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Life Course, Old-Age Provision, and Well-Being: The Impact of (Non-)Employment Biographies and Pension Entitlements on Life Satisfaction

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Abstract
In view of the importance of aspects of subjective well-being for the assessment of a country's prosperity and the quality of life of its population, the hitherto less researched influence of old-age provision on life satisfaction and the central role of (non-)employment biographies in this context are examined. Based on data from the study on "Life courses and old-age provision" (LeA), it is shown that periods of employment and pension entitlements as well as wealth tend to have a positive correlation with satisfaction, while periods of non-employment tend to have a negative correlation. Corresponding differences can be seen for different types of biographies. Furthermore, life courses and old-age provision are particularly relevant for satisfaction with income and the overall standard of living, and least relevant for satisfaction with work. However, the additional consideration of old-age provision and life-course determinants does not substantially increase the explanatory power of regression models for subjective well-being without these determinants (and based on sociodemographic variables only), but it differentiates their statements according to their significant coefficients in the full model.

Zusammenfassung
Angesichts der großen Bedeutung von Aspekten des subjektiven Wohlbefindens („subjective well-being") für die Beurteilung des Wohlstands eines Landes und der Lebensqualität seiner Bevölkerung werden der bisher eher selten untersuchte Einfluss der eigenen Altersvorsorge auf die allgemeine Lebenszufriedenheit sowie die zentrale Rolle von (Nicht-)Erwerbsbiografien in diesem Zusammenhang empirisch untersucht. Auf Basis von Daten der Studie zu „Lebensverläufen und Altersvorsorge" (LeA) zeigt sich, dass Erwerbszeiten und Anwartschaften auf spätere Alterseinkommen sowie Vermögen tendenziell in einem positiven Zusammenhang und Nichterwerbszeiten in einem negativen Zusammenhang mit der Zufriedenheit stehen. Entsprechende Unterschiede zeigen sich auch für verschiedene Biografietypen. Besonders relevant sind Lebensverläufe und Altersvorsorge für die Zufriedenheit mit dem Einkommen und dem Lebensstandard insgesamt, am wenigsten für die Zufriedenheit mit der Arbeit. Die zusätzliche Berücksichtigung in Regressionsmodellen für das subjektive Wohlbefinden erhöht zwar die Erklärungskraft gegenüber Modellen ohne diese Determinanten (und nur auf Basis soziodemografischer Variablen) nur geringfügig, differenziert aber deren Aussagen angesichts einiger signifikanter Koeffizienten für die Lebensverlaufs- und Altersvorsorgedeterminanten.

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1 Introduction[1]

In line with what is widely agreed in politics, among intermediary organizations (e.g., UN, OECD, WHO), in scientific research, and in the public at large (Frijters et al. 2020, Spieß et al. 2023), the prosperity of a country and the quality of life of its population should not be assessed solely by objective indicators such as education, employment, income, or wealth. Rather, aspects of subjective well-being (SWB) should be brought more to the fore: "Such indicators [...] reflect the discrepancies between personal aspirations and reality and the assessment of what has been achieved to date" (Iglauer et al. 2021: 409).[2] In this respect, the coexistence of objectively poor conditions with a subjectively positive perception (or assessment) – and vice versa – puts purely objective indicators into perspective and can even lead to divergent evaluations.

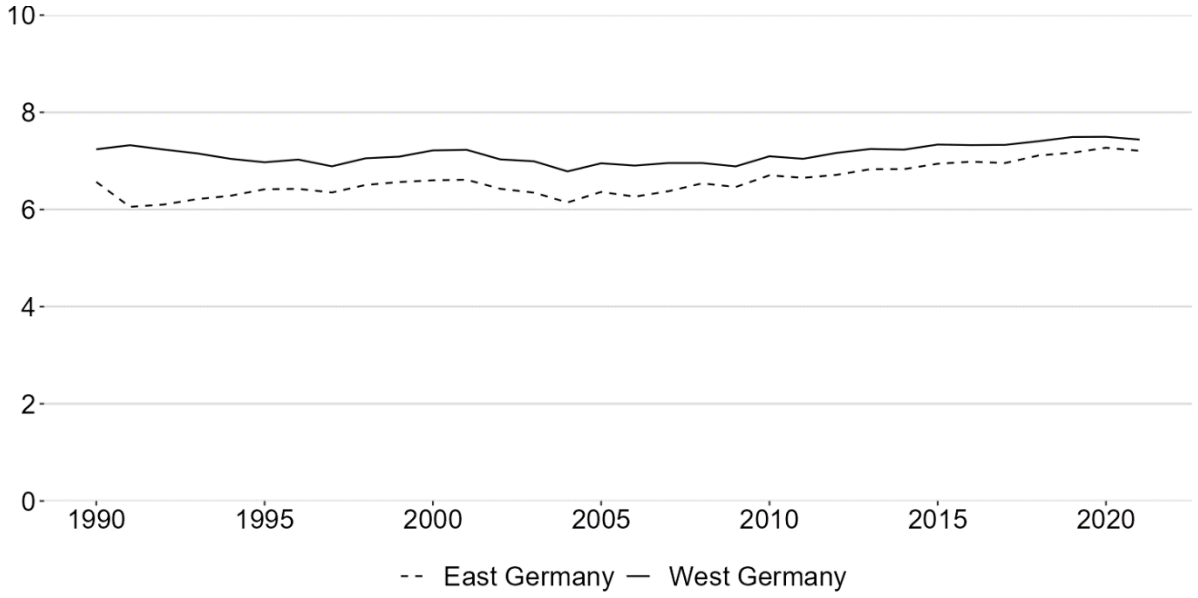
Subjective well-being is generally differentiated into overall life satisfaction and domain specific satisfaction – or concerns – regarding certain areas such as health, partnership, family, work, income, housing, or crime.[3] These evaluations can refer to both the individual situation and to the situation of larger units, such as the neighborhood, the community, the federal state or the entire nation or society up to the global level, for example, in questions related to the environment or war and peace. Finally, it can be distinguished in terms of timeframe and substance between "lasting happiness" (cognitive well-being), "current happiness" (emotional well-being) and "being fulfilled" (eudaimonic well-being), a more enduring but less domain specific form of happiness (cf. Iglauer et al. 2021: 409, Diener et al. 1999, Hansen & Blekesaune 2022, Schimmack 2009, Vittersø 2013).

For a first impression of the development of overall life satisfaction in East and West Germany since 1990, data from the German Socio-Economic Panel (GSOEP), one of the longest-running and largest repeated surveys of individuals and households worldwide (Goebel et al. 2019), can be analyzed. Since 1984, the GSOEP has asked respondents aged 18 and older to rate their overall life satisfaction on a scale from 0 ("completely dissatisfied") to 10 ("completely satisfied"): "Finally, we would like to ask you about satisfaction with your life as a whole..." (Schimmack 2008; Figure 1).[4] According to this, the (arithmetic) mean level of satisfaction in East Germany immediately after German unification was significantly lower

[1] This discussion paper is an extended and translated version of Czaplicki et al. 2024.
[2] For early approaches, see Andrews & Withey 1976, Cantril 1965, Diener 1984, Glatzer & Zapf 1984.
[3] A corresponding distinction is often made between "well-being" and "ill-being" (Headey & Wooden 2004). However, worries are generally not considered in their entirety but rather considered exclusively in terms of specific areas (Iglauer et al. 2021: 409).
[4] The data in Figures 1 and 2 (section 2.2) are based on all GSOEP samples except for the IAB-BAMF samples of refugees (M3-M5) included in the survey in 2016 and 2017 (Goebel et al. 2019).

than in West Germany and in the short term – not surprisingly in light of the dramatic transformation of living conditions (Easterlin & Plagnol 2008) – declined even further. From the mid-1990s onwards, it gradually approached the West German average. Since then, trends in East and West Germany have largely moved in parallel. From the mid-2000s, levels in the East again converged toward those in the West, so that by 2021 the difference was only about 0.2 scale points. Overall, a slight decline was recorded compared to 2020, probably due to the Covid-19 pandemic (Section 2.1).

Figure 1: Mean general life satisfaction in East and West Germany 1990 to 2021
(0 = "completely dissatisfied"; 10 = "completely satisfied")



Source: GSOEP – v38 (persons aged 18 and over; without M3-M5 samples).

