control, trust, overconfidence, optimism, and information avoidance), and cognitive skills (financial literacy, financial management, and cognitive reflection). We also include questions concerning attitudes regarding pension saving and financial well-being. The answers to these questions will help to provide a better understanding why the self-employed tend to have lower retirement replacement rates and are reluctant to participate in pension schemes. Moreover, we take heterogeneity within the group of self-employed persons into account by differentiating between solo self-employed, self-employed with personnel, owner managers, and individuals who are both employed and self-employed.

The results show that compared to employees, the self-employed in the Netherlands state that they are more willing to take risks, more patient, and more optimistic, although there is no noticeable difference when using measures based

on behavior.⁴ Moreover, there is heterogeneity within the group of self-employed persons. The solo self-employed see themselves as having less financial security and a tendency toward lower levels of trust in institutions than other self-employed persons. The self-employed with personnel exhibit higher negative reciprocity and lower trust in public institutions compared to both employees and owner-managers. Owner-managers tend to show higher negative reciprocity, higher financial literacy, and lower financial anxiety than all other groups except the self-employed with personnel. The self-employed do not differ on average from employees on other characteristics considered in this study, such as self-control, overconfidence, information avoidance, and information management.

The remainder of the paper is structured as follows. Section 2 discusses related literature on the determinants of becoming self-employed. Section 3 presents the procedures of our study and the design of experiments and survey items. Section 4 discusses the results, where we compare the various types of self-employed persons with employees. Section 5 discusses implications of the results.

⁴ Self-employed persons are on average somewhat more likely to make risky choices in our incentivized tasks. However, this difference is small and not robust, and appears to be explained by demographic and socio-economic differences between employees and self-employed persons.

2. Related Literature

Most studies comparing employees and self-employed persons do so in the context of the investigation of the determinants of being self-employed. Simoes et al. (2016) provide an overview of both the empirical and the theoretical literature.⁵ They distinguish between seven categories of determinants: (1) basic individual characteristics, (2) family background, (3) personality characteristics, (4) cognitive skills, (5) health condition, (6) migration background, and (7) access to financial resources. We largely follow their taxonomy as we summarize their findings and additional, more recent, literature.⁶

Basic individual characteristics

Empirical research has been conducted into the role of basic individual characteristics as a determinant for self-employment. Simoes et al. (2016) review the effect of sex, age, marital status, and having children. As to sex, it is consistently found that men are more likely to become self-employed than women (e.g., Koellinger et al., 2013; Leoni & Falk, 2010; Stefanović & Stošić, 2012; Verheul et al., 2012). The relationship between age and self-employment is found to exhibit an inverse-U shaped pattern in several longitudinal studies, meaning that people are more likely to become self-employed with increasing age but that the effect reverses at a certain point (Blanchflower, 2004; Caliendo et al., 2014; Georgellis et al., 2005). As to marital status, the majority of studies document a positive relationship between being self-employed and being married (e.g., Ahn, 2010; Eliasson & Westlund, 2013; Özcan, 2011). Finally, there is some evidence that having young children relates positively with self-employment (Lin et al., 2000; Wellington, 2006).

Migration background

Simoes et al. (2016) report that the above-average likelihood of immigrants to become self-employed is a "widely accepted and studied fact" (p. 793). This positive relationship between self-employment and migration background has for instance been documented in the United States for foreign-born individuals (Fairchild, 2009)

5 Following Simoes et al. (2016), we use the term "determinants" of self-employment here, although causality is not always established in the papers that they review.

6 Under the heading "personality characteristics", we distinguish between economic preferences, social preferences, and personality traits, to be more consistent with the remainder of the paper. Moreover, we leave out (2) family background, (5) health condition, and (7) access to financial resources because we do not have data to address these topics in this paper. See Simoes et al. (2016) for a review on those topics.

and in Sweden for non-Western immigrants (Andersson & Hammarstedt, 2011; Joonas, 2010). It is important to note, however, that the majority of these studies (and the studies cited therein) are country-specific and report data from the year 2000 or earlier. The relationship observed may be specific to the country or to the period of investigation. Indeed, critical questions have been posed concerning this apparent stylized fact (Naudé et al., 2017). For example, Constant and Zimmermann (2006) report lower self-employment rates among immigrants compared to native Germans, also using data from 2000. Naveed et al. (2019) study self-employment rates in Canada over the period 1993–2004. They find a higher share of self-employed persons among immigrants in 1993, but the gap narrows over the period studied and the rates converge in 2004. A recent report by OECD/European Commission (2021) shows that self-employment rates for immigrants and natives in European countries are country-specific, with a majority of countries having either higher self-employment rates among natives or similar rates between both groups. The report shows little difference in the percentage of self-employed persons among natives and non-natives in the Netherlands.

Personality characteristics

The role of personality characteristics as a determinant of self-employment has been widely studied (e.g., Brandstätter, 2011; Rauch & Frese, 2007; Simoes et al., 2016). We briefly review empirical evidence on the relationship between self-employment and the personality characteristics that are included in our analysis. These include economic preferences (risk, higher-order risk, time, ambiguity aversion), social preferences (positive and negative reciprocity), and personality traits (self-control, trust, overconfidence, optimism).⁷

Economic preferences

A personality characteristic that has received much attention as a determinant of self-employment is risk preference. The empirical studies reviewed by Simoes et al. (2016) predominantly find that individuals with lower levels of risk aversion are more likely to become self-employed (Ahn, 2010; Brown et al., 2011; Ekelund et al., 2005). However, there is evidence suggesting that this effect needs to be nuanced as results may depend on the measure used (e.g., Astebro et al., 2014; Bokern et al., 2021; Georgalos, 2018) or the theory of decision-making under risk that is assumed

⁷ We also have measures for altruism, solidarity, and information avoidance, but we have not found any other studies that investigate these personality characteristics as a determinant for self-employment.

(e.g., Hamböck et al., 2017). For example, in a sample of Dutch entrepreneurs, managers, and employees, Koudstaal et al. (2016) find that, while entrepreneurs view themselves as less risk-averse than others, they do not make less risk-averse choices than managers in incentivized choice tasks. Charness et al. (2020) do not find any relationship between risk aversion and self-employment for five different measures of risk aversion, including one hypothetical question and four incentivized choice tasks in a representative sample of the Dutch population.

Higher-order risk preferences (prudence and temperance) have been studied far less in the context of self-employment.⁸ Noussair et al. (2013) elicit higher-order risk preferences in a large demographically representative sample of the Dutch population and do not find any relationship with self-employment.

There is some empirical evidence of a relationship between time preferences and self-employment. Andersen et al. (2014) elicit time preferences in an incentivized way in a field experiment with Danish entrepreneurs. Their results suggest that entrepreneurs are on average more patient than the general population.

The evidence concerning the relationship between ambiguity aversion and self-employment is mixed. Using survey questions, some studies find a negative relationship between ambiguity aversion and self-employment (Begley & Boyd, 1987; Chye Koh, 1996; Schere, 1982), while others find no relationship (Babb & Babb, 1992). More recent studies investigate this relationship using incentivized experiments and report no differences between self-employed persons and a control group (Holm et al., 2013; Koudstaal et al., 2016).

Social preferences

The role of positive and negative reciprocity as determinants of being self-employed has been studied before. Positive reciprocity refers to rewarding the kind actions of others, while negative reciprocity relates to punishing the unkind actions of others (Dohmen et al., 2008). Caliendo et al. (2012) study the relationship between reciprocity and self-employment using survey questions in a German representative sample. They find no relationship between self-employment and positive reciprocity, and weak evidence that self-employed persons show lower negative reciprocity than the

8 Higher-order risk preferences determine how prudent and temperate people are under expected utility theory. Prudence can be interpreted as downside risk aversion, which implies precautionary saving. A prudent individual therefore prefers to increase their savings when there is higher background risk (Kimball, 1990; Noussair et al., 2013). Temperance concerns the relationship between portfolio risk and background risk. In particular, a temperate individual will take less investment risk when background risk increases (Kimball, 1993; Noussair et al., 2013).

employed. Their results also suggest a weak positive relationship between negative reciprocity and the probability of exiting self-employment.

Personality traits

The relationship between self-control and self-employment recently started to get attention. Baron et al. (2016) investigate the role of self-control as a mediator for self-efficacy. They find that entrepreneurs with higher self-control are better able at restraining themselves from setting unattainable goals and therefore have better-performing companies. This paper does not directly study self-control as a determinant for self-employment, but it suggests that individuals with higher self-control may be more successful in setting up and maintaining their own business. Van Gelderen et al. (2015) investigate the role of self-control in the intention-action gap of entrepreneurs and find that self-control positively moderates the relation between intention and action. Thus, individuals with higher self-control are more likely to act on their intention to set up their own business than those with lower self-control.

Trust is considered a critical trait for entrepreneurship and consequently has received much attention in the entrepreneurship literature (see Welter, 2012 for a review). However, as discussed by Welter (2012), there are many different definitions of trust, so it has been studied in many forms. We consider studies that investigate either generalized trust (trust in other people) or institutional trust (trust in public, private, or political institutions) as a personality trait and investigate its relationship with self-employment. Nakhaie et al. (2009) use survey questions to measure trust in others in a sample of Canadian minorities and do not find any relationship between trust and self-employment. Caliendo et al. (2012) measure trust in a German representative sample, also using survey questions, and find that entrepreneurs trust other people more and that this positively affects the likelihood of being self-employed. Batsaikhan (2017) measures trust in other people in a sample of Mongolian entrepreneurs, using an incentivized trust game, and finds that there is a positive relationship between trust and business success. Price (2012) measures political trust (trust in government) using survey questions and finds a positive relationship between trust and self-employment among black Americans.

Overconfidence and optimism are two related personality traits that have been studied in the context of self-employment (Frese & Gielnik, 2014; Simoes et al., 2016). Moore and Healy (2008) define three types of overconfidence. First, people may overestimate their own performance, ability, level of control, or chances of success (overestimation). Second, people may believe that they are better than others

(overplacement or better than average).⁹ Third, people may report excessive certainty regarding the accuracy of their beliefs (overprecision). Optimism is a personality trait that is not specific to any project but reflects a general view that “good things will happen” (Astebro et al., 2014). Empirically, however, overconfidence and optimism are hard to distinguish, and the terms have been used interchangeably in previous literature (Astebro et al., 2014). For example, Cooper et al. (1988) asked entrepreneurs to state the odds of their own business succeeding and find that a third of the respondents perceives those odds as 10 out of 10, despite reporting much lower odds for the success of other companies similar to their own. It is not clear whether this measures overconfidence or optimism. Astebro et al. (2014), in reviewing the empirical literature, conclude that there is some evidence suggesting a positive relationship between self-employment and either optimism, overestimation, or overplacement. Evidence on the relationship between self-employment and overprecision is mixed.

Cognitive skills

The empirical results regarding the role of education as a determinant of self-employment are ambiguous. Some studies find a positive relationship between educational attainment and self-employment, whereas others find a negative or no relationship (Simoes et al., 2016; Van Der Sluis et al., 2008), or even a U-shaped relation, meaning that both individuals with low and high levels of education are more likely to become self-employed than those with an intermediate education level (Poschke, 2013). Finally, it has also been suggested that the relation between educational level and self-employment may depend on the country of investigation (Cowling, 2000).

A cognitive skill that only recently started to gain attention as a potential determinant for self-employment is financial literacy. Ćumurović and Hyll (2019), using German survey data, find a positive relationship between financial literacy and being self-employed. They use educational attainment as an instrumental variable to establish causality. Riepe et al. (2020) investigate the role of financial literacy and its interaction with risk aversion, using both Dutch survey data and data from an incentivized experiment. In both samples, they observe a moderating effect of financial literacy on risk aversion. In particular, risk aversion was found to play a role in the likelihood of being self-employed for individuals with below-average financial literacy scores, but no such relationship was found for individuals with above-average financial literacy scores. Struckell et al. (2022) find a positive relationship between

9 Both overestimation and overplacement are related to the Dunning-Kruger effect, which suggests that in particular those with little knowledge or skill for a task are likely to overestimate or overplace their own performance in that task (Kruger & Dunning, 1999).

financial literacy and self-employment in a large representative sample of the United States.

In Table 2 we summarize the empirical literature discussed.