Given the importance of subjective well-being outlined above, it is not surprising that there is extensive research on the factors that lead people to be (more or less) satisfied with their lives. Behind this lies not only scientific interest, but also the political question of how well-being can be improved (cf. Frijters et al. 2020). The following analyses are intended to contribute to this discussion by focusing on a hitherto rather less researched factor: the influence of one's own old-age provision and – given the employment-centered German welfare state – the underlying life courses. Section 2 provides a brief overview of the empirical research on life satisfaction before discussing the relevance of old-age provision and the central role of (non-)employment biographies. Section 3 explains the data and the methods, Section 4 presents

the results of the bivariate and multivariate analyses, and Section 5 summarizes the findings, notes limitations, and offers conclusions.

2 What determines whether people are (more) satisfied with their lives?

2.1 Overview of previous research

Given the multidimensional nature of life satisfaction, it is not surprising that empirical research is highly interdisciplinary and has examined and identified a broad range of determinants of subjective well-being. Without going into the various personal, economic, social, and cultural factors in detail, the following overview – without claiming to be exhaustive – summarizes key findings at different levels of analysis. Determinants can be located at the individual level (micro level; Table 1) and at higher levels, such as neighborhood, municipality, region, federal state, or the entire country (meso and macro level; Table 2). Moreover, they can refer to the current situation (cross-sectional perspective) or to past circumstances and temporal (e.g., biographical) developments (longitudinal perspective).

A micro level phenomenon that has been often examined empirically, for example, is the (average) greater satisfaction of married people compared to people who live in unmarried partnerships (so-called "cohabitation gap"; Stavrova et al. 2012), and particularly compared to people without a partner.[5] At the macro level, one of the most robust correlations is that subjective well-being tends to increase with national prosperity. However, beyond a certain level further improvements in the economic situation hardly improve the level of life satisfaction (so-called "Easterlin paradox"; Easterlin 1974). The reason for this is that individual expectations increase with prosperity: "As people become accustomed to a better quality of life and then quickly perceive this level as normal, their life satisfaction no longer increases (significantly). Despite growing economic benefits, there is no increasing sense of satisfaction or happiness" (Grabka & Schupp 2017: 448; cf. Easterlin & Plagnol 2008, Stavrova et al. 2011). More recently, studies have examined short term shocks, such as the impact of pandemics and the associated challenges, problems, and restrictions (including lockdowns), which had marked effects on well-being (Bittmann 2022).[6]

[5] In this context, the question of causality must be viewed in a differentiated way: "On the one hand, a partnership can make people more satisfied, but on the other hand it is often the case that more satisfied people are more likely to find a partner or that partnerships of satisfied people last longer" (Spieß et al. 2023: 8).
[6] This effect is also likely to have been reflected in the development of life satisfaction in Germany (Figure 1).

Table 1: Determinants of life satisfaction at the micro level

Age (Diener 1984, Diener et al. 1999, Easterlin 1974, Hansen & Blekesaune 2022, Piper 2023)	**Spatial mobility** (Cihlar et al. 2023, Erlinghagen et al. 2020, Nakazato et al. 2011, Spieß et al. 2023)
Gender (Batz-Barbarich et al. 2018, Diener 1984, Diener et al. 1999, Lepinteur et al. 2022, Spieß et al. 2023, Stavrova et al. 2012)	**Income** (Headey & Wooden 2004, Hochman & Skopek 2013, Vlaev & Elliott 2014)
Education (Diener 1984, Diener et al. 1999, Helliwell et al. 2022, Livingston et al. 2022, Spieß et al. 2023)	**Wealth** (Diener et al. 1999, Headey & Wooden 2004, Hochman & Skopek 2013, Kapelle et al. 2022, Wooden 2004)
Migration background and experience (Cihlar et al. 2023, Erlinghagen et al. 2020, Spieß et al. 2023)	**Housing** (Edwards 2022, Erlinghagen et al. 2020, Livingston et al. 2022)
Childhood (Brandt et al. 2012, Edwards 2022, Frijters et al. 2011, Layard et al. 2014)	**Health** (Diener 1984, Diener et al. 1999, Gataūlinas & Bancevič̆a 2014, Helliwell et al. 2022, Livingston et al. 2022)
Family background (Brandt et al. 2012, Layard et al. 2014, Spieß et al. 2023, Wahrendorf 2015)	**Personality** (Diener 1984, Diener et al. 1999, Edwards 2022)
Partnership, marriage (Diener et al. 1999, Möhring 2014, Stahnke & Cooley 2020, Stavrova et al. 2012, Wahrendorf 2015)	**Friendship, networks** (Diener 1984, Edwards 2022, Hansen & Blekesaune 2022, Helliwell 2019, Livingston et al. 2022)
Parenthood (Cihlar et al. 2023, Margolis & Myrskylä 2011, Möhring 2014, Nomaguchi & Milkie 2020)	**Trust** (Bittmann 2022, Brülisauer et al. 2022, Ciziceno & Travaglino 2019)
Work and (non-)employment (Diener 1984, Stavrova et al. 2011, Wahrendorf 2015)	**Religiosity** (Cantril 1965, Diener 1984, Diener et al. 1999, Ellison 1991, Stavrova et al. 2011)
Employment biography (Edwards 2022, Möhring 2014, Schröder 2013, Wahrendorf 2015)	**Violence, discrimination** (Hanslmaier 2013, Hnilica 2011, Livingston et al. 2022, Schaafsma 2011)

Source: own presentation.

Table 2: Determinants of life satisfaction at the meso and macro level

Welfare state types (Deeming & Hayes 2012, Hochman & Skopek 2013, Niedzwiedz et al. 2014, Stavrova et al. 2011) **Economic situation** (Deeming & Hayes 2012, Deeming & Jones 2015, Diener et al. 1999, Easterlin 1974, Easterlin & Plagnol 2008, Grabka & Schupp 2017, Helliwell et al. 2022) **Unemployment** (Deeming & Hayes 2012, Diener 1984, Stavrova et al. 2011) **Social inequality** (Deeming & Hayes 2012, Kelly & Evans 2017, Zagorski et al. 2014) **Life expectancy** (Gataūlinas & Bancevičа 2014, Helliwell 2019, Helliwell et al. 2022)	**Cultural values and norms** (Diener et al. 1999, Möhring 2014, Stavrova et al. 2011) **Criminality** (Edwards 2022, Hanslmaier 2013, Livingston et al. 2022) **War, terrorism** (Edwards 2022) **Corruption** (Ciziceno & Travaglino 2019, Helliwell 2019, Helliwell et al. 2022) **Pandemics** (Bittmann 2022, Brandt et al. 2021, Helliwell et al. 2022, Livingston et al. 2022, Zacher & Rudolph 2020) **Sustainability, environmental protection, climate change** (Edwards 2022) **Globalization** (Edwards 2022)

Source: own presentation.

In addition to single determinants of life satisfaction, some studies also discuss interaction effects across the micro, meso, and macro level. One example of an interaction effect between the micro and macro level is the influence of marriage and partnership on life satisfaction. This influence depends on prevailing cultural values and norms and can, therefore, differ between nations or societies depending on the extent to which general expectations are met: "the possible consequences of not meeting social expectations are social sanctions like disapproval and rejection, which have negative implications for one's self-related emotions and self-concept" (Stavrova et al. 2012: 1063).[7]

[7] In this context, age-specific effects – e.g., gender (Hansen & Blekesaune 2022, Spieß et al. 2023) or the economic situation or welfare regime (Hansen & Blekesaune 2022) – and gender-specific effects – e.g., partnership/marriage (Möhring 2014), parenthood (Möhring 2014), work and (non-)employment (Möhring 2014, Stavrova et al. 2011, Wahrendorf 2015), work and (non-)employment (Möhring 2014, Stavrova et al. 2011, Wahrendorf 2015), wealth (Kapelle et al. 2022), or pandemics (Lepinteur et al. 2022) – are also very often discussed.

2.2 Old-age provision and life satisfaction

Despite the breadth of existing research, old-age provision has – at least according to the knowledge of the authors of this paper – received surprisingly little attention as a determinant of life satisfaction. This is striking, since biographical factors are well established in the literature (Wahrendorf 2015) and the relevance of old-age provision grows as individuals approach retirement age. In addition, and regardless of individual age, the relevance of old-age provision for life satisfaction should increase over time. In pay-as-you-go pension systems, demographic change, characterized by falling birth rates and rising life expectancy, is leading to a less favorable ratio of contributors (or taxpayers) to benefit recipients and thus to greater uncertainty. As a result, none of the "endogenous" reform options for the statutory pension insurance – raising contributions, lowering benefit levels, increasing retirement age – enjoys majority support in Germany, with higher contribution still viewed as the "least objectionable" (cf. Diermeier & Schüler 2023).

Old-age provision is, therefore, not only a potential determinant of life satisfaction, but can also be seen as a domain-specific form of satisfaction, especially "financial satisfaction" (Vlaev & Elliott 2014). Since 2015, the GSOEP has included a question on worries about old-age provision:[8] "What about the following areas – are you worried about them?". The share of people with "major concerns" – the other answer options are "some worries" and "no worries" – has fluctuated over time in all domains (Figure 2),[9] with a marked increase from 2018 to 2019, particularly with respect to the concerns about old-age provision.[10]

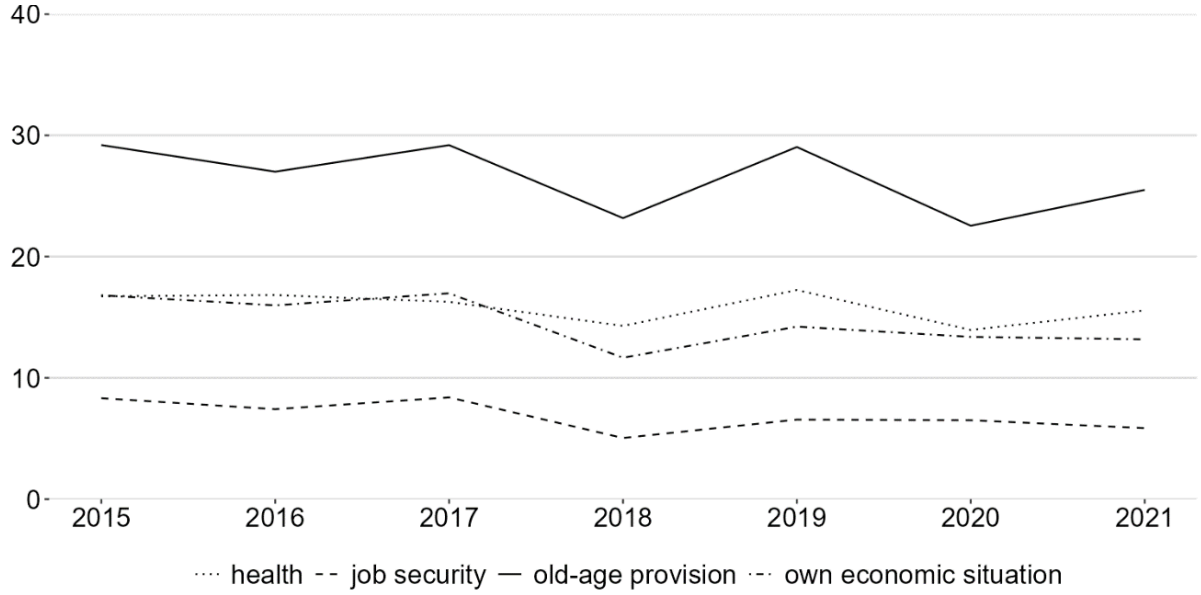
Strikingly, worries about old-age provision are consistently higher than, for example, worries about job security. In addition to objective reasons (e.g., strong employment protection in labor law), this can be explained by the fact that individuals can exercise little influence over such long-term developments: "Due to the uncertainty of long-term developments, worries about the future seem to be more difficult than worries about the here and now. In general, worries about issues that are not – or only to a small extent – influenced by the respondents are higher than those concerns directly affecting the respondents" (Schüler 2022: 25 f.).

[8] In addition to satisfaction with certain areas of life, other questions in the SOEP are concerning the "micro level" of the private sphere (for example, one's own economic situation) and the "macro level" of the public sphere (e.g., general economic development; cf. Iglauer et al. 2021: 410 ff.).

[9] The proportion of people "without worries" regarding their own old-age provision was on a similar level between 2015 and 2021, while the proportion of people with "some worries" was consistently at around 45 %.

[10] These developments coincided with the introduction of the old-age pension for people with particularly long contributions ("Rente mit 63"), the extended recognition of child-raising episodes ("Mütterrente II") and the controversy surrounding the introduction of the basic pension supplement for people with lower incomes ("Grundrentenzuschlag"; Iglauer et al. 2021: 413).

Figure 2: People with “major concerns” in various areas 2015 to 2021 (in %)



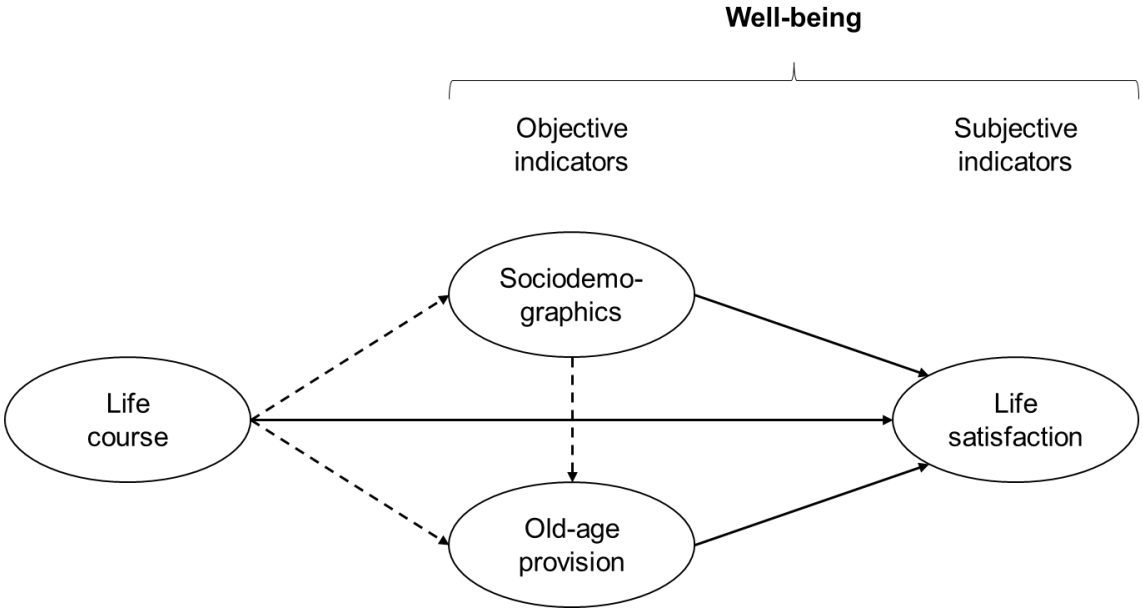
Source: GSOEP – v38 (persons aged 18 and over; without M3-M5 samples).

2.3 Synthesis: Life course, old-age provision, and well-being

In the following empirical analyses, we examine how old-age provision affects life satisfaction while also accounting for socio-demographic characteristics and aspects of the prior (non-)employment histories (Figure 3). In Germany’s employment centered welfare state, the quality, duration, and sequence of periods of (non-)employment episodes accumulated over the life course are crucial for both objective living conditions and subjective well-being (e.g., Frommert et al. 2013, Heien et al. 2007, Möhring 2021). The accumulation of advantages and disadvantages shapes inequalities, which, in turn, affect – directly or indirectly – multiple domains: financial resources during working life and retirement, access to medical care, health risks at work, and general risk behavior. Thus, they have a mediated but also a direct impact on quality of life. A continuous working life, for instance, not only increases pension entitlements, but also fulfils psychosocial needs such as belonging to a social network, feelings of control and autonomy, and recognition through rewards (Wahrendorf 2015: 1929). Conversely, earlier disadvantages in the life course, such as longer periods of unemployment or precarious employment, may reduce pension levels and increase the risk of lower well-being later in life (cf. Fasang 2010, Trischler 2014, Simonson & Vogel 2023). The “Matthew effect” illustrates these dynamics: small initial advantages may accumulate into larger benefits over time, whereas previous disadvantages reinforce themselves and widen inequalities (see Merton 1968, O'Rand 1996, Dannefer 2003, Hillmert 2004, Bennett & Möhring 2015). For example, people

who have stable and well-paid jobs early in their working lives tend to accumulate higher pension entitlements and benefit from a more stable financial situation in old age. As a result, it is to be expected that the cumulative effects of these differences lead to considerable inequalities in the (objective) quality of life and, thus, in subjective well-being, too.

Figure 3: Theoretical model of subjective well-being



Source: own presentation.