Table 2. Overview of determinants of self-employment

Basic Individual Characteristics
Sex (+ for men), Age (inverse-U shape), Marital status (+ for married), Having children (+)
Migration Background
Migration background (ambiguous)
Economic Preferences
Risk aversion self-assessment (-), Risk aversion choice task (o), Prudence (o), Temperance (o), Patience (+), Ambiguity aversion (o)
Social Preferences
Positive reciprocity (o), Negative reciprocity (-)
Personality Traits
Self-control (+), Personal Trust (+), Institutional Trust (+), Overconfidence (+), Optimism (+)
Cognitive skills
Education (ambiguous), Financial literacy (+)

Note: The table presents the direction of relationship based on previous empirical evidence for a non-exhaustive list of determinants of self-employment.

"o" = no relationship, "-" = negative relationship, "+" = positive relationship.

3. Procedures

The data in this study were collected in a two-wave online survey in May and June of 2020, conducted with the aid of research agency Flycatcher. Statistics Netherlands selected a stratified random sample of 18,000 Dutch employees and 18,000 self-employed persons, who were invited to participate in the study. In total, 4,282 (12%) Dutch residents completed both waves.¹⁰ Data from the survey are enriched with demographic and socio-economic variables from register data of Statistics Netherlands.

Using the register data, we classified 2,224 (52%) as employed, 1,480 (35%) as self-employed, 388 (9%) as both employed and self-employed¹¹, and 190 (4%) as other (e.g., student, retiree, unemployed).¹² We excluded participants classified as other because they are neither employed nor self-employed. Within the group of self-employed persons, we classified 832 (56%) as solo self-employed, 217 (15%) as self-employed with personnel, 302 (20%) as owner-manager, 24 (2%) as contributing family worker, and 105 (7%) as other self-employed. We excluded contributing family workers because that group is too small for meaningful analysis and other self-employed because there is no clear definition of which persons this group consists of. This leaves 3,963 individuals for our analysis.

The two waves of the survey included different sets of incentivized elicitation tasks. One out of five participants, among those who completed both waves, was randomly selected to receive a payment, based on their decisions in one randomly selected task. In addition, one iPad was raffled off among those participants who completed both waves. Earnings ranged from € 0 up to €186 depending on the task. The average earning among the participants selected for payment was €78. Participants were fully informed about these procedures in advance.

In addition to the incentivized experiments, both waves included a battery of survey questions. We asked some of the survey questions in both waves.¹³ In those cases,

¹⁰ We discuss the issue of non-response in Section 4.

¹¹ Participants who earn income both as employee and self-employed are classified as "both".

¹² We classify individuals based on register data from 2019, which is closest to the collection date of the survey data. The sample for the survey was drawn, however, at the end of 2019 using occupation data from 2018, which was the most recent data available at the time. Consequently, a small set of individuals is classified as other, despite the sample being drawn from a population of employed and self-employed persons.

¹³ Two types of survey questions were asked in both waves. First, questions related to the COVID-19 crisis were asked twice in order to capture changes in beliefs or behavior concerning the developments of the pandemic. Second, questions eliciting economic and social preferences were asked twice to reduce measurement error.

we take either the average of both questions or show results for both. We discuss our measures below. Exact wording of the survey questions (in Dutch) and details on the experiments can be found in Appendix A.1 and Appendix A.2, respectively.

Economic preferences

In terms of economic preferences, we measured preferences for risk, higher-order risk, time, and ambiguity aversion.

We elicited risk preferences using both survey questions and incentivized behavioral measures. The self-reported survey questions (stated risk preference) are based on the work by Dohmen et al. (2011). Participants identified themselves as being more or less willing to take risk on an 11-point Likert-scale ranging from "not at all willing to take risks" (0) to "very willing to take risk" (10) in a general domain and several specific life domains. The specific domains included willingness to take risk in their occupation, health, personal finances, and job-related finances. We asked these questions in both waves of the study and average the response for our analysis. For convenience, to facilitate comparison of our risk preference measures, we reverse the scoring of the survey measure by subtracting it from 10 (the largest value on the Likert-scale). Hence, a higher value of our proxy for stated risk preference implies more risk aversion, i.e. a lower willingness to take risk.

The incentivized behavioral measure for risk preferences (revealed risk preference) consisted of five different multiple price lists (MPLs) in the tradition of Holt and Laury (2002). An MPL is a list of binary decision situations. In the case of risk preferences, participants are asked to choose between a safer and riskier lottery in each decision situation. The list is designed such that either the safer or the riskier lottery becomes more attractive when moving down the list. The point where the participant switches to the option that becomes more attractive provides an indication of the risk preference. In this study, participants made ten choices in each MPL. We take the average number of safe lottery choices over all five MPLs as a measure for risk preference. The experiment was conducted in the second wave.

Higher-order risk preferences were elicited using an incentivized behavioral measure identical to the one developed by Noussair et al. (2013). Prudence was elicited with five binary decision situations. In each decision situation, participants were confronted with a lottery that would yield a high or a low outcome with equal probability. Participants were then asked to choose whether they wanted to add a zero-mean lottery to the state of high wealth or to the state of low wealth. Prudent decision-makers would prefer to add the lottery to the state of high wealth. Temperance was elicited with another five binary decision situations. In this case, participants

were confronted with a lottery that would yield the same outcome with equal probability. Participants were then asked to choose whether they wanted to aggregate or disaggregate two identical zero-mean lotteries. Temperate decision-makers would prefer disaggregation of the lotteries. We take the average number of prudent (temperate) choices as a measure for prudence (temperance). The experiment was conducted in the second wave.

Time preferences were elicited using both survey questions and an incentivized behavioral measure. The self-reported survey questions (stated time preference) are based on the work by Falk et al. (2016). Participants identified themselves as being more or less willing to give something up today to benefit from it in the future on an 11-point Likert-scale ranging from "not at all willing" (0) to "very willing" (10). The question was asked twice, once referring to the near future and once referring to the distant future. We asked these questions in both waves of the study and average the response for our analysis. Additionally, we asked participants about their inclination to procrastinate. Participants were asked to indicate to what extent a statement describes them on an 11-point Likert-scale ranging from "does not describe me at all" (0) to "describes me perfectly" (10). The statement elicited whether participants have the tendency to delay tasks, even when they know it would be better to perform them right away. This question was asked in the first wave.

The incentivized behavioral measure for time preferences (revealed time preference) consisted of two different MPLs in the spirit of Coller and Williams (1999). Participants were asked to make nine binary decisions between €75 at an early date (8 weeks from the day of participation) and varying amounts at a later date (16 or 24 weeks from the day of participation). Moving down the list, the amounts at the later date increased, yielding interest rates between 0% and 26.7% over the delay period.¹⁴ The point where the participant switched to the option at the later date provides an indication of their time preference. We take the average number of later date choices over both MPLs as a measure for time preference. The experiment was conducted in the second wave.

Ambiguity aversion was elicited using an incentivized behavioral measure consisting of two MPLs, following Cettolin and Riedl (2019). In both MPLs, participants faced eleven decision situations, where they were asked to choose between a risky lottery with known probabilities of winning and an ambiguous lottery with unknown probabilities of winning. In addition, participants could state indifference between both

¹⁴ The implied annual interest rates range up to 365% for the 8-week delay and up to 116% for the 16-week delay.

lotteries, in which case a fair random device chose between the options for them. The probabilities in the lotteries were displayed on a screen with red and blue balls in urns. The urn representing the risky lottery contained 10 red or blue balls in a known and displayed proportion. The urn representing the ambiguous lottery contained 10 red or blue balls as well, but in an unknown proportion. To indicate this, the urn was made opaque. Participants were informed that the proportion of red and blue balls in the ambiguous urn stayed the same within each MPL as well as between the two MPLs. The proportion of red and blue balls in the risky urn varied from all red in the first row of both MPLs to all blue in the last row. The two MPLs differed only with respect to the color associated with winning the lottery. We take the average number of risky urn choices over both MPLs as a measure for ambiguity aversion. The experiment was conducted in the first wave.

Social preferences

Regarding social preferences, we measured solidarity preferences, altruism, and negative and positive reciprocity.

Solidarity preferences were elicited with a modified version of the solidarity game introduced by Selten and Ockenfels (1998). Participants were anonymously matched with another participant in the study and were confronted with one of the following four possible situations. Either both participants would win an amount of €80 (with 50% probability), or the one participant would win an amount of €80 and the matched other nothing or vice versa (both with 20% probability), or both would receive nothing (with 10% probability). Following Riedl et al. (2019), we then elicited solidarity preferences towards different age groups using the strategy method (Selten, 1967). Specifically, for the situation in which only one participant in the pair received money (and, thus, the other nothing), they had to decide how much they were willing to transfer to (a) a young participant (between 16 and 34 years), (b) a middle-aged participant (between 35 and 64 years), and (c) an old participant (65 years and older). Here, we take the average amount of money sent over all age groups as a measure for solidarity preferences. The experiment was conducted in the first wave.

Altruism and positive and negative reciprocity were elicited using non-incentivized survey questions based on Falk et al. (2016). For altruism, participants self-identified as being more or less willing to give to a good cause without expecting anything in return on an 11-point Likert-scale ranging from "not at all willing" (0) to "very willing" (10). The question was asked in both waves of the study. We use the average response for our analysis. For reciprocity, participants were asked to indicate to what extent a statement describes them on an 11-point Likert-scale from "does

not describe me at all" (0) to "describes me perfectly" (10). The statements elicited whether they are willing to return a favor (positive reciprocity) and are willing to take revenge (negative reciprocity) for a nice and mean act, respectively, towards them. Both questions were only asked in the first wave.

Personality traits

Regarding personality traits, we measured self-control, trust, optimism, overconfidence, and information avoidance.

Self-control was elicited using the brief self-control scale (Tangney et al., 2004). This scale is composed of 13 statements that aim to capture how much self-control individuals have (e.g., whether they can resist temptation or instead have a hard time breaking bad habits). Participants were asked to indicate the extent to which each statement reflected how they typically are on a 5-point Likert-scale ranging from "not at all" (1) to "very much" (5). The items are converted into an aggregate scale by taking the sum of all responses. The questions were asked in the second wave.

Generalized and institutional trust were elicited with survey questions used by Statistics Netherlands (2012). Generalized trust was elicited with a binary question that asked participants whether they think people can be trusted in general. The binary answer possibilities stated "you cannot be careful enough" (0) or "most people can be trusted" (1). Institutional trust was measured by asking participants to indicate their level of trust in several institutions on a 4-point Likert-scale ranging from "no trust at all" (1) to "a lot of trust" (4). The institutions included the justice system, police, the Lower House of Parliament, banks, pension funds, large companies, the scientific community, the current pension system, and the future pension system.¹⁵ We conducted an exploratory factor analysis to investigate whether we can reduce the number of variables into fewer factors. We find clear evidence in favor of three factors: trust in public institutions (justice system, police, Lower House of Parliament, and the scientific community), trust in private institutions (banks and large companies), and trust in the pension system (pension funds, current pension system, future pension system). The individual items are converted into scales by taking the sum of the individual items in each factor. The questions were asked in the second wave.

15 In the last item, participants could also answer "I don't know". At the time of the survey, a change in the Dutch pension system was under discussion. We therefore asked about trust in both the old and the new system as one question would have been ambiguous. However, as there was no decision on the new system at the time of the survey, participants are likely to be unsure about what this would look like, which is why we included the option "I don't know".

We define overconfidence as overestimating one's own performance (Moore & Healy, 2008). To measure it, participants were asked to judge, after answering a set of financial literacy questions (see "Cognitive skills" below), how many they thought they had correct. In particular, we take the number of answers that the participant thinks to have correct and subtract the actual number of correct answers. A positive score therefore indicates overconfidence and a negative score underconfidence. These questions were only asked in the second wave.

Optimism was elicited using an adapted version of the Scale Optimism-Pessimism-2 (SOP2; Kemper et al., 2017). This scale consisted of two questions where participants were asked to indicate how optimistic and pessimistic they are in general on an 11-point Likert-scale ranging from "not optimistic at all" (0) to "very optimistic" (10) and "not pessimistic at all" (0) to "very pessimistic" (10).¹⁶ The answers are converted into a scale by reversing the scores of the pessimism question and then taking the sum of both responses. The questions were only asked in the second wave.

Information avoidance was elicited using an adapted version of the information preferences scale proposed by Ho, Hagmann & Loewenstein (2018, 2021). This scale consists of three items that each describe a hypothetical scenario.¹⁷ Participants were asked for each scenario to indicate how likely they were to seek information on a 5-point Likert-scale ranging from "definitely would seek to avoid information" (1) to "definitely would seek information" (5). The answers are converted into a scale by reversing the scoring and taking the sum of all responses. The questions were asked in the second wave.