When examining biographical determinants of life satisfaction, it is important not to reduce (non-)employment episodes to individual states in the course of data collection and analysis: "This neither considers the length of a specific state (e.g. length of unemployment) nor does it take into account when this period occurred within the working life, with probably different consequences for wellbeing (e.g. beginning versus end of working life)" (Wahrendorf 2015: 1930). In addition, in "conservative welfare regimes" (Esping-Andersen 1990) such as Germany, the (still) gender-specific division of labor produces systematic differences between men and women in the structure of (non-)employment biographies. These differences are reflected not only in old-age provision (Frommert et al. 2013, Möhring 2021), but also in life satisfaction (Wahrendorf 2015). To capture such patterns more adequately, the later analyses, therefore, supplement information on individual employment and non-employment episodes with "typical" biographies. These represent aggregated, often gender-specific patterns of – sometimes combined – (non-)employment episodes (e.g., Czaplicki 2020, Heien 2011a,b).

3 Data and methods

3.1 Data

We draw data from the study on "Life Courses and Old-age Provision" (LeA), conducted in 2016 on behalf of the German Federal Pension Insurance and the Federal Ministry of Labor and Social Affairs (see Czaplicki et al. 2019, Heien & Krämer 2018). The target population comprised individuals born between 1957 and 1976 living in private households in Germany, as well as their partners – irrespective of their birth cohort. Thus, in 2016, target respondents were aged 40 to 59, while their partners could be younger or older. Based on a two-stage random sample of 36,000 people from the population registers of 360 municipalities, and using computer-assisted personal interviewing (CAPI), a total of 9,447 persons participated.[11] For the following analyses, the sample is restricted to 8,901 persons born 1957 to 1976, as only for this age group representative statements are possible.

The LeA questionnaire covered the current life situation, complete (non-)employment and partnership histories, and information on statutory, occupational, and private pension provision (see also Zanker & Czaplicki 2019). Biographical data were collected with a "life history calendar" supported by biographical "milestones" (e.g., birth and marriage dates), in which respondents reported monthly activities from age 15 onwards. In addition, the survey data – with the prior written consent of the interviewees – was merged (so-called "record linkage") with the individual administrative pension account records of the statutory pension insurance (pensionable episodes and other information).[12]

3.2 Measurement

3.2.1 Subjective well-being

To measure subjective well-being or life satisfaction, six questions are available in the LeA survey right at the beginning of the interview, which refer to health, sleep, work, housing, income, and overall standard of living and use similar wording like the GSOEP: "First, I would like to ask you to answer a few questions about your current living situation. Please indicate your level of satisfaction for each area: If you are completely dissatisfied, the value "0", if you are completely satisfied, the value "10". If you are partly satisfied / partly dissatisfied, a value in between."

[11] For further methodological details of the LeA study, including data preparation, weighting, and extrapolation, see Heien & Krämer 2018.

[12] The question regarding consent to the linking of survey and pension account data was answered positively by over 90 percent of interviewees (Heien & Krämer 2018: 134).

Based on this LeA question, the arithmetic mean ($\bar{x}$) for life satisfaction of people aged 40 to 59 years in 2016 was highest for housing ($\bar{x}$ = 8.2; n = 8,896), followed by satisfaction with work ($\bar{x}$ = 7.6; n = 7,595), standard of living ($\bar{x}$ = 7.5; n = 8,892), health ($\bar{x}$ = 7.0; 8,901), sleep ($\bar{x}$ = 7.0; n = 8,896), and income ($\bar{x}$ = 6.2; n = 8,822).[13]

A central methodological question is whether to analyze determinants of well-being separately by domain or to construct a composite index of life satisfaction. The latter makes sense if the indicators measure something very similar. The correlations (Pearson's r) between the six indicators – theoretically ranging from -1 to 1 – provide an initial indication of this (Table 3).[14] Although all correlations are statistically highly significant ($p < 0.001$), which is also due to the large LeA sample, they are for the most part rather low, with an r value of only 0.232 found in the worst case of satisfaction with sleep and housing.

Table 3: Correlations for satisfaction with different domains of life (Pearson's r)

	Health	**Sleep**	**Income**	**Housing**	**Work**	**Standard of living**
Health	1.000					
Sleep	0.484***	1.000				
Income	0.325***	0.259***	1.000			
Housing	0.235***	0.232***	0.345***	1.000		
Work	0.302***	0.268***	0.407***	0.301***	1.000	
Standard of living	0.359***	0.283***	0.623***	0.499***	0.457***	1.000

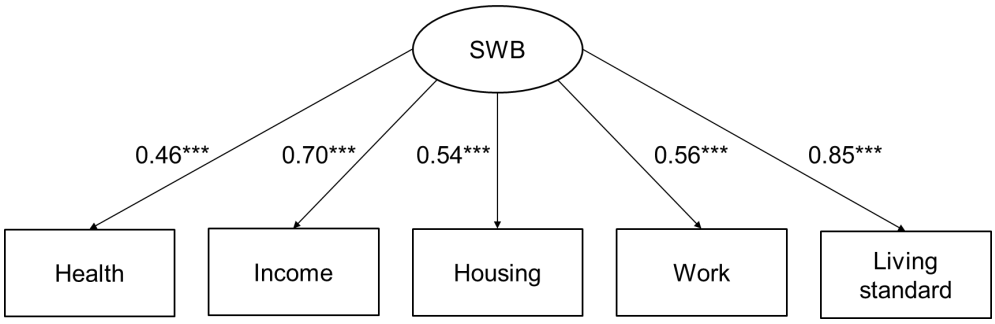
Source: LeA (n = 8,901 people born 1957 to 1976); * $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$; *** $p < 0.001$.

For a global test of the correlations between the indicators of subjective well-being, a confirmatory factor analysis (e.g., Bollen 1989, Rosseel 2012) was calculated, in which a hypothetical measurement model of life satisfaction is tested based on the available data. Due to the conceptual overlap with the item health and the weak correlations with the other indicators, the sleep indicator was excluded from this analysis (Figure 4).

[13] The distribution of the six variables can be found in Figure A.1 and A.2 in the Appendix. To validate the LeA data, the mean values can be compared with those for the same population in the GSOEP 2016, where satisfaction with the standard of living was not surveyed and a distinction was made between satisfaction with personal and household income. According to this, satisfaction with health, sleep, work, and housing is consistently around half a scale point higher, while satisfaction with income is comparably lower than the average satisfaction with personal and household income based on the GSOEP data. These minor differences can be explained by deviations in the wording of questions and answers, the different survey methods (especially with or without an interviewer), the time of the survey (within a calendar year) and, the tendency towards a decline in life satisfaction when measured in repeated surveys such as the GSOEP (Schupp et al. 2013).

[14] The correlations in Table 3 (and Figure 4) are based on 7,571 cases for which information on each indicator is available, so that many people without information on satisfaction with their own work are not considered.

Figure 4: Measurement model of subjective well-being (SWB; standardized factor loadings)



Source: LeA (n = 8,901 people born 1957 to 1976); * p < 0.05; ** p < 0.01; *** p < 0.001.

The resulting goodness of fit of the tested measurement model (e.g., CFI = 0.975, RMSEA = 0.078, SRMR = 0.028; cf. Bollen 1989) indicate that – despite comparatively high standardized factor loadings – the assumption of a single latent satisfaction factor, which is behind the values of all manifest variables, must be rejected for the LeA data. For this reason, the determinants of life satisfaction are examined separately for the individual life domains, which also makes sense regarding possible domain-specific determinants.

3.2.2 Life courses: biographical episodes

In the retrospective LeA survey of the biography since the age of 15, a total of 23 categories of (non-)employment episodes in Germany and abroad were distinguished. However, the following analyses are limited to the most frequent episodes that are likely to be relevant in terms of life satisfaction with selected episodes summarized (Heien & Krämer 2018: 157 ff.):[15] a) full-time or part-time employment subject to statutory pension insurance, b) civil service employment, c) self-employment, d) marginal employment, e) employment abroad, f) education and training, g) unemployment and illness, h) raising children, i) care for others, j) household work (without children), k) pension receipt.

For the individual (non-)employment episodes, an analytical distinction can be made between the mere occurrence in the biography, episodes of a certain length (e.g., 12 months; see Heien & Krämer 2018: 157 f.), and the total length of these episodes (Heien & Krämer 2018: 161). Due to the different lengths of biographies of the interviewees aged 40 to 59 at the time of the survey, a standardization is highly recommended for bivariate analyses, especially,

[15] The number of hours worked per week was surveyed for all episodes of employment in the LeA interview (Heien & Krämer 2018), but for statistical reasons, a distinction is only made here between full-time (35 hours per week or more) and part-time employment (up to 34 hours per week) subject to statutory pension insurance.

for the length of episodes. This was done by calculating the proportion of the total length of episodes of the biography so far, so that the proportions of people of different ages can be directly compared. The resulting biographical proportions were then assigned to four categories: a) 0 % (does not occur in the biography), b) 1 to 24 %, c) 25 to 49 %, d) 50 % and more.[16] In the multivariate analyses, age variables control for differences in biography length (see Section 4.2).

3.2.3 Life courses: biographical types

Another way of using biographical information for the analysis of life satisfaction is to define biography types by means of a sequence data analysis (Gabadinho et al. 2009, Stegmann et al. 2013). This explorative, holistic statistical method not only takes individual episodes and/or transitions in the life course into account, but also complete biographies or at least longer sections, which are processed in clearly defined sequences with specific states. This makes the method particularly well suited to visualize complex data patterns and structures. For the comprehensive biographies in LeA, this method was used to compare episodes of employment and non-employment between the 15th and 40th birthday (Section 3.2.2)[17] and then to summarize similar cases into types using cluster analytical methods (e.g., Gabadinho et al. 2009, Jäckle 2017, Czaplicki 2020).[18] The sequence analysis of the LeA data based on the episodes outlined in Section 3.2.2 resulted in eight biographical types (Figure 5),[19] which are primarily characterized by the presence of certain episodes of employment, sometimes in combination with episodes of inactivity.

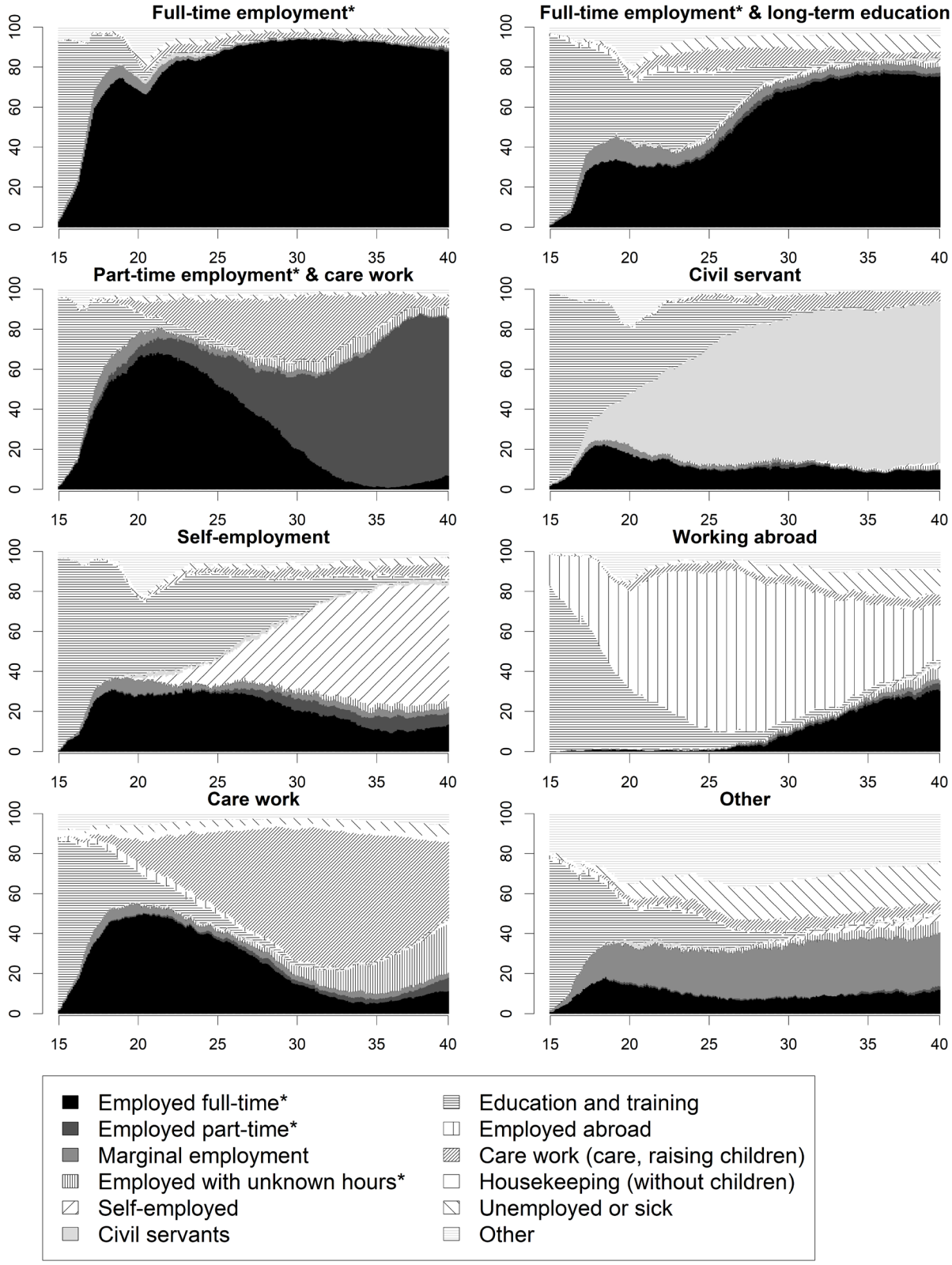
[16] However, due to the different lengths of biographies, even if the total length of episodes is the same, for younger persons, a disproportionate share of education remains, since these episodes are usually at the beginning of the period under consideration from the 15th birthday.

[17] The restriction to this life span is made, because information is only available for all persons for this biographical period and that the sequences can be compared.

[18] A central method for comparing the sequences and evaluating differences between them (in a distance matrix) is the "optimal matching" method. It determines the effort that would be required to change two sequences so that they are identical. This is done by setting cost operations that affect the timing, frequency, or order of events in the life course (Billari & Piccarreta 2005, Billari et al. 2006). Typically, costs are chosen so that frequent transitions have low costs and infrequent transitions have high costs. The determination can be theoretical (see Lesnard 2014) or data-based (see Rohwer & Pötter 1999, Scherer & Brüderl 2010, Stegmann et al. 2013, Widmer & Ritschard 2009). In the latter case, the costs are calculated from the empirical transition probabilities as the frequency of state changes (cf. Stegmann et al. 2013). In principle, frequently occurring transitions of certain states are more similar than states that occur less frequently. Based on the distance matrix, a cluster analysis algorithmically summarizes biographies into groups (or clusters) that are as homogeneous and distinct as possible.

[19] In the early years of the biography, the LeA data sometimes contains episodes with lacking scope of employment. This is presumably due to certain types of employment, such as vocational training. To prepare the data for the sequence data analyses, the scope of employment was imputed for a maximum of three preceding or subsequent months by adopting the known scope of employment of the preceding or subsequent episode. The remaining episodes of employment with an unknown scope of employment were included in the analyses as a separate category, as were all other episodes not explicitly mentioned (see Figure 5).

Figure 5: (Non-)Employment episodes for biography types from age 15 to age 40 (in %)



** Employment subject to statutory pension insurance.*

Source: LeA (n = 8,901 people born 1957 to 1976).

Table 4: Share of biography types in 2016 (in %)

	Men	Women	All persons
Full-time employment*	45	22	32
Full-time employment* and long-term education	20	15	17
Part-time employment* and care work	1	13	7
Civil servant	8	5	6
Self-employment	11	5	8
Working abroad	6	5	6
Care work	1	29	16
Other	9	7	8
All types	**100**	**100**	**100**

** Employment subject to statutory pension insurance.*

Source: LeA (n = 8,901 people born 1957 to 1976).

The most common type, accounting for one third (32 %) of all biographies, is (more or less continuous) full-time employment subject to statutory pension insurance, although this is much more common among men (45 %) than among women (21 %; Table 4). For men, other important types are full-time employment subject to statutory pension insurance after a long, primarily academic education (20 %; women: 15 %) and self-employment (11 %; women: 5 %), while for women it is care work – i.e., care for others, raising children – alone (29 %; men: 1 %) and in combination with part-time employment subject to statutory pension insurance (13 %; men: 1 %). Finally, the types characterized by civil servant times (men: 8 %; women: 5 %) or employment abroad (men: 6 %; women: 5 %) occur similarly rarely.