Cognitive skills

Regarding cognitive skills, we measured financial literacy, financial management, and cognitive reflection.

Financial literacy was measured using five multiple-choice financial literacy questions (Lusardi & Mitchell, 2014). The questions assessed participants' knowledge on financial matters concerning interest rates, stocks, and mortgages. The number of correct answers is used as a measure of financial literacy. The questions were asked in the second wave.

Financial management was elicited using a scale proposed by Antonides et al. (2011). This scale consists of four statements that aim to capture how individuals deal with financial affairs (e.g. paying bills on time). Participants were asked to indicate

16 The original scale by Kemper et al. (2017) used a 7-point Likert-scale.

17 The original scale by Ho et al. (2021) consists of 13 items.

the extent to which they agreed with each statement on a 5-point Likert-scale ranging from "totally disagree" (1) to "totally agree" (5). The items are converted into a scale by taking the sum of all responses. The questions were asked in the second wave.

Cognitive reflection was measured using the cognitive reflection test (CRT; Frederick, 2005). Frederick (2005) designed the CRT to measure a type of cognitive ability. It consists of three questions with a seemingly intuitive answer that is wrong. Individuals who take time to reflect on their answer may eventually realize that the intuitive answer is wrong and should be able to provide the correct answer. Cognitive reflection thus measures participants' ability to override an intuitive heuristic. The number of correct answers is used as a measure of cognitive reflection. The questions were asked in the second wave.

Pension

The survey contained several questions concerning participants' attitudes toward pension saving. We first asked people to assess how much knowledge they have about their own pension on a 5-point Likert-scale ranging from "very little" (1) to "very much" (5). Then we asked whether participants saved over and above their regular pension savings in the past months (yes/no) and whether they planned to do so in the next year, this on a scale from "very unlikely" (1) to "very likely" (5).¹⁸ The other items were statements where people had to indicate the extent to which they agreed with each statement on a 5-point Likert-scale ranging from "totally disagree" (1) to "totally agree" (5). The statements concerned the perceived own responsibility to accrue sufficient pension income (responsibility), the importance of solidarity for pensions (solidarity), the perceived influence they have on their own pension (influence), and whether they enjoy thinking about their pension (engagement).

Financial well-being

Regarding financial well-being, we measured financial anxiety and financial security. Financial anxiety was elicited using a scale proposed by Fünfgeld and Wang (2009). The scale consists of four statements that aim to capture the anxiety that an individual may experience when dealing with financial matters (e.g. feeling unsure

¹⁸ Note that these questions rely on an individual's own regular pension savings. Results from these questions should be interpreted accordingly. It does not allow us to conclude anything about the amount of pension savings or how these pension savings compare to other individuals. We can merely infer whether an individual saved more or intended to save on top of what they perceive to be their regular pension savings.

regarding the jargon used by financial experts). Participants were asked to indicate the extent to which they agreed with each statement on a 5-point Likert-scale ranging from "totally disagree" (1) to "totally agree" (5). The answers are converted into one scale by taking the sum of all responses. The questions were asked in the second wave.

Financial security was elicited using a scale proposed by Strömbäck et al. (2017). The scale consists of three questions that aim to capture how confident individuals are with respect to their financial affairs (e.g. confidence about their financial situation). Participants were asked to indicate the extent to which they agreed with each statement on a 5-point Likert-scale ranging from "totally disagree" (1) to "totally agree" (5). The answers are converted into one scale by taking the sum of all responses. The questions were asked in the second wave.

We summarize our measures in Table 3.

Table 3. Summary of measured preferences, traits, skills, and attitudes

Attitudes	Measure	Source
Economic Preferences		
Risk Preference	MPL Average # Safe Choices	Holt and Laury (2002)
Risk General	Likert Item (0-10)*	Dohmen et al. (2011)
Risk Occupation	Likert Item (0-10)*	Dohmen et al. (2011)
Risk Health	Likert Item (0-10)*	Dohmen et al. (2011)
Risk Personal Finances	Likert Item (0-10)*	Dohmen et al. (2011)
Risk Job Finances	Likert Item (0-10)*	Dohmen et al. (2011)
Prudence	MPL # Prudent Choices	Noussair et al. (2013)
Temperance	MPL # Temperate Choices	Noussair et al. (2013)
Time Preference	MPL Average # Patient Choices	Coller and Williams (1999)
Time Near Future	Likert Item (0-10)*	Falk et al. (2016)
Time Far Future	Likert Item (0-10)*	Falk et al. (2016)
Procrastination	Likert Item (0-10)	Falk et al. (2016)
Ambiguity Aversion	MPL Average # Risky Urn Choices	Cettolin and Riedl (2019)
Social Preferences		
Solidarity	Solidarity Game Average € Sent	Riedl et al. (2019)
Altruism	Likert Item (0-10)*	Falk et al. (2016)
Positive Reciprocity	Likert Item (0-10)	Falk et al. (2016)
Negative Reciprocity	Likert Item (0-10)	Falk et al. (2016)
Personality Traits		
Self-Control	13 Item Likert Scale (1-5)	Tangney et al. (2004)
Personal Trust	Binary Question	Statistics Netherlands (2012)
Trust in Public Institutions	4 Item Likert Scale (1-4)	Statistics Netherlands (2012)
Trust in Private Institutions	2 Item Likert Scale (1-4)	Statistics Netherlands (2012)
Trust in Pension Institutions	3 Item Likert Scale (1-4)	Statistics Netherlands (2012)
Optimism	2 Item Likert Scale (0-10)	Kemper et al. (2015)
Overconfidence	Overestimation Financial Literacy	Anderson et al. (2017)
Information Avoidance	3 Item Likert Scale (1-5)	Ho et al. (2020)

Cognitive Skills		
Financial Literacy	5 Financial Literacy Questions	Lusardi and Mitchell (2014)
Financial Management	4 Item Likert Scale (1-5)	Antonides et al. (2011)
Cognitive Reflection	3 Item Cognitive Reflection Test	Frederick (2005)
Pension Attitudes		
Pension Knowledge	Likert Item (1-5)	-
Pension Extra Saving	Binary Question	-
Pension Saving Intention	Likert Item (1-5)	-
Pension Responsibility	Likert Item (1-5)	-
Pension Solidarity	Likert Item (1-5)	-
Pension Influence	Likert Item (1-5)	-
Pension Engagement	Likert Item (1-5)	-
Financial Well-Being		
Financial Anxiety	4 Item Likert Scale (1-5)	Fünfgeld and Wang (2009)
Financial Security	3 Item Likert Scale (1-5)	Strömbäck et al. (2017)

* These items were asked in both waves; the responses are averaged.

4. Results

In this section, we discuss characteristics of the self-employed population and compare them to employees. We first present descriptive statistics of our sample and discuss whether and how these differ when using weights to correct for response bias. Thereafter, we present mean comparisons for the preferences, traits, skills, and attitudes that we elicited. We summarize the findings in Section 5 and discuss implications of the results.

Demographic differences: weighted and unweighted data

Statistics Netherlands provided a stratified random sample of 18,000 employees and 18,000 self-employed persons, representative of the Dutch employee and self-employed populations. Of the invited individuals, 4,282 (12%) completed both waves of the study (of which 3,963 are considered in this study). In order to correct for non-response, Statistics Netherlands developed linear weighting models, separately for employees and self-employed persons, taking into account several important demographic variables.¹⁹

Table 4 reports the demographic composition of our sample using weighted and unweighted data. It shows that the demographic composition of the total sample does not differ strongly for weighted and unweighted data. The most notable difference is that there is an underrepresentation of non-native individuals, in particular those with a non-Western background. When looking at sub-groups we can observe some dissimilarity, though small, between the weighted and unweighted data. For example, there is a slight overrepresentation of males in our sample of employees, while there is a small underrepresentation of males in our sample of self-employed persons with personnel. Consequently, differences in characteristics between these two groups may be less pronounced when looking at the unweighted data compared to the weighted data, if the characteristic correlates with sex. In order to take into account the non-response of our survey, we continue our analysis with weighted data.²⁰

Comparing the demographic characteristics of employees and different types of self-employed persons, we can make several observations. First, the proportion of

19 The weighting model is based on the following demographic characteristics: migration background, sex*age, type of household*place in household, wealth, residence*urbanity, and income.

20 Using weighted data is recommended when the purpose of a study is to provide descriptive statistics of a population (Solon et al., 2015).

Table 4. Demographic composition of the weighted and unweighted sample

	Total %	Employee %	Both %	Self-Employed		
				Solo %	With personnel %	Owner manager %
Sex						
Male	55 [58]	53 [56]	52 [52]	62 [59]	65 [60]	85 [84]
Female	45 [42]	47 [44]	48 [48]	38 [41]	35 [40]	15 [16]
Marital Status						
Not married	38 [34]	39 [37]	36 [35]	35 [31]	27 [25]	23 [20]
Married	52 [57]	50 [54]	57 [57]	54 [57]	68 [70]	67 [69]
Widowed	1 [1]	1 [1]	0 [0]	0 [0]	1 [0]	1 [1]
Divorced	9 [9]	10 [8]	7 [7]	11 [11]	4 [5]	9 [10]
Children						
0	35 [33]	36 [36]	34 [34]	33 [31]	21 [20]	15 [15]
1	14 [13]	14 [13]	13 [13]	14 [14]	13 [13]	14 [13]
2	35 [36]	35 [36]	34 [32]	32 [33]	38 [40]	43 [44]
3 or more	16 [19]	15 [15]	19 [22]	21 [22]	28 [28]	27 [28]
Migration Background						
Native	80 [87]	79 [86]	85 [87]	80 [86]	79 [87]	87 [91]
Western	11 [9]	11 [9]	8 [9]	11 [10]	4 [5]	8 [7]
Non-Western	9 [4]	10 [5]	6 [4]	9 [4]	17 [8]	4 [2]
Education Level						
Low	5 [4]	5 [4]	4 [4]	4 [4]	3 [2]	2 [2]
Middle	26 [22]	28 [25]	21 [19]	21 [19]	24 [22]	13 [13]
High	46 [48]	44 [46]	55 [55]	51 [51]	37 [35]	52 [51]
Unknown	24 [26]	23 [25]	19 [22]	24 [26]	36 [41]	33 [34]
	Mean (SE)	Mean (SE)	Mean (SE)	Mean (SE)	Mean (SE)	Mean (SE)
Age						
Weighted	45 (0.2)	45 (0.3)	46 (0.6)	50 (0.4)	50 (0.6)	53 (0.5)
Unweighted	[47] (0.2)	[44] (0.3)	[45] (0.8)	[48] (0.5)	[48] (0.7)	[51] (0.5)
Income*						
Weighted	38,169 (406)	37,040 (465)	39,585 (1,060)	39,046 (843)	48,171 (1,988)	56,075 (4,364)
Unweighted	[41,800] (482)	[39,356] (493)	[41,934] (1,217)	[40,190] (841)	[51,421] (2,109)	[57,145] (3,949)
N						
Weighted	6,754,042	5,327,245	532,066	561,397	151,623	181,711
Unweighted	[3,963]	[2,224]	[388]	[832]	[217]	[302]

Note: Numbers without [with] square brackets represent weighted [unweighted] data. Percentages do not always add up to 100 due to rounding. *Spendable household income corrected for size and composition of the household. Not married refers to "single" and Married includes registered partnerships.

men compared to women is larger in all groups of self-employed persons. The share of men and women is particularly disproportional for owner-managers. Second, the proportion of married individuals and individuals with at least one child is higher in all groups of self-employed persons. These differences are particularly pronounced for self-employed persons with personnel and owner-managers. Finally, the self-employed are on average older than employees. All of these observations are consistent with previous literature. In addition, in line with the report by the OECD/European Commission (2021), there are few differences in the share of natives when comparing employees with self-employed persons without personnel and those with personnel. Among owner-managers, however, the share of natives is larger. Moreover, looking at the proportion of individuals with a Western and non-Western migration background, we observe that the share of non-Western is much larger among self-employed persons with personnel.