3.2.4 Old-age provision

The LeA study contains information on current old-age provision in statutory, occupational, and private pension schemes in Germany and abroad (see Zanker & Czaplicki 2019). While the information for foreign old-age provision is limited to the respective pillars, a further distinction can be made for Germany between the different pension schemes (and possibly even between individual contracts): a) statutory pension insurance, b) civil servants' pension, c) farmers' pension scheme, d) pension schemes for the liberal professions, e) occupational pension schemes in the private sector, f) supplementary pension schemes in the public sector, g) Riester pension, h) basic pension, i) other private pension, j) endowment insurance.[20]

In addition to participation in a particular pension scheme (only considered in the multivariate analyses in Section 4.2), which, given the age of the population, is primarily

[20] Riester and basic pensions are state-subsidized pension schemes introduced in Germany in the early and mid-2000s. The first scheme was named after a former Minister of Labour and Social Affairs, Walter Riester.

expressed in the current acquisition of entitlements, but in some cases also in the receipt of (disability) pensions (cf. Heien & Krämer 2018: 163 f.), LeA also contains information on current contributions (domestic only) and entitlements (cf. Heien & Krämer 2018: 179 f.). In the following bivariate and multivariate analyses, the total amount of (monthly) entitlements is considered in addition to participation in the domestic and foreign pension schemes. While belonging to birth-year-specific quintiles is used to control for the different lengths of biographies for the total pension entitlements in Germany, this is not the case for entitlements abroad due to the categorical answers to this question in the LeA survey. Finally, in the interest of a comprehensive perspective, non-institutionalized (and therefore less binding) wealth accumulation and – at least in the multivariate analyses in Section 4.2 – the expectation of a future inheritance is also considered.[21]

3.2.5 Control variables

The socio-demographic characteristics used in the multivariate analyses are age, gender, region (East and West Germany), marital status, partnership, number of children, education (CASMIN classification),[22] household size, household and personal net monthly income, and migration experience. Furthermore, a couple of specific housing and health indicators are considered. While housing status and costs as well as size of residence measure the housing situation, the assessment of the current health condition, the number of visits to the doctor (in the last 12 months), and information concerning reduced earning capacity measure the health situation.

4 Results

4.1 Bivariate analyses

The following analyses of the determinants of life satisfaction focus on two dimensions: life courses (Section 4.1.1) and old-age provision (Section 4.1.2).[23] In contrast to the multivariate analyses afterwards (Section 4.2), statistically significant differences are not marked, since only large (and generally highly significant) mean differences are interpreted.

[21] LeA contains information on the ownership of financial assets, real estate assets, business assets, and other assets as well as the total amount of assets. The latter amount was surveyed in seven categories, the expectation of a future inheritance in four categories. A standardization of this information to control for the length of biographies is not possible due to the use of categories.

[22] A distinction is made between people with no qualifications or basic education with/without vocational training (CASMIN 1a, 1b, 1c), persons with intermediate general education or higher education entrance qualification with/without vocational training (CASMIN 2a, 2b, 2c) and people with tertiary education (bachelor, master or diploma degree, dissertation; CASMIN 3a, 3b; Lüttinger and König 1988).

[23] See Czaplicki et a. 2024 for more detailed bivariate results.

4.1.1 Life courses

Starting the discussion of relationships between the life course and subjective well-being with employment episodes, the strongest differences emerge for income satisfaction, whereby civil servant episodes stand out positively ($\bar{x}_{0\%} = 6.1$; $\bar{x}_{50\% \text{ and more}} = 7.8$) and marginal employment does so negatively ($\bar{x}_{0\%} = 6.6$; $\bar{x}_{50\% \text{ and more}} = 5.3$; Table 5). Contrarily, maximum differences in subjective "financial well-being" for full-time employment, part-time employment, self-employment, and employment abroad are smaller, mostly below one scale point.

Table 5: Mean life satisfaction by employment episodes in 2016

		Income	Health	Living standard	Work	Housing
Full-time employment*	0% (without times)	6.0	6.9	7.4	7.6	7.9
	1% to 24%	5.7	6.9	7.2	7.7	8.1
	25% to 49%	5.9	7.0	7.5	7.6	8.2
	50% and more	6.6	7.0	7.7	7.5	8.4
Part-time employment*	0% (without times)	6.3	7.0	7.5	7.6	8.2
	1% to 24%	5.8	6.9	7.4	7.6	8.1
	25% to 49%	6.3	7.1	8.1	7.6	8.5
	50% and more	6.4	7.1	8.0	7.4	8.6
Civil servant	0% (without times)	6.1	6.9	7.4	7.6	8.2
	1% to 24%	6.8	7.2	8.0	7.5	8.5
	25% to 49%	7.9	7.7	8.4	7.8	8.6
	50% and more	7.8	7.5	8.5	7.7	8.7
Self-employment	0% (without times)	6.2	6.9	7.5	7.5	8.2
	1% to 24%	5.9	7.1	7.4	7.5	8.1
	25% to 49%	6.2	7.7	7.8	8.0	8.5
	50% and more	6.4	7.5	7.7	8.0	8.3
Marginal employment	0% (without times)	6.6	7.1	7.7	7.7	8.3
	1% to 24%	5.6	6.7	7.2	7.5	8.0
	25% to 49%	6.0	7.1	7.5	7.6	8.3
	50% and more	5.3	7.3	6.8	7.8	8.2
Employment abroad	0% (without times)	6.3	7.0	7.6	7.6	8.3
	1% to 24%	5.8	6.8	7.1	7.6	7.8
	25% to 49%	5.4	6.8	6.5	7.0	7.5
	50% and more	5.4	7.4	7.0	7.6	6.9
All persons		**6.2**	**7.0**	**7.5**	**7.6**	**8.2**

** Employment subject to statutory pension insurance.*

Source: LeA (n = 8,901 people born 1957 to 1976).

Civil servant and marginal employment episodes also matter for satisfaction with standard of living and health. For housing satisfaction, employment abroad plays an additional role: longer episodes go along with considerably lower values of subjective well-being ($\bar{x}_{0\%} = 8.3$; $\bar{x}_{50\% \text{ and more}} = 6.9$). Interestingly, employment abroad tends to be associated with lower life

satisfaction, but it also seems to have at least a weak positive effect on health satisfaction ($\bar{x}_{0\%} = 7.0$; $\bar{x}_{50\% \text{ and more}} = 7.4$), which may indicate a "healthy immigrant effect" (Moullan and Jusot 2014).

Table 6: Mean life satisfaction by non-employment episodes in 2016

		Income	Health	Living standard	Work	Housing
Education and training	0% (without times)	5.4	6.4	6.7	7.4	7.7
	1% to 24%	6.1	6.9	7.5	7.6	8.2
	25% to 49%	7.1	7.8	8.2	7.7	8.4
	50% and more	6.5	7.9	8.0	8.0	8.2
Unemploy-ment or illness	0% (without times)	7.2	7.8	8.3	8.0	8.6
	1% to 24%	6.2	6.9	7.5	7.5	8.3
	25% to 49%	4.1	5.6	5.7	7.0	7.1
	50% and more	3.5	5.5	5.3	7.4	6.9
Child rearing	0% (without times)	6.4	7.0	7.5	7.5	8.1
	1% to 24%	6.3	7.1	7.7	7.7	8.2
	25% to 49%	5.9	6.8	7.6	7.6	8.5
	50% and more	5.3	6.3	7.1	7.7	7.9
Care for others	0% (without times)	6.2	7.0	7.5	7.6	8.2
	1% to 24%	5.3	6.4	7.2	7.5	8.5
	25% to 49%	5.9	6.3	6.9	7.3	8.1
	50% and more	(4.6)	(7.6)	(6.4)	(9.3)	(8.9)
Housework	0% (without times)	6.2	7.0	7.5	7.6	8.2
	1% to 24%	5.8	6.9	7.5	7.8	8.1
	25% to 49%	5.9	6.5	7.3	7.6	8.3
	50% and more	4.4	5.6	6.4	8.2	7.4
Pension receipt	0% (without times)	6.3	7.1	7.6	7.6	8.3
	1% to 24%	4.1	3.9	5.6	7.2	7.2
	25% to 49%	4.5	4.2	6.0	6.8	7.2
	50% and more	4.8	4.1	5.6	7.8	7.3
All persons		**6.2**	**7.0**	**7.5**	**7.6**	**8.2**

Source: LeA (n = 8,901 people born 1957 to 1976); (x) = n < 30.

Compared to employment episodes, differences with respect to subjective well-being are larger for episodes of non-employment (Table 6). This applies in a positive sense to education and training, while the remaining episodes tend to lead to lower life satisfaction. The latter is especially true for episodes of unemployment or illness and episodes of pension receipt,[24] but with some restrictions it also applies to child rearing, care for others, and household work. For instance, individuals who spent at least half of their biography in unemployment or illness report a considerably lower income satisfaction ($\bar{x}_{50\% \text{ and more}} = 3.5$)

[24] In view of the age of the people surveyed in the LeA study, episodes of pension receipt are almost exclusively reduced to disability pensions.

than people without those episodes ($\bar{x}_{0\%}$ = 7.2). Similar to episodes of employment, satisfaction with income, standard of living, and health seem to be most affected by non-employment, whereby the largest differences can be found for the already mentioned relationship between unemployment and illness on the one hand and income satisfaction on the other hand. Not surprisingly, also episodes of (disability) pension receipt is strongly associated with lower health satisfaction ($\bar{x}_{0\%}$ = 7.1; $\bar{x}_{50\% \text{ and more}}$ = 4.1).[25]

Table 7: Mean life satisfaction by biography types in 2016

	Income	**Health**	**Living standard**	**Work**	**Housing**
Full-time employment*	6.5	6.9	7.6	7.5	8.4
Full-time employment* and long-term education	6.5	7.1	7.6	7.6	8.2
Part-time employment* and care work	6.2	7.1	7.9	7.5	8.4
Civil servant	7.7	7.5	8.4	7.8	8.7
Self-employment	6.3	7.6	7.8	7.8	8.3
Employment abroad	5.4	6.9	6.6	7.4	7.3
Care work	5.5	6.6	7.3	7.7	8.2
Other	5.4	6.6	6.8	7.6	7.5
All persons	**6.2**	**7.0**	**7.5**	**7.6**	**8.2**

** Employment subject to statutory pension insurance.*

Source: LeA (n = 8,901 people born 1957 to 1976).

When shifting from episodes to biography types (Table 7), the same patterns are reflected. "Employment-centered" types, particularly the civil servant type, show the highest level of life satisfaction across domains. By contrast, types dominated by employment abroad and care work display lowest levels.[26] The satisfaction of civil servants with their income ($\bar{x}$ = 7.7) and standard of living ($\bar{x}$ = 8.4) stands out clearly from the other types. In contrast, belonging to the employment abroad type is associated with on average 2.3 ($\bar{x}_{\text{income}}$ = 5.4) respectively 1.8 scale points ($\bar{x}_{\text{standard of living}}$ = 6.6) lower satisfaction.

4.1.2 Old-age provision

There is also a clear correlation between the sum of entitlements resulting from all domestic pension schemes and subjective well-being (Table 8). Again, satisfaction with income and standard of living show the largest differences while work satisfaction shows the least dif-

[25] For the positive effects of receiving such a pension on life satisfaction for people who are disabled only see Börsch-Supan et al. 2017, Champion 2022.

[26] The "Other" type also shows low satisfaction values but due to its heterogeneity and status as a "residual category" (Section 3.2.3), it cannot be meaningfully interpreted.

ferences. People with the 20 percent highest entitlements of a year of birth ($\bar{x}_{5th\ quintile} = 7.8$) are on average three scale points more satisfied with their income than people with the 20 percent lowest entitlements ($\bar{x}_{1st\ quintile} = 4.8$).[27] A similar picture emerges for the sum of foreign pension entitlements, which is only available in categories ($\bar{x}_{under\ €250/month} = 5.7$; $\bar{x}_{500\ €/month\ and\ more} = 7.0$).

Table 8: Mean life satisfaction by old-age provision and wealth in 2016

		Income	Health	Living standard	Work	Housing
Domestic entitlements	1st quintile	4.8	5.9	6.3	7.4	7.4
	2nd quintile	5.4	6.9	7.1	7.5	8.0
	3rd quintile	6.1	7.2	7.6	7.5	8.3
	4th quintile	6.9	7.2	8.0	7.6	8.6
	5th quintile	7.8	7.6	8.5	7.8	8.7
Foreign entitlements	Under 250 €/month	5.7	6.9	6.9	7.6	7.6
	250 to 499 €/month	5.9	7.6	7.2	7.5	7.9
	500 €/month and more	7.0	7.6	8.0	8.1	8.4
Wealth	No assets	5.1	6.3	6.5	7.3	7.5
	Under 50,000 €	6.3	7.1	7.6	7.5	8.0
	50,000 to 99,999 €	6.6	7.0	7.9	7.7	8.5
	100,000 to 249,999 €	6.8	7.4	8.0	7.6	8.7
	250,000 to 499,999 €	7.2	7.5	8.4	7.8	9.0
	500,000 to 999,999 €	7.7	7.8	8.8	8.1	9.2
	1,000,000 € and more	7.8	8.0	8.9	8.6	9.1
All persons		**6.2**	**7.0**	**7.5**	**7.6**	**8.2**

Source: LeA (n = 8,901 people born 1957 to 1976).

In addition to the participation in statutory, occupational, and private pension schemes, old-age provision can also be made by means of general asset accumulation, for example, in the form of cash, real estate, business, and other assets (Table 8). However, this form of provision is less binding than the pension schemes discussed before. In fact, subjective well-being increases with wealth and this effect is strongest for satisfaction with income and standard of living and weakest for work satisfaction. The average satisfaction of wealthy people with assets of at least 1,000,000 € is 2.7 ($\bar{x}_{income} = 7.8$) resp. 2.4 scale points ($\bar{x}_{standard\ of\ living} = 8.9$) higher than that of people without any assets ($\bar{x}_{income} = 5.1$ and $\bar{x}_{standard\ of\ living} = 6.5$). In contrast, job satisfaction is "only" 1.3 scale points higher ($\bar{x}_{no\ assets} = 7.3$; $\bar{x}_{€\ 1,000,000\ and\ more} = 8.6$), which is still a big difference compared to the previously discussed determinants.

[27] The results differ slightly from Czaplicki et al. 2024, as the quintiles were defined somewhat differently; in particular, people without entitlement were also taken into account.

4.2 Multivariate analyses

Given the nearly normal distribution of satisfaction variables (see Figures A.1 and A.2 in the Appendix) and the robustness of OLS regression, a series of stepwise models was estimated. Four model versions (A-D) vary the inclusion and order of life course and old-age provision indicators (see Table 9).[28] The overall model fit is reported first (Section 4.2.1), followed by the unstandardized regression coefficients (b_i) for the best fitting model (Section 4.2.2).[29] Positive coefficients indicate the increase and negative a decrease in life satisfaction – measured on an 11-point scale (see Section 3.2.1) – for every unit of measurement of the chosen independent variable under control of all other independent variables.

4.2.1 Overall model fit

Starting with almost 20 variables measuring socio-demographics but also health and housing aspects in Step 1, which was identical for all series of regression models, overall fit ranges from an adjusted R^2 of only 0.091 for work to 0.661 for health (Table 9). This latter and quite impressive R^2 results from the consideration of the health indicators named in Section 3.2.5 and especially the assessment of the current health condition measured on a 5-point scale (see Table A.2 in the Appendix) – with every scale point of subjective health, satisfaction decreases by more than one and a half scale points (b = -1.557).

More interesting for the underlying research question is the fact that the additional consideration of life course and old-age provision indicators in the next two steps 2 and 3 does not substantially increase the explanatory power of regression models according to the small gain in (adjusted) R^2 values, although the difference of F-values is statistically significant for most steps (Table 9). Does this mean, that life courses and old-age provision are hardly relevant for subjective well-being? Not necessarily, because both could differentiate the statements of models without these determinants in case of significant regression coefficients in the full model to be discussed in the following Section 4.2.2.

Finally, to compare the influence of life courses on the one hand and old-age provision on the other hand as well as the influence of biographical episodes and types as life course indicators, the order of variables was varied in the stepwise regression models (Table 9).

[28] To avoid multicollinearity problems, either the total length of biographical episodes or biographical types were considered as life course indicators in the regression models.
[29] A list of all (un-)standardized coefficients b_i and $ß_i$ (including 95% confidence intervals), standard errors (SE), t values, and p values can be found in Tables A.1 to A.5 in the Appendix.

Table 9: OLS regression for different determinants of SWB in 2016 (adj. R^2 and p_F)

	Determinants	Income	Health	Living standard	Work	Housing
Step 1	Control variables (= baseline model)	0.388***	0.661***	0.379***	0.091***	0.218***
Step 2A	+ (Non-)employment years	0.398***	0.662***	0.388***	0.098***	0.220***
Step 3A	+ Old-age provision (= full model A/B)	0.402***	0.662	0.391***	0.099	0.221
Step 2B	+ Old-age provision	0.395***	0.661*	0.385***	0.094***	0.219*
Step 3B	+ (Non-)employment years (= full model A/B)	0.402***	0.662***	0.391***	0.099***	0.221**
Step 2C	+ Biography types	0.391***	0.661*	0.380	0.092*	0.220***
Step 3C	+ Old-age provision (= full model C/D)	0.396***	0.662*	0.385***	0.094**	0.221
Step 2D	+ Old-age provision	0.395***	0.661*	0.385***	0.094***	0.219**
Step 3D	+ Biography types (= full model C/D)	0.396***	0.662**	0.385	0.094	0.221***

Source: LeA (n = 8,901 people born 1957 to 1976); * $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$; *** $p < 0.001$.