Empirical Strategy

For purposes of comparing elicited preferences, traits, skills, and attitudes of employees and self-employed persons we take the following approach. We present weighted mean comparisons separately for economic preferences, social preferences, personality traits, cognitive skills, pension attitudes, and financial well-being. To test for differences in means, we run a linear or logistic regression (depending on the type of variable of interest), with occupational status as independent variable. In addition, we re-run the regression with demographic control variables to investigate whether the achieved results are robust to controlling for differences in demographic composition.²¹ For both analyses, we report the p -value of a joint significance (Wald) test of factors in the occupational status variable. In case the joint significance test implies that at least two groups are different at the 5% significance level, we conduct pairwise comparisons using Wald tests with a Benjamini-Hochberg (BH) correction for multiple hypothesis testing (Benjamini & Hochberg, 1995).²² A table with all

21 We control for sex, age, standardized spendable household income, marital status, migration background, education level, and number of children.

22 A correction for multiple hypothesis testing is applied because we test a large number of exploratory hypotheses in this section. The Benjamini-Hochberg correction is widely used in cases where a large number of hypotheses are simultaneously tested (Chen et al., 2017). In this procedure, the p -values of all hypotheses tests are ranked in ascending order and the formula $[m/(m+1-i)]*p$ is applied to each individual p -value, where m is the number of hypothesis tests, i is the rank of the p -value, and p is the p -value. The corrected p -values can then be compared to the critical value (Benjamini & Hochberg, 1995).

BH-corrected p -values can be found in Appendix A.3.²³ When discussing the results below, the reported p -values refer to BH-corrected p -values from pairwise comparisons on the weighted data without control variables, unless otherwise specified.

Economic preferences

Table 5 reports weighted means for economic preferences. Previous studies mostly find that individuals with lower levels of stated risk aversion are more likely to be self-employed, whereas for revealed preference measures the results are mixed. Our comparisons largely corroborate these results. All types of self-employed persons report on average a greater willingness to take risk (be less risk-averse) than employees in general, in their occupation, their health, and job-related and personal finances ($p=0.028$, $p=0.006$ for self-employed persons with personnel and owner-managers, respectively, in the health domain, and $p<0.001$ otherwise). Importantly, these differences are also economically relevant. The solo self-employed and self-employed with personnel are about one third of a standard deviation more willing to take risk in general compared to employees; for owner-managers this is more than half of a standard deviation. As one would expect, the differences between employees and self-employed persons are particularly pronounced for risk-taking in the domains of occupation and job-related finances, and least pronounced in the health domain. Individuals who are categorized as both employed and self-employed are between employees and self-employed without and with personnel in all domains.

In accordance with their self-reported willingness to take risk, the self-employed make on average slightly less risk-averse choices compared to employees in the revealed preference measure (Risk MPL: $p=0.005$, $p=0.155$, $p=0.039$ for solo self-employed, self-employed with personnel, and owner-managers, respectively). The economic significance is relatively small, however, with a difference of about only one tenth of a standard deviation. Moreover, the difference between owner-managers and employees is not robust to adding controls, and none of the differences are robust to using unweighted data. These results imply that, if anything, there is only

²³ As a robustness check, we also run regressions with and without control variables on the unweighted data and perform a Kruskal Wallis (KW) test on the unweighted data. The KW test is a non-parametric test for comparing whether multiple independent samples come from the same distribution (Kruskal & Wallis, 1952). In case the KW test implies that at least two groups are different, we conduct pairwise comparisons using Dunn's test with BH correction for multiple hypothesis testing (Benjamini & Hochberg, 1995; Dinno, 2015; O. J. Dunn, 1964). Table A.2 reports BH-corrected p -values for all tests. We only discuss results from our robustness checks in case of major discrepancies between test results.

Table 5. Mean comparison for economic preferences

	Total (SD)	Employee	Both	Solo	Self-Employed		Wald Test	
					With personnel	Owner-manager	p-value	With control p-value
Risk MPL	5.9 (1.67)	5.9	5.9	5.7	5.7	5.7	0.004	0.035
Risk General	4.5 (1.80)	4.6	4.3	4.0	3.9	3.6	<0.001	<0.001
Risk Occupation	4.5 (2.13)	4.7	4.3	3.6	3.9	3.4	<0.001	<0.001
Risk Health	6.6 (2.21)	6.7	6.4	6.2	6.2	6.3	<0.001	<0.001
Risk Personal Finances	5.7 (2.15)	5.9	5.5	5.0	4.7	4.6	<0.001	<0.001
Risk Job Finances ⁺	5.5 (2.25)	5.7	5.4	4.7	4.4	4.0	<0.001	<0.001
Prudence	4.3 (1.27)	4.3	4.4	4.4	4.1	4.2	0.035	0.048
Temperance	3.3 (1.74)	3.3	3.3	3.2	3.1	2.9	0.009	0.360
Time MPL	4.3 (2.58)	4.3	4.6	4.2	4.1	4.3	0.261	0.467
Time Near Future	7.0 (1.64)	6.9	7.1	7.2	7.2	7.5	<0.001	<0.001
Time Distant Future	6.2 (1.80)	6.1	6.2	6.5	6.5	6.5	<0.001	<0.001
Time Procrastination	4.8 (2.55)	4.8	5.0	5.0	4.8	4.5	0.017	0.058
Ambiguity MPL	5.2 (1.07)	5.2	5.2	5.2	5.2	5.2	0.931	0.955

Note: Participants were given the option "not applicable". In total, 329 (8%) gave this answer, of which 278 (85%) were employees, 24 (7%) both, 20 (6%) solo self-employed, 3 (1%) self-employed with personnel, and 4 (1%) owner-manager. These participants are not taken into account for this measure.

a very small difference in elicited risk preferences between employees and self-employed persons using incentivized tasks.

For higher-order risk preferences, Noussair et al. (2013) did not find a relationship between self-employment and prudence and temperance in a sample of Dutch self-employed persons. In our sample, the differences are also small. Specifically, when comparing the average number of prudent choices of employees with subgroups of self-employed persons, no significant differences are found ($p=0.168$, $p=0.135$, and $p=0.930$ for solo self-employed, self-employed with personnel, and owner-managers, respectively). Regarding temperance, there is some evidence that owner-managers are more temperate compared to employees ($p=0.001$), but this difference is not robust to adding controls.

Similar to risk preferences, we find a discrepancy between stated and revealed measures for time preferences. All self-employed persons indicate being more patient on average than employees in both the short and the long run ($p=0.072$, $p=0.009$

for self-employed with personnel in the near future and distant future respectively, $p=0.001$ for owner-managers in the distant future, and $p<0.001$ otherwise). Yet, employees and self-employed persons exhibit a similar average number of patient choices in the incentivized choice task. This result contrasts with Andersen et al. (2014), who find that entrepreneurs in their Danish sample choose more patiently in a revealed preference measure.²⁴ When it comes to procrastination, the solo self-employed tend to be slightly more prone to this than employees ($p=0.061$), but this difference is not robust to adding controls. The self-employed with personnel and owner-managers view themselves in a similar way as employees do ($p=1.000$ and $p=0.120$ respectively).

Consistent with previous literature, no differences are found for revealed ambiguity aversion.

Social Preferences

Table 6 reports weighted means for our measures of social preferences. We observe little difference between employees and self-employed persons in the elicited social preferences. In particular, the self-employed send on average similar amounts of money to others in the solidarity game and rate themselves similar in terms of altruism and positive reciprocity. This is consistent with Caliendo et al. (2012), who also found no relationship between positive reciprocity and self-employment in a sample of German self-employed persons.

Interestingly, we do find that self-employed with personnel and owner-managers rate themselves about one third of a standard deviation higher on negative reciprocity compared to employees ($p<0.001$ in both). In contrast, the solo self-employed rate

Table 6. Mean comparison for social preferences

	Total (SD)	Self-Employed				Wald Test		
		Employee	Both	Solo	With personnel	Owner-manager	p-value	With control p-value
Solidarity	26.1 (16.41)	25.9	26.2	27.1	26.1	25.9	0.636	0.751
Altruism	6.3 (2.22)	6.2	6.5	6.4	6.2	6.4	0.087	0.218
Positive Reciprocity	8.4 (1.58)	8.4	8.4	8.5	8.5	8.5	0.126	0.098
Negative Reciprocity	3.4 (2.44)	3.4	3.5	3.5	4.2	4.3	<0.001	<0.001

²⁴ A potential explanation is that Andersen et al. (2014) conduct structural estimations of the discount factor, also controlling for curvature of the utility function, while we simply compare the average number of patient choices of participants.

themselves similar to employees ($p=0.680$), but clearly lower than self-employed with personnel ($p=0.001$) and owner-managers ($p<0.001$). The former result contrasts with the finding of Caliendo et al. (2012), who report weak evidence of lower negative reciprocity among German self-employed persons.

Personality traits

Table 7 reports the weighted means for the personality traits that we elicited. Owner-managers rate themselves slightly higher on self-control compared to employees ($p=0.004$), but the difference is not robust to adding controls. The solo self-employed and employed with personnel rate themselves almost identical to employees ($p=1.000$ for both). This result contrasts with previous literature, which provides indirect evidence of a positive relationship between self-control and self-employment.

In terms of generalized trust, we observe that the solo self-employed ($p=0.002$) and owner-managers ($p=0.013$) are on average more likely to trust others than employees, but these differences are not robust to adding controls. This finding is in line with results found in a sample of Canadian minorities (Nakhaie et al., 2009) but contrasts with the positive relationship found in a German representative sample (Caliendo et al., 2012).

Concerning institutional trust, we see interesting differences in patterns among the types of self-employed persons. The solo self-employed indicate having lower trust on average in public and private institutions than employees ($p=0.055$ and $p<0.001$, respectively). The difference is most pronounced for trust in private institutions, with a difference of about one third of a standard deviation. The solo self-employed also have lower trust on average in pension institutions ($p<0.001$ when adding controls). The self-employed with personnel indicate having lower trust on average in public institutions ($p=0.032$) but are otherwise similar to employees ($p=0.271$ for trust in private institutions). Owner-managers indicate having slightly lower trust on average in private institutions compared to employees ($p=0.023$), but this difference is not robust to adding controls. Otherwise, owner-managers are very similar to employees.

Previous empirical evidence suggests that there is a positive relationship between self-employment and optimism. In line with this, we find that the self-employed rate themselves as more optimistic than employees ($p=0.009$, $p=0.003$, and $p<0.001$ for solo self-employed, self-employed with personnel, and owner-managers, respectively). Moreover, there are clear differences between the types of self-employed persons. The solo self-employed rate themselves about one tenth of a standard deviation higher than employees, while this amounts to more than one third of a standard deviation for owner-managers.

Table 7. Mean comparison for personality traits

	Total (SD)	Employee	Both	Solo	Self-Employed		Wald Test	
					With personnel	Owner-manager	p-value	With control p-value
Self-Control	44.9 (7.43)	44.9	44.8	45.0	45.4	46.3	0.042	0.693
Personal Trust*	0.75 (0.43)	0.73	0.80	0.80	0.77	0.81	0.001	0.314
Trust in Public Institutions	12.0 (1.98)	12.1	12.0	11.8	11.7	12.3	0.003	0.003
Trust in Private Institutions	4.8 (1.22)	4.8	4.7	4.4	4.7	4.6	<0.001	<0.001
Trust in Pension Institutions ⁺	6.7 (1.91)	6.8	6.8	6.5	6.6	6.9	0.058	<0.001
Optimism	13.7 (3.14)	13.6	13.7	14.0	14.4	14.8	<0.001	<0.001
Overconfidence	-0.06 (1.02)	-0.08	-0.04	-0.04	0.07	-0.01	0.398	0.571
Information Avoidance	7.6 (2.64)	7.6	7.4	7.6	7.7	7.7	0.750	0.662

Note: *This is a binary variable, so a logistic regression was run. +Participants were given the option "don't know" for one of the variables included in this scale. In total 791 (20%) gave this answer, of whom 442 (56%) were employees, 86 (11%) both, 170 (21%) solo self-employed, 46 (6%) self-employed with personnel, and 47 (6%) owner-manager. These participants are not taken into account for this measure.

Similarly, empirical evidence to date suggests that there is a positive relationship between self-employment and overconfidence. Overall, we do not find much overconfidence in our sample, meaning that participants in our survey do not under- or overestimate the number of financial literacy questions that they have correct. Hence, it is perhaps not surprising that we also do not find differences between employees and the self-employed in terms of overconfidence.²⁵ A possible explanation for the discordance with previous literature is that our measure specifically addresses overestimation of financial literacy and that individuals are relatively good at estimating how many of these type of questions they have correct.

No differences between employed and self-employed persons are found for information avoidance.

Cognitive skills

Table 8 reports the weighted means for our measures of cognitive skills. Empirical evidence to date suggests that there is a positive relationship between self-employment and financial literacy. In line with this, we find that owner-managers score higher

²⁵ This result corroborates a recent study by Gignac (2022), which does not find support for the so-called Dunning-Kruger effect – which would suggest that individuals who score lower are more prone to overestimate their own ability – for financial literacy in a US sample.

Table 8. Mean comparison for cognitive skills

	Total (SD)	Employee	Both	Solo	Self-Employed		Wald Test	
					With personnel	Owner manager	p-value	With control p-value
Financial Literacy	3.3 (1.18)	3.3	3.3	3.5	3.4	4.0	<0.001	<0.001
Financial Management	16.6 (2.46)	16.6	16.7	16.4	16.5	16.7	0.177	0.038
Cognitive Reflection	1.5 (1.11)	1.5	1.5	1.6	1.5	1.8	<0.001	0.454

on financial literacy compared to employees ($p < 0.001$). They also score higher than the other types of self-employed persons ($p < 0.001$ for all). The solo self-employed score slightly higher than employees do ($p < 0.001$), but this difference is not robust to adding controls.

Owner-managers also score higher on the Cognitive Reflection Test (CRT) compared to employees ($p < 0.001$) and other types of self-employed persons ($p = 0.003$, $p = 0.006$ compared to solo self-employed and self-employed with personnel, respectively). However, this difference is not robust to adding control variables. In particular, controls for sex and educational level contribute substantially to explaining differences in cognitive reflection, in line with previous literature (e.g., Frederick, 2005).

Concerning self-assessed financial management, we find that the solo self-employed rate themselves slightly lower than employees ($p = 0.006$ when adding controls). No differences are observed between employees and other types of self-employed persons.

Pension Attitudes

Table 9 reports the weighted means for attitudes toward pension saving. There are clear differences between employees and the self-employed in these attitudes. All types of self-employed persons indicate that they have more knowledge, responsibility, and influence concerning their own pension, are more likely to have saved on top of their regular pension, and are more likely to have the intention to save on top of their regular pension ($p < 0.001$ for all). Interestingly, the ratings of solo self-employed and self-employed with personnel regarding pension engagement are only higher than those of employees when not controlling for other variables ($p = 0.026$ and $p = 0.001$, respectively, without controls and $p = 1.000$ and $p = 0.256$, respectively, with controls). Concerning the importance of solidarity for pensions, the solo self-employed do not differ from employees ($p = 1.000$), whereas the self-employed with personnel and owner-managers deem it less important ($p < 0.001$ for both).

Table 9. Mean comparison for pension attitudes

	Self-Employed						Wald Test	
	Total (SD)	Employee	Both	Solo	With personnel	Owner manager	p-value	With control p-value
Pension Knowledge	2.9 (1.02)	2.8	2.9	3.2	3.2	3.5	<0.001	<0.001
Pension Extra Saving*	0.25 (0.43)	0.22	0.27	0.35	0.43	0.37	<0.001	<0.001
Pension Extra Saving Intention	2.3 (1.45)	2.2	2.5	2.7	2.8	2.7	<0.001	<0.001
Pension Responsibility	3.6 (0.98)	3.5	3.7	4.0	4.1	4.3	<0.001	<0.001
Pension Solidarity	3.5 (0.97)	3.6	3.5	3.6	3.3	3.3	<0.001	<0.001
Pension Influence	3.5 (1.04)	3.5	3.6	3.9	3.9	4.2	<0.001	<0.001
Pension Engagement	3.4 (1.04)	3.4	3.5	3.5	3.6	3.9	<0.001	<0.001

Note: *This is a binary variable, so a logistic regression was run.

Financial Well-Being

Table 10 reports the weighted means for financial well-being. Financial well-being is found to differ across different types of self-employed persons. Owner-managers are substantially less anxious about financial matters compared to employees and all other groups ($p < 0.001$ for all). The other types of self-employed persons do not substantially differ from employees ($p = 0.077$ or higher). In terms of financial security, the solo self-employed rate themselves as less financially secure compared to employees, self-employed persons with personnel, and owner-managers ($p < 0.001$ for all). Owner-managers rate themselves as more financially secure compared to employees ($p < 0.001$), but this difference is not robust to adding controls.

Table 10. Mean comparison for financial well-being

	Self-Employed						Wald Test	
	Total (SD)	Employee	Both	Solo	With personnel	Owner manager	p-value	With control p-value
Financial Anxiety	9.5 (2.94)	9.5	9.5	9.5	9.1	8.2	<0.001	0.002
Financial Security	11.1 (2.38)	11.2	11.0	10.7	11.5	11.7	<0.001	<0.001

5. Discussion

The number of self-employed persons in the Netherlands is growing. At the same time, there is a growing concern about the retirement saving adequacy of the Dutch self-employed. They tend to make little use of traditional pension savings instruments and have significantly lower pension replacement rates than other people in the Netherlands.

In this paper, we compare the Dutch self-employed population to employees, on a wide range of individual characteristics that could play a role in explaining these lower pension replacement rates. To get at these characteristics we use both incentivized experimental measures and stated (i.e., self-assessed) preferences and attitudes. The results show both differences and similarities between these two groups, as well as within the different subgroups of self-employed persons. Table 11 provides an overview of characteristics where at least one type of self-employed persons differs on average from employees.

All types of self-employed workers indicate having a higher willingness to take risks (i.e., are less risk averse), being more patient, and being more optimistic compared to employees. The differences are most pronounced for owner-managers and least pronounced for the solo self-employed. These characteristics may provide some explanation for the lower observed pension replacement rates. Individuals who indicate having a higher willingness to take risk may be willing to forego saving now if they expect higher earnings later, even if this future income is uncertain. The higher levels of optimism among the self-employed may reinforce this effect because they may be more likely to expect the future to be favorable. At the same time, more patience implies that the self-employed are willing to give up current income for future benefit. For many self-employed persons, however, there is also a trade-off between setting money aside for pension and investing it in their own business.

It is important to note that the differences between self-employed persons and employees observed in our self-assessment risk preference and patience measures are not corroborated by our incentivized behavioral measures. Discrepancy between stated and revealed measures is a common finding in the literature for risk preferences (e.g., Astebro et al., 2014; Bokern et al., 2021; Georgalos, 2018), and it has also been observed for time preferences (Bauer et al., 2020). A potential reason for this is that stated preferences relate to an individual's self-perceived behavior whereas incentivized behavioral measures relate to actual behavior (e.g., Ajzen & Fishbein, 1977). Whether stated preferences are more relevant than revealed preferences, or instead vice versa, is up for discussion and depends on the question at hand. In case

of pension saving it also depends on the objective of the pension fund. If pension funds or other pension product providers want to attract the self-employed to build up pension in the second or third pillar, it may be best to take into account perceived preferences as this may lead to offering a product that the self-employed like. On the other hand, if stated and revealed preferences diverge and the overall welfare of the client is the major objective, then a more paternalistic attitude might be warranted. That suggests that consideration should be given to revealed preferences as the basis of pension policy.

For other characteristics, we observe quite some heterogeneity within the group of self-employed persons. The solo self-employed characterize themselves as having slightly lower financial management skills and lower financial security compared to employees. In addition, they have lower trust in public, private, and pension institutions. The self-employed with personnel characterize themselves as having higher negative reciprocity and lower trust in public institutions. Owner-managers report higher levels of negative reciprocity, lower trust in private institutions, higher financial literacy, and lower financial anxiety. The self-employed do not differ on average from employees on other characteristics considered in this study, including self-control, overconfidence, information avoidance, and information management.

These results have several implications. First, extrapolating results from employees to the self-employed population appears to be warranted on the many characteristics where we do not find significant differences. Second, the lower score on financial security for the solo self-employed compared to employees and other types of self-employed persons reinforces the concern about the socio-economic position of this group and suggest that it is a perceived inability rather than unwillingness that prevents pension saving. On the contrary, the self-employed with personnel and owner-managers rate themselves similar or slightly lower on financial anxiety and similar or slightly higher on security compared to employees. Third, the lower levels of trust in institutions, especially among the solo self-employed, should be addressed to increase the willingness of this group to join second pillar pension savings in a pension fund voluntarily. In this respect, it would be interesting for future research to investigate whether the level of trust differs between different types of pension institutions (e.g., between regular pension funds and *Premie Pensioen Instellingen*, PPIs).

In our survey, we also asked participants several questions concerning their pension. Table 12 provides an overview of these questions and summarizes how the self-employed differ from employees. Given that in the Netherlands the self-employed are responsible for their own pension, it does not come as a surprise that they

Table 11. Summary of main results on economic preferences, social preferences, cognitive skills, and financial well-being

	Solo	Self-Employed with Personnel	Owner-Manager
Risk Aversion (stated)	-	-	-
Patience (stated)	+	+	+
Negative Reciprocity	0	+	+
Trust in Public Institutions	-	-	0
Trust in Private Institutions	-	0	-
Trust in Pension Institutions	-	0	0
Optimism	+	+	+
Financial Literacy	0	0	+
Financial Management	-	0	0
Financial Anxiety	0	0	-
Financial Security	-	0	0

Note: The table summarizes measures for which we find differences on average between self-employed and employees. "0" = no difference compared to employees, "-" = lower compared to employees", "+" = higher compared to employees.

Table 12. Summary of main results on pension attitudes

	Solo	Self-Employed with Personnel	Owner-Manager
Pension Knowledge	+	+	+
Pension Extra Saving	+	+	+
Pension Extra Saving Intention	+	+	+
Pension Responsibility	+	+	+
Pension Solidarity	0	-	-
Pension Influence	+	+	+
Pension Engagement	0	0	+

Note: the table summarizes measures for which we find differences on average between self-employed and employees. "0" = no difference compared to employees, "-" = lower compared to employees", "+" = higher compared to employees.

indicate having more knowledge about their pension, a higher sense of responsibility, and the feeling that they have more influence, compared to employees. The self-employed are also more likely to have saved on top of their regular pension savings and more likely to have the intention to do so in the near future. The solo self-employed and self-employed with personnel do not differ, however, from employees on how much they wish to think about their pension.

What consequences these attitudes have for actual pension saving behavior is an open question. At face value, the observations that the self-employed have more pension knowledge, feel more responsibility for their pension, and are more likely

to save on top of their regular pension savings seem at odds with the empirical observation that the self-employed have lower pension replacement rates compared to employees. However, given that most employees do not make an active decision concerning their pension, these observations do not necessarily imply that the self-employed have higher pension savings compared to employees. Further research is required to draw conclusions about the impact of the observed pension attitudes and their implications for replacement rates.

In conclusion, the results presented in this paper provide direct evidence of characteristics of the self-employed and how these compare to employees in the Netherlands. An important open question is to what extent these characteristics can explain the lower replacement rates observed and to what extent this can be explained by deliberate decision-making or by financial or time constraints. In addition, we see great heterogeneity among the self-employed. An interesting avenue for further research is to investigate this heterogeneity at a more granular level, such as by sector.

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Appendix

A.1 Survey Questions

Table A.1. Exact wording of survey questions

Trait	Wording
Risk	<i>Scale: 0 "totaal niet bereid om risico's te nemen" – 10 "zeer bereid om risico's te nemen"</i>
General	Kunt u mij vertellen in hoeverre u, in het algemeen, bereid of niet bereid bent om risico's te nemen? (R)
Domain-specific	Mensen kunnen zich in verschillende situaties anders gedragen. Hoe beoordeelt u uw bereidheid om risico's te nemen in de volgende zaken
Occupation	... in uw persoonlijke financiële zaken? (R)
Health	... in uw werkgerelateerde financiële zaken? (R)
Personal Finances	... in uw beroepskeuze? (R)
Job Finances	... in uw gezondheid? (R) [met optie "niet van toepassing"]
Time	<i>Scale: 0 "totaal niet bereid om zo te handelen" – 10 "zeer bereid om zo te handelen"</i>
	We vragen u nu naar uw bereidheid om op een bepaalde manier te handelen. In welke mate bent u bereid om
Near Future	... iets op te geven dat vandaag voordelig is voor u, om er dan in de nabije toekomst meer van te kunnen profiteren?
Distant Future	... iets op te geven dat vandaag voordelig is voor u, om er dan in de verre toekomst meer van te kunnen profiteren?
Time (cont'd)	<i>Scale: 0 "beschrijft me in het geheel niet" – 10 "beschrijft me perfect"</i>
	Hoe goed beschrijft ieder van de volgende uitspraken u als persoon?
Procrastination	... Ik heb de neiging om taken uit te stellen, zelfs al weet ik dat het beter zou zijn ze meteen uit te voeren.
Altruïsm	<i>Scale: 0 "totaal niet bereid om zo te handelen" – 10 "zeer bereid om zo te handelen"</i>
	We vragen u nu naar uw bereidheid om op een bepaalde manier te handelen. In welke mate bent u bereid om
	... aan een goed doel te geven zonder daarvoor iets terug te verwachten?
Reciprocity	<i>Scale: 0 "beschrijft me in het geheel niet" – 10 "beschrijft me perfect"</i>
	Hoe goed beschrijft ieder van de volgende uitspraken u als persoon?
Positive	Wanneer iemand me een dienst bewijst, ben ik bereid tot een wederdienst.
Negative	Als ik zeer onrechtvaardig wordt behandeld, neem ik wraak bij de eerste gelegenheid, zelfs als er kosten aan verbonden zijn.
Self-Control (α = 0.80)	<i>Scale: 1 "beschrijft me in het geheel niet" – 5 "beschrijft me perfect"</i>
	Hoe goed beschrijft ieder van de volgende uitspraken u als persoon?
	1) Ik kan verleidingen goed weerstaan.
	2) Ik vind het moeilijk om slechte gewoontes te doorbreken. (R)
	3) Ik ben lui. (R)
	4) Ik zeg ongepaste dingen. (R)
	5) Ik doe, als ze leuk zijn, bepaalde dingen die slecht voor me zijn. (R)
	6) Ik weiger dingen die slecht voor me zijn.
	7) Ik zou willen dat ik meer zelfdiscipline had. (R)
	8) Mensen zouden zeggen dat ik een ijzeren zelfdiscipline heb.
	9) Plezier weerhoudt mij er soms van om mijn werk af te krijgen. (R)
	10) Ik heb moeite om mij te concentreren. (R)
	11) Ik kan efficiënt werken richting langetermijndoelen.
	12) Soms kan ik mijzelf er niet van weerhouden iets te doen, zelfs als ik weet dat het verkeerd is. (R)
	13) Ik handel vaak zonder over alle mogelijke alternatieven na te denken. (R)

Personal Trust	<i>Binary: 0 "Men kan niet voorzichtig genoeg zijn" – 1 "De meeste mensen zijn wel te vertrouwen"</i>
	Vindt u over het algemeen dat de meeste mensen wel te vertrouwen zijn of vindt u dat men niet voorzichtig genoeg kan zijn in de omgang met mensen?
Institutional Trust	<i>Scale: 1 "helemaal geen vertrouwen" – 4 "heel veel vertrouwen"</i>
	Wilt u voor elk van de volgende instellingen aangeven hoeveel vertrouwen u hierin heeft? Hoeveel vertrouwen heeft u in
Public	... het rechtssysteem ... de politie ... de Tweede Kamer ... de wetenschap
Private	... banken ... grote bedrijven
Pension	... pensioenfondsen ... het huidige Nederlandse pensioenstelsel ... het toekomstige Nederlandse pensioenstelsel [met optie "ik weet het niet"]
Optimism	<i>Scale: 0 "totaal niet optimistisch" – 10 "zeer optimistisch"</i>
	Optimisten zijn mensen die de toekomst met vertrouwen tegemoet zien en vooral verwachten dat er goede dingen gebeuren. Hoe zou u uzelf beschrijven? Hoe optimistisch bent u in het algemeen?
Optimism (cont'd)	<i>Scale: 0 "totaal niet pessimistisch" – 10 "zeer pessimistisch"</i>
	Pessimisten zijn mensen die de toekomst vol twijfel tegemoet zien en vooral verwachten dat er slechte dingen gebeuren. Hoe zou u zichzelf omschrijven? Hoe pessimistisch bent u in het algemeen? (R)
Overconfidence	<i>Scale: 0 "0 vragen correct" – 5 "5 vragen correct"</i>
	In vraag 1-5 heeft u antwoorden gegeven op vragen over financiële kennis. Hoeveel van de vijf vragen denkt u correct te hebben beantwoord?
Information Avoidance ($\alpha = 0.57$)	<i>Scale: 1 "Zou absoluut informatie zoeken" – 5 "Zou absoluut vermijden informatie te zoeken"</i>
	1) Informatie kan nuttig zijn. Sommige mensen zoeken zulke informatie, zelfs als het ertoe kan leiden dat ze er achteraf spijt van hebben, terwijl anderen zulke informatie vermijden. Hoe zou u uzelf omschrijven? 2) Tien jaar geleden had u de mogelijkheid om te investeren in twee fondsen: Fonds A en Fonds B. In de afgelopen tien jaar heeft u al uw spaargeld geïnvesteerd in Fonds A. Zou u willen weten hoeveel u gehad zou hebben als u in Fonds B had geïnvesteerd? 3) U kocht een elektronisch apparaat in een winkel tegen een redelijke, maar niet bijzonder lage prijs. Er is een maand verstreken en het artikel kan niet meer worden geretourneerd. U ziet hetzelfde apparaat in een andere winkel weergegeven met een bordje met 'UITVERKOOP'. Wilt u weten voor welke prijs u het had kunnen kopen?
Financial Literacy 1	<i>Multiple Choice: meer dan €102, precies €102, minder dan €102, weet ik niet, ik wil het niet zeggen</i>
	Veronderstel dat u 100 euro op een spaarrekening heeft en de rente is 2% per jaar. Hoeveel denkt u dan dat u na vijf jaar op de spaarrekening heeft, ervan uitgaande dat u al het geld op deze rekening laat staan?
Financial Literacy 2	<i>Multiple Choice: meer dan vandaag, precies hetzelfde als vandaag, minder dan vandaag, weet ik niet, ik wil het niet zeggen</i>
	Veronderstel dat de rente op uw spaarrekening 1% per jaar is en de inflatie is gelijk aan 2% per jaar. Zou u dan na 1 jaar meer, precies hetzelfde of minder kunnen kopen dan vandaag met het geld op de rekening?
Financial Literacy 3	<i>Multiple Choice: waar, niet waar, weet ik niet, ik wil het niet zeggen</i>
	Waar of niet waar? Een aandeel van een bedrijf geeft normaal gesproken een zekerder rendement dan een beleggingsfonds dat alleen in aandelen belegt.

Financial Literacy 4	<i>Multiple Choice: waar, niet waar, weet ik niet, ik wil het niet zeggen</i>
	Waar of niet waar? Een hypotheek met 15 jaar looptijd vereist hogere maandelijkse afbetalingen dan een hypotheek met 30 jaar looptijd, maar de rente over de totale looptijd is lager.
Financial Literacy 5	<i>Multiple Choice: die zouden moeten stijgen, die zouden moeten dalen, die zouden gelijk moeten blijven, weet ik niet, ik wil het niet zeggen</i>
	Als de rente stijgt, wat zou er dan moeten gebeuren met de obligatiekoersen?
Financial Management ($\alpha = 0.61$)	<i>Scale: 1 "helemaal oneens" – 5 "helemaal mee eens"</i>
	1) Ik beheer mijn dagelijkse financiële zaken op een zeer georganiseerde manier. 2) Ik ben zeer impulsief en vaak verleid tot het kopen van dingen waar ik eigenlijk geen geld voor heb. (R) 3) Ik betaal mijn rekeningen nooit te laat. 4) Ik betaal liever artikelen op krediet dan te wachten tot ik het geld heb gespaard. (R)
Cognitive Reflection 1	<i>Open Question (correct answer is 5)</i>
	Een knuppel en een bal kosten samen €110. De knuppel kost €100 meer dan de bal. Hoeveel kost de bal?
Cognitive Reflection 2	<i>Open Question (correct answer is 5)</i>
	Als vijf machines er vijf minuten over doen om vijf onderdelen te maken, hoe lang doen honderd machines er dan over om honderd onderdelen te maken?
Cognitive Reflection 3	<i>Open Question (correct answer is 47)</i>
	Een vijver is deels bedekt met waterleliebladeren. Iedere dag verdubbelt de hoeveelheid waterleliebladeren. Als het 48 dagen kost voordat de waterleliebladeren de hele vijver bedekt hebben, hoe lang kost het dan voordat de waterleliebladeren de halve vijver bedekt hebben?
Pension	<i>Scale: 1 "Zeer weinig" – 5 "Zeer Veel"</i>
Knowledge	Hoeveel kennis heeft u over uw eigen pensioen?
Pension (cont'd)	<i>Binary: 0 "nee" – 1 "ja"</i>
Extra Saving	Hebt u de afgelopen maanden, naast uw reguliere pensioenopbouw, extra gespaard voor uw pensioen?
Pension (cont'd)	<i>Scale: 1 "Zeer onwaarschijnlijk" – 5 "Zeer waarschijnlijk"</i>
Saving Intention	Hoe waarschijnlijk is het dat u het komende jaar, naast uw reguliere pensioenopbouw, extra gaat sparen voor uw pensioen?
Pension (cont'd)	<i>Scale: 1 "helemaal mee oneens" – 5 "helemaal mee eens"</i>
Responsibility	Het is vooral mijn eigen verantwoordelijkheid om te zorgen dat ik voldoende pensioen opbouw.
Solidarity	Bij pensioenen vind ik solidariteit (het rechtvaardig verdelen van de lasten en lasten tussen arm en rijk, jong en oud) belangrijk.
Influence	Ik heb geen invloed op mijn eigen pensioenopbouw. (R)
Engagement	Ik denk liever niet na over mijn pensioenopbouw. (R)
Financial Anxiety ($\alpha = 0.74$)	<i>Scale: 1 "helemaal mee oneens" – 5 "helemaal mee eens"</i>
	1) Ik word onzeker van de vaktaal van financiële experts. 2) Ik maak mij zorgen over financiële en geldzaken. 3) Ik stel financiële beslissingen meestal uit. 4) Na het maken van een beslissing, ben ik onzeker of ik de juiste beslissing heb gemaakt.

Financial Security ($\alpha = 0.83$)	<i>Scale: 1 "helemaal mee oneens" – 5 "helemaal mee eens"</i>
	1) Ik voel me comfortabel in mijn huidige financiële situatie. 2) Ik heb vertrouwen in mijn financiële toekomst. 3) Ik heb er vertrouwen in dat ik genoeg geld heb om mezelf te onderhouden tijdens mijn pensioen, ongeacht hoe lang ik leef.

Note: R indicates that the scale is reversed. α refers to Cronbach's alpha (Cronbach, 1951), which provides an indication of scale reliability.

A.2 Experiments

Table A.2. Risk MPL 1

Lottery	Option A				EV(A)	Option B				EV(B)
	p	€	p	€		p	€	p	€	
#1	0.1	€80	0.9	€64	€66	0.1	€154	0.9	€4	€19
#2	0.2	€80	0.8	€64	€67	0.2	€154	0.8	€4	€34
#3	0.3	€80	0.7	€64	€69	0.3	€154	0.7	€4	€49
#4	0.4	€80	0.6	€64	€70	0.4	€154	0.6	€4	€64
#5	0.5	€80	0.5	€64	€72	0.5	€154	0.5	€4	€79
#6	0.6	€80	0.4	€64	€74	0.6	€154	0.4	€4	€94
#7	0.7	€80	0.3	€64	€75	0.7	€154	0.3	€4	€109
#8	0.8	€80	0.2	€64	€77	0.8	€154	0.2	€4	€124
#9	0.9	€80	0.1	€64	€78	0.9	€154	0.1	€4	€139
#10	1	€80	0	€64	€80	1	€154	0	€4	€154

Note: The columns labeled EV(A) and EV(B) list the expected value of the related lottery.

Table A.3. Risk MPL 2

Lottery	Option A				EV(A)	Option B				EV(B)
	p	€	p	€		p	€	p	€	
#1	0.1	€99	0.9	€41	€47	0.1	€134	0.9	€19	€31
#2	0.2	€99	0.8	€41	€53	0.2	€134	0.8	€19	€42
#3	0.3	€99	0.7	€41	€58	0.3	€134	0.7	€19	€54
#4	0.4	€99	0.6	€41	€64	0.4	€134	0.6	€19	€65
#5	0.5	€99	0.5	€41	€70	0.5	€134	0.5	€19	€77
#6	0.6	€99	0.4	€41	€76	0.6	€134	0.4	€19	€88
#7	0.7	€99	0.3	€41	€82	0.7	€134	0.3	€19	€100
#8	0.8	€99	0.2	€41	€87	0.8	€134	0.2	€19	€111
#9	0.9	€99	0.1	€41	€93	0.9	€134	0.1	€19	€123
#10	1	€99	0	€41	€99	1	€134	0	€19	€134

Note: The columns labeled EV(A) and EV(B) list the expected value of the related lottery.

Table A.4. Risk MPL 3

Lottery	Option A				EV(A)	Option B				EV(B)
	p	€	p	€		p	€	p	€	
#1	1	€52			€52	0.5	€30	0.5	€130	€80
#2	1	€57			€57	0.5	€30	0.5	€130	€80
#3	1	€63			€63	0.5	€30	0.5	€130	€80
#4	1	€68			€68	0.5	€30	0.5	€130	€80
#5	1	€73			€73	0.5	€30	0.5	€130	€80
#6	1	€78			€78	0.5	€30	0.5	€130	€80
#7	1	€82			€82	0.5	€30	0.5	€130	€80
#8	1	€88			€88	0.5	€30	0.5	€130	€80
#9	1	€94			€94	0.5	€30	0.5	€130	€80
#10	1	€101			€101	0.5	€30	0.5	€130	€80

Note: The columns labeled EV(A) and EV(B) list the expected value of the related lottery.

Table A.5. Risk MPL 4

Lottery	Option A				EV(A)	Option B				EV(B)
	p	€	p	€		p	€	p	€	
#1	1	€39			€39	0.33	€20	0.67	€110	€80
#2	1	€46			€46	0.33	€20	0.67	€110	€80
#3	1	€56			€56	0.33	€20	0.67	€110	€80
#4	1	€64			€64	0,33	€20	0,67	€110	€80
#5	1	€70			€70	0,33	€20	0,67	€110	€80
#6	1	€75			€75	0,33	€20	0,67	€110	€80
#7	1	€79			€79	0,33	€20	0,67	€110	€80
#8	1	€84			€84	0,33	€20	0,67	€110	€80
#9	1	€88			€88	0,33	€20	0,67	€110	€80
#10	1	€93			€93	0,33	€20	0,67	€110	€80

Note: The columns labeled EV(A) and EV(B) list the expected value of the related lottery.

Table A.6. Risk MPL 5

Lottery	Option A				EV(A)	Option B				EV(B)
	p	€	p	€		p	€	p	€	
#1	0.5	€90	0.5	€70	€80	0.5	€103	0.5	€35	€69
#2	0.5	€90	0.5	€70	€80	0.5	€109	0.5	€35	€72
#3	0.5	€90	0.5	€70	€80	0.5	€115	0.5	€35	€75
#4	0.5	€90	0.5	€70	€80	0.5	€122	0.5	€35	€79
#5	0.5	€90	0.5	€70	€80	0.5	€128	0.5	€35	€82
#6	0.5	€90	0.5	€70	€80	0.5	€131	0.5	€35	€83
#7	0.5	€90	0.5	€70	€80	0.5	€138	0.5	€35	€87
#8	0.5	€90	0.5	€70	€80	0.5	€153	0.5	€35	€94
#9	0.5	€90	0.5	€70	€80	0.5	€170	0.5	€35	€103
#10	0.5	€90	0.5	€70	€80	0.5	€186	0.5	€35	€111

Note: The columns labeled EV(A) and EV(B) list the expected value of the related lottery.

Table A.7. Prudence MPL

Lottery	Option A				Option B			
	p	€	p	€	p	€	p	€
#1	0.5	€90 + [0.5*€20;0.5*-€20]	0.5	€60	0.5	€90	0.5	€60 + [0.5*€20;0.5*-€20]
#2	0.5	€90 + [0.5*€10;0.5*-€10]	0.5	€60	0.5	€90	0.5	€60 + [0.5*€10;0.5*-€10]
#3	0.5	€90 + [0.5*€40;0.5*-€40]	0.5	€60	0.5	€90	0.5	€60 + [0.5*€40;0.5*-€40]
#4	0.5	€135 + [0.5*€30;0.5*-€30]	0.5	€90	0.5	€135	0.5	€90 + [0.5*€30;0.5*-€30]
#5	0.5	€65 + [0.5*€20;0.5*-€20]	0.5	€35	0.5	€65	0.5	€35 + [0.5*€20;0.5*-€20]

Table A.8. Temperance MPL

Lottery	Option A				Option B			
	p	€	p	€	p	€	p	€
#1	0.5	€90 + [0.5*€30;0.5*-€30]	0.5	€90 + [0.5*€30;0.5*-€30]	0.5	€90	0.5	€90 + [0.5*€30;0.5*-€30] + [0.5*€30;0.5*-€30]
#2	0.5	€90 + [0.5*€30;0.5*-€30]	0.5	€90 + [0.5*€10;0.5*-€10]	0.5	€90	0.5	€90 + [0.5*€30;0.5*-€30] + [0.5*€10;0.5*-€10]
#3	0.5	€90 + [0.5*€30;0.5*-€30]	0.5	€90 + [0.5*€50;0.5*-€50]	0.5	€90	0.5	€90 + [0.5*€30;0.5*-€30] + [0.5*€50;0.5*-€50]
#4	0.5	€30 + [0.5*€10;0.5*-€10]	0.5	€30 + [0.5*€10;0.5*-€10]	0.5	€30	0.5	€30 + [0.5*€10;0.5*-€10] + [0.5*€10;0.5*-€10]
#5	0.5	€70 + [0.5*€30;0.5*-€30]	0.5	€70 + [0.5*€30;0.5*-€30]	0.5	€70	0.5	€70 + [0.5*€30;0.5*-€30] + [0.5*€30;0.5*-€30]

Table A.9. Time MPL 1

Lottery	Option A		Option B	
	€	Delay Period	€	Delay Period
#1	€75	8 weeks	€75	16 weeks
#2	€75	8 weeks	€76	16 weeks
#3	€75	8 weeks	€77	16 weeks
#4	€75	8 weeks	€79	16 weeks
#5	€75	8 weeks	€81	16 weeks
#6	€75	8 weeks	€84	16 weeks
#7	€75	8 weeks	€87	16 weeks
#8	€75	8 weeks	€91	16 weeks
#9	€75	8 weeks	€95	16 weeks

Table A.10. Time MPL 2

Lottery	Option A		Option B	
	€	Delay Period	€	Delay Period
#1	€75	8 weeks	€75	24 weeks
#2	€75	8 weeks	€76	24 weeks
#3	€75	8 weeks	€77	24 weeks
#4	€75	8 weeks	€79	24 weeks
#5	€75	8 weeks	€81	24 weeks
#6	€75	8 weeks	€84	24 weeks
#7	€75	8 weeks	€87	24 weeks
#8	€75	8 weeks	€91	24 weeks
#9	€75	8 weeks	€95	24 weeks

Table A.11. Ambiguity MPL 1

Lottery	Option A	Indifference	Option B
	Urn A composition (balls)		Urn composition (balls)
#1	10 red ; 0 blue	0,5*option A ; 0,5 option B	Unknown
#2	9 red ; 1 blue	0,5*option A ; 0,5 option B	Unknown
#3	8 red ; 2 blue	0,5*option A ; 0,5 option B	Unknown
#4	7 red ; 3 blue	0,5*option A ; 0,5 option B	Unknown
#5	6 red ; 4 blue	0,5*option A ; 0,5 option B	Unknown
#6	5 red ; 5 blue	0,5*option A ; 0,5 option B	Unknown
#7	4 red ; 6 blue	0,5*option A ; 0,5 option B	Unknown
#8	3 red ; 7 blue	0,5*option A ; 0,5 option B	Unknown
#9	2 red ; 8 blue	0,5*option A ; 0,5 option B	Unknown
#10	1 red ; 9 blue	0,5*option A ; 0,5 option B	Unknown
#11	0 red ; 10 blue	0,5*option A ; 0,5 option B	Unknown

Note: Participants are informed that the winning color in this list is red and that the proportion of red and blue balls in the ambiguous urn stay the same within each and between both MPLs.

Table A.12. Ambiguity MPL 2

Lottery	Option A	Indifference	Option B
	Urn composition (balls)		Urn composition (balls)
#1	10 red ; 0 blue	0,5*option A ; 0,5 option B	Unknown
#2	9 red ; 1 blue	0,5*option A ; 0,5 option B	Unknown
#3	8 red ; 2 blue	0,5*option A ; 0,5 option B	Unknown
#4	7 red ; 3 blue	0,5*option A ; 0,5 option B	Unknown
#5	6 red ; 4 blue	0,5*option A ; 0,5 option B	Unknown
#6	5 red ; 5 blue	0,5*option A ; 0,5 option B	Unknown
#7	4 red ; 6 blue	0,5*option A ; 0,5 option B	Unknown
#8	3 red ; 7 blue	0,5*option A ; 0,5 option B	Unknown
#9	2 red ; 8 blue	0,5*option A ; 0,5 option B	Unknown
#10	1 red ; 9 blue	0,5*option A ; 0,5 option B	Unknown
#11	0 red ; 10 blue	0,5*option A ; 0,5 option B	Unknown

Note: Participants are informed that the winning color in this list is blue and that the proportion of red and blue balls in the ambiguous urn stay the same within each and between both MPLs.

Variable	Test	Employee# Both	Employee# Solo	Employee# W/Personnel	Employee# Owner	Solo# Both	Solo# W/Personnel	W/Personnel# Both	Owner# Both	Owner# Solo	Owner# W/Personnel
Temperance	(1) W Wald	1.000	1.000	0.178	0.001	1.000	1.000	0.464	0.029	0.048	1.000
	(2) W Wald w/ control										
	(3) UNW Wald	1.000	1.000	0.145	0.001	1.000	0.609	0.167	0.003	0.012	1.000
	(4) UNW Wald w/control										
	(5) UNW Dunn	1.000	1.000	0.059	0.001	0.458	0.251	0.043	0.001	0.010	1.000
Time	(1) W Wald										
	(2) W Wald w/ control										
	(3) UNW Wald										
	(4) UNW Wald w/control										
	(5) UNW Dunn										
Time Near Future	(1) W Wald	0.326	0.000	0.072	0.000	0.963	1.000	1.000	0.012	0.084	0.175
	(2) W Wald w/ control	0.411	0.000	0.017	0.000	0.148	1.000	0.705	0.010	0.462	0.916
	(3) UNW Wald	0.277	0.000	0.638	0.000	0.771	1.000	1.000	0.007	0.074	0.030
	(4) UNW Wald w/control	0.121	0.000	0.025	0.000	0.057	1.000	1.000	0.004	0.413	0.162
	(5) UNW Dunn	0.077	0.000	0.587	0.000	0.738	0.430	1.000	0.002	0.012	0.003
Time Distant Future	(1) W Wald	1.000	0.000	0.009	0.001	0.097	1.000	0.132	0.090	1.000	1.000
	(2) W Wald w/ control	1.000	0.000	0.001	0.000	0.005	1.000	0.020	0.010	1.000	1.000
	(3) UNW Wald	1.000	0.000	0.067	0.002	0.210	1.000	0.680	0.108	1.000	1.000
	(4) UNW Wald w/control	0.514	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.004	1.000	0.050	0.010	1.000	1.000
	(5) UNW Dunn	0.608	0.000	0.082	0.000	0.179	1.000	0.916	0.057	1.000	0.960
Time Procras- tination	(1) W Wald	0.584	0.061	1.000	0.120	1.000	0.876	1.000	0.023	0.002	0.807
	(2) W Wald w/ control										
	(3) UNW Wald	0.557	1.000	1.000	0.052	1.000	0.662	0.380	0.010	0.012	1.000
	(4) UNW Wald w/control										
	(5) UNW Dunn	0.218	0.489	1.000	0.017	1.000	0.386	0.196	0.003	0.004	0.466
Ambiguity	(1) W Wald										
	(2) W Wald w/ control										
	(3) UNW Wald										
	(4) UNW Wald w/control										
	(5) UNW Dunn										
Solidarity	(1) W Wald										
	(2) W Wald w/ control										
	(3) UNW Wald										
	(4) UNW Wald w/control										
	(5) UNW Dunn	0.054	0.001	1.000	1.000	1.000	0.372	1.000	0.213	0.056	1.000

Variable	Test	Employee# Both	Employee# Solo	Employee# W/Personnel	Employee# Owner	Solo# Both	Solo# W/Personnel	W/Personnel# Both	Owner# Both	Owner# Solo	Owner# W/Personnel
Altruism	(1) W Wald										
	(2) W Wald w/ control										
	(3) UNW Wald	0.004	0.008	1.000	0.121	1.000	0.076	0.023	1.000	1.000	0.154
	(4) UNW Wald w/control	0.078	0.302	0.393	0.456	1.000	0.051	0.017	1.000	1.000	0.058
	(5) UNW Dunn	0.001	0.002	0.782	0.106	0.627	0.013	0.003	0.674	1.000	0.061
Positive Reciprocity	(1) W Wald										
	(2) W Wald w/ control										
	(3) UNW Wald										
	(4) UNW Wald w/control										
	(5) UNW Dunn										
Negative Reciprocity	(1) W Wald	1.000	0.680	0.000	0.000	1.000	0.001	0.002	0.000	0.000	1.000
	(2) W Wald w/ control	1.000	1.000	0.000	0.001	1.000	0.003	0.016	0.050	0.006	1.000
	(3) UNW Wald	1.000	0.932	0.000	0.000	0.863	0.001	0.000	0.000	0.000	1.000
	(4) UNW Wald w/control	1.000	0.717	0.000	0.000	1.000	0.005	0.002	0.003	0.009	1.000
	(5) UNW Dunn	1.000	0.865	0.000	0.000	0.638	0.001	0.000	0.000	0.000	1.000
Self-Control	(1) W Wald	1.000	1.000	1.000	0.004	1.000	1.000	1.000	0.058	0.039	0.625
	(2) W Wald w/ control										
	(3) UNW Wald	1.000	0.262	0.802	0.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	0.005	0.041	0.353
	(4) UNW Wald w/control										
	(5) UNW Dunn	1.000	0.137	0.702	0.000	0.537	1.000	1.000	0.006	0.038	0.168
Personal Trust	(1) W Wald	0.046	0.002	1.000	0.013	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000
	(2) W Wald w/ control										
	(3) UNW Wald	0.007	0.003	1.000	0.017	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000
	(4) UNW Wald w/control										
	(5) UNW Dunn	0.003	0.001	0.445	0.007	1.000	1.000	0.796	1.000	1.000	0.822
Trust in Public Institutions	(1) W Wald	1.000	0.055	0.032	0.108	0.661	1.000	0.213	0.296	0.002	0.001
	(2) W Wald w/ control	0.482	0.003	0.005	1.000	1.000	1.000	0.507	1.000	0.232	0.098
	(3) UNW Wald	1.000	0.009	0.009	0.221	0.359	1.000	0.074	0.301	0.002	0.001
	(4) UNW Wald w/control	0.756	0.001	0.006	1.000	0.700	1.000	0.241	1.000	0.096	0.044
	(5) UNW Dunn	1.000	0.017	0.000	0.096	0.305	0.051	0.005	0.134	0.002	0.000
Trust in Private Institutions	(1) W Wald	1.000	0.000	0.271	0.023	0.001	0.024	1.000	1.000	0.066	1.000
	(2) W Wald w/ control	0.930	0.000	0.291	0.169	0.018	0.138	1.000	1.000	0.100	1.000
	(3) UNW Wald	0.044	0.000	0.041	0.016	0.005	0.141	1.000	1.000	0.058	1.000
	(4) UNW Wald w/control	0.062	0.000	0.076	0.168	0.092	0.775	1.000	1.000	0.140	1.000
	(5) UNW Dunn	0.016	0.000	0.021	0.004	0.003	0.067	1.000	1.000	0.044	1.000

Variable	Test	Employee# Both	Employee# Solo	Employee# W/Personnel	Employee# Owner	Solo# Both	Solo# W/Personnel	W/Personnel# Both	Owner# Both	Owner# Solo	Owner# W/Personnel
Trust in Pension Institutions	(1) W Wald										
	(2) W Wald w/ control	1.000	0.000	0.011	0.054	0.088	1.000	0.074	0.350	1.000	1.000
	(3) UNW Wald	1.000	0.004	0.034	0.835	0.066	1.000	0.079	1.000	0.005	0.010
	(4) UNW Wald w/control	1.000	0.000	0.000	0.137	0.021	0.676	0.005	0.832	1.000	0.165
	(5) UNW Dunn	1.000	0.001	0.052	0.322	0.008	1.000	0.041	1.000	0.001	0.012
Optimism	(1) W Wald	1.000	0.009	0.003	0.000	0.572	0.514	0.052	0.000	0.000	0.637
	(2) W Wald w/ control	1.000	0.064	0.032	0.000	0.669	0.979	0.126	0.002	0.011	1.000
	(3) UNW Wald	1.000	0.078	0.001	0.000	1.000	0.084	0.024	0.000	0.000	1.000
	(4) UNW Wald w/control	1.000	0.873	0.022	0.000	1.000	0.213	0.093	0.004	0.006	1.000
	(5) UNW Dunn	0.293	0.008	0.000	0.000	1.000	0.048	0.028	0.000	0.000	1.000
Over-confidence	(1) W Wald										
	(2) W Wald w/ control										
	(3) UNW Wald										
	(4) UNW Wald w/control										
	(5) UNW Dunn										
Information Avoidance	(1) W Wald										
	(2) W Wald w/ control										
	(3) UNW Wald										
	(4) UNW Wald w/control										
	(5) UNW Dunn										
Financial Literacy	(1) W Wald	1.000	0.000	0.111	0.000	0.095	1.000	0.561	0.000	0.000	0.000
	(2) W Wald w/ control	1.000	0.416	1.000	0.000	0.193	1.000	1.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
	(3) UNW Wald	1.000	0.010	0.244	0.000	0.142	1.000	0.429	0.000	0.000	0.000
	(4) UNW Wald w/control	1.000	0.918	1.000	0.000	0.376	1.000	1.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
	(5) UNW Dunn	1.000	0.010	0.572	0.000	0.066	1.000	0.564	0.000	0.000	0.000
Financial Management	(1) W Wald										
	(2) W Wald w/ control	1.000	0.006	0.489	0.552	0.151	1.000	0.852	1.000	1.000	1.000
	(3) UNW Wald										
	(4) UNW Wald w/control	0.690	0.002	0.267	0.653	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000
	(5) UNW Dunn										
Cognitive Reflection	(1) W Wald	1.000	0.011	1.000	0.000	0.689	1.000	1.000	0.001	0.003	0.006
	(2) W Wald w/ control										
	(3) UNW Wald	1.000	0.267	1.000	0.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	0.001	0.001	0.004
	(4) UNW Wald w/control										
	(5) UNW Dunn	1.000	0.162	1.000	0.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	0.000	0.001	0.002

Variable	Test	Employee# Both	Employee# Solo	Employee# W/Personnel	Employee# Owner	Solo# Both	Solo# W/Personnel	W/Personnel# Both	Owner# Both	Owner# Solo	Owner# W/Personnel
Pension Knowledge	(1) W Wald	1.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.001	1.000	0.005	0.000	0.000	0.002
	(2) W Wald w/ control	1.000	0.000	0.042	0.000	0.025	1.000	0.105	0.000	0.082	0.639
	(3) UNW Wald	0.536	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	1.000	0.002	0.000	0.000	0.001
	(4) UNW Wald w/control	1.000	0.000	0.016	0.000	0.031	1.000	0.124	0.000	0.019	0.185
	(5) UNW Dunn	0.276	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	1.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.001
Pension Extra Saving	(1) W Wald	0.141	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.063	0.068	0.001	0.021	1.000	0.753
	(2) W Wald w/ control	0.365	0.000	0.000	0.083	0.254	0.401	0.024	1.000	1.000	0.078
	(3) UNW Wald	0.024	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.063	0.088	0.001	0.028	1.000	0.887
	(4) UNW Wald w/control	0.093	0.000	0.000	0.006	0.187	0.398	0.015	1.000	1.000	0.193
	(5) UNW Dunn	0.018	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.024	0.029	0.000	0.010	1.000	0.332
Pension Extra Saving Intention	(1) W Wald	0.062	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.143	0.783	0.023	0.070	1.000	1.000
	(2) W Wald w/ control	0.075	0.000	0.000	0.004	0.173	1.000	0.107	1.000	1.000	1.000
	(3) UNW Wald	0.018	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.040	1.000	0.030	0.009	1.000	1.000
	(4) UNW Wald w/control	0.022	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.018	1.000	0.106	0.123	1.000	1.000
	(5) UNW Dunn	0.014	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.023	0.981	0.014	0.013	1.000	1.000
Pension Responsibility	(1) W Wald	0.004	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.889	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.093
	(2) W Wald w/ control	0.007	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.805	0.000	0.000	0.001	0.376
	(3) UNW Wald	0.001	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.163	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.131
	(4) UNW Wald w/control	0.001	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.349	0.000	0.000	0.001	0.425
	(5) UNW Dunn	0.001	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.032	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.040
Pension Solidarity	(1) W Wald	0.713	1.000	0.004	0.000	0.647	0.005	0.369	0.026	0.000	1.000
	(2) W Wald w/ control	0.627	1.000	0.011	0.000	1.000	0.029	0.577	0.066	0.001	1.000
	(3) UNW Wald	1.000	1.000	0.001	0.000	1.000	0.001	0.019	0.003	0.000	1.000
	(4) UNW Wald w/control	1.000	1.000	0.001	0.000	1.000	0.007	0.040	0.009	0.001	1.000
	(5) UNW Dunn	1.000	1.000	0.000	0.000	1.000	0.000	0.006	0.002	0.000	1.000
Pension Influence	(1) W Wald	0.021	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	1.000	0.028	0.000	0.001	0.007
	(2) W Wald w/ control	0.030	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	1.000	0.003	0.000	0.002	0.019
	(3) UNW Wald	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.008	1.000	0.011	0.000	0.000	0.015
	(4) UNW Wald w/control	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	1.000	0.001	0.000	0.000	0.037
	(5) UNW Dunn	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.938	0.001	0.000	0.000	0.004
Pension Engagement	(1) W Wald	0.081	0.026	0.001	0.000	1.000	0.248	0.487	0.000	0.000	0.004
	(2) W Wald w/ control	0.197	1.000	0.256	0.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	0.008	0.000	0.057
	(3) UNW Wald	0.466	0.002	0.000	0.000	1.000	0.133	0.037	0.000	0.000	0.015
	(4) UNW Wald w/control	1.000	0.543	0.087	0.000	1.000	0.843	0.965	0.001	0.000	0.149
	(5) UNW Dunn	0.203	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.480	0.126	0.021	0.000	0.000	0.004

Variable	Test	Employee# Both	Employee# Solo	Employee# W/Personnel	Employee# Owner	Solo# Both	Solo# W/Personnel	W/Personnel# Both	Owner# Both	Owner# Solo	Owner# W/Personnel
Financial Anxiety	(1) W Wald	1.000	1.000	0.079	0.000	1.000	0.147	0.340	0.000	0.000	0.002
	(2) W Wald w/ control	1.000	1.000	1.000	0.000	1.000	0.339	0.655	0.001	0.000	0.141
	(3) UNW Wald	1.000	0.619	0.449	0.000	1.000	0.093	0.152	0.000	0.000	0.001
	(4) UNW Wald w/control	0.463	0.206	1.000	0.000	1.000	0.318	0.383	0.000	0.000	0.046
	(5) UNW Dunn	0.722	0.315	0.366	0.000	1.000	0.086	0.133	0.000	0.000	0.000
Financial Security	(1) W Wald	1.000	0.000	0.064	0.002	0.192	0.000	0.042	0.005	0.000	1.000
	(2) W Wald w/ control	0.113	0.000	1.000	1.000	0.300	0.001	0.191	0.770	0.006	1.000
	(3) UNW Wald	0.005	0.000	1.000	0.014	0.370	0.000	0.013	0.000	0.000	1.000
	(4) UNW Wald w/control	0.000	0.000	1.000	1.000	0.743	0.003	0.132	0.027	0.000	1.000
	(5) UNW Dunn	0.010	0.000	1.000	0.000	0.208	0.000	0.025	0.000	0.000	0.099

Note: W=weighted, UNW=unweighted. Table shows BH corrected p-values for all measures. We conduct five different tests. (1) Pairwise Wald test of the respective factors in the occupational status variable after linear/logistic regression on the weighted data. (2) Pairwise Wald test of the factors in the occupational status variable after linear/logistic regression with controls on the weighted data. (3) Pairwise Wald test of the factors in the occupational status variable after linear/logistic regression on the unweighted data. (4) Pairwise Wald test of the factors in the occupational status variable after linear/logistic regression with controls on the unweighted data (5) Dunn's test. Rows are empty in case the preceding joint significance Wald test ((1) – (4)) or Krusal Wallis test ((5)) yielded $p > 0.05$.

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