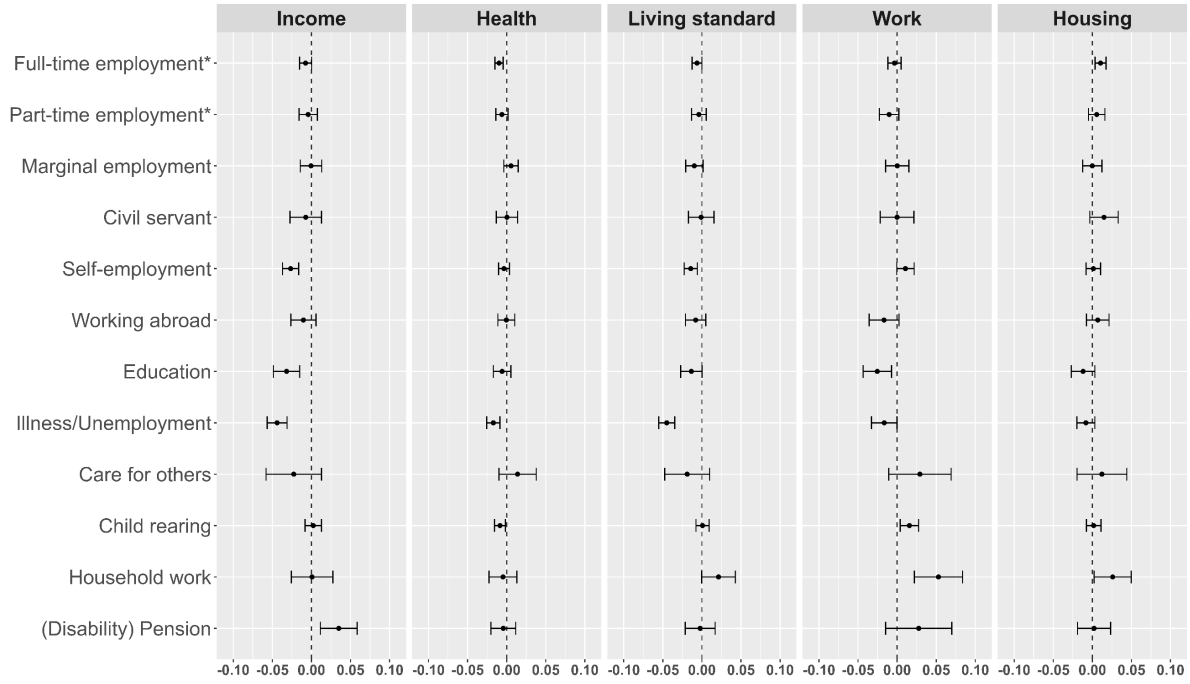
The R^2 values of steps 2A and 2C – or the R^2 values for full models A and B compared to those for models C and D – indicate that biographical episodes are at least a little more important than biographical types as life course indicators: Except from housing satisfaction ($R^2_{2A}/R^2_{2C} = 0.220$), R^2 values are consistently higher, when the amount of (non-)employment years is used for analyzing the relationship between life courses and subjective well-being.[30] Furthermore, the R^2 values of steps 2A and 2B indicate that life courses – measured by the amount of (non-)employment years – are at least a bit more important than old-age provision for subjective well-being. However, even the largest differences between both models for satisfaction with income ($R^2_{2A} = 0.398$; $R^2_{2B} = 0.395$), living standard ($R^2_{2A} = 0.388$; $R^2_{2B} = 0.385$), and work ($R^2_{2A} = 0.098$; $R^2_{2B} = 0.094$) are at a comparatively low level.

[30] Therefore, the discussion of the regression coefficients for the single determinants of life satisfaction in the following Section 4.2.2 will be based on full models A and B.

4.2.2 Regression coefficients

Looking at the unstandardized regression coefficients (b_i) for the total length of biographical episodes (measured in years) in the full models A and B first,[31] there are a few significant (and mostly negative) effects on subjective well-being for employment years like full-time employment subject to statutory pension insurance (b_{health} = -0.010; $b_{housing}$ = 0.010) and self-employment (b_{income} = -0.027; $b_{living\ standard}$ = -0.014; see Tables A.1 to A.5 in the Appendix) indicated by the 95% confidence intervals (CI) not touching the zero line of the coefficient plot (Figure 6). However, there are more significant effects for non-employment years and especially for unemployment or illness. For instance, with every year of the latter, income satisfaction decreases by -0.044 scale points (b = -0.044) and satisfaction with living standard decreases by -0.045 scale points (b = -0.045). Other significant effects can be observed for years of education, child rearing, household work, and (disability) pension receipt, while there are no significant effects for care for others.

Figure 6: Biography years and SWB in 2016
(b coefficients with 95%-CI; full model A/B)



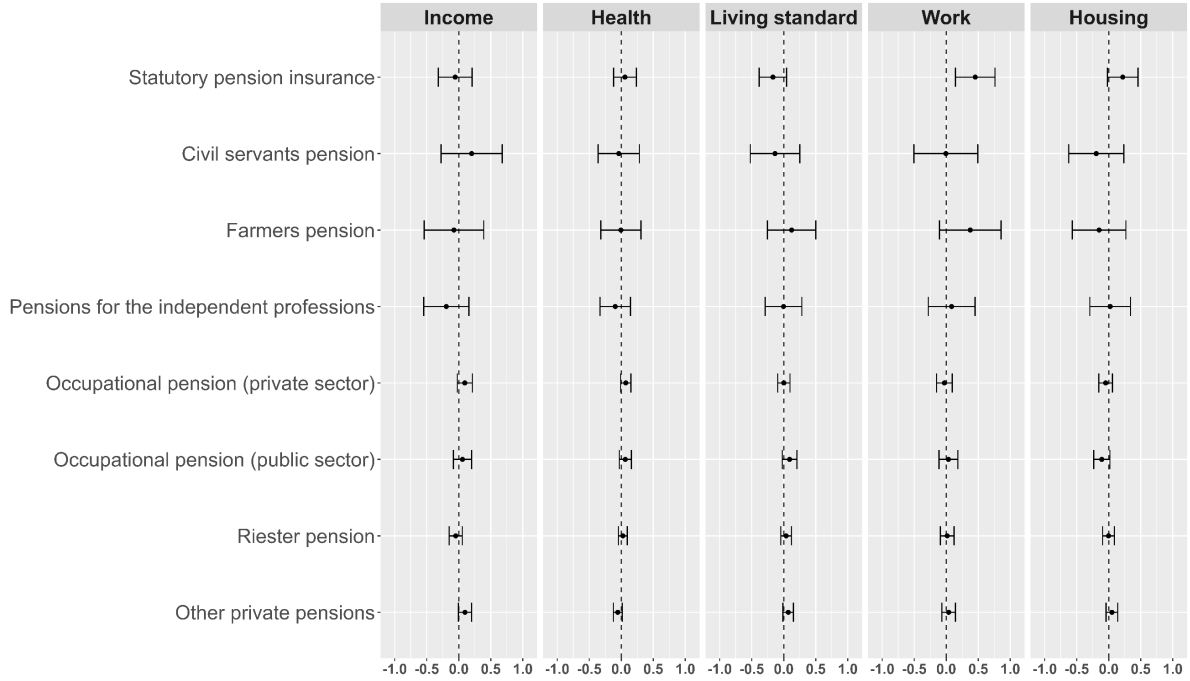
** Employment subject to statutory pension insurance.*

Source: LeA (n = 8,901 people born 1957 to 1976).

[31] For a direct comparison of all effects independent of measurement, the standardized coefficients $ß_i$ can be found in Tables A.1 to A.5 in the Appendix.

In contrast, there is only one single significant effect for the participation in the different pension schemes on subjective well-being across all five live domains (Figure 7). Surprisingly, this is the case for work satisfaction of those participating in the statutory pension insurance (b = 0.453; Table A.4) but not for civil servants, at least when controlling for other determinants of subjective well-being. Consequently, the strong bivariate correlations between years spent as a civil servant and subjective well-being (see Table 5) can be attributed to the influence of other variables.

Figure 7: Participation in pension schemes and SWB in 2016
(b coefficients with 95%-CI; full model A/B)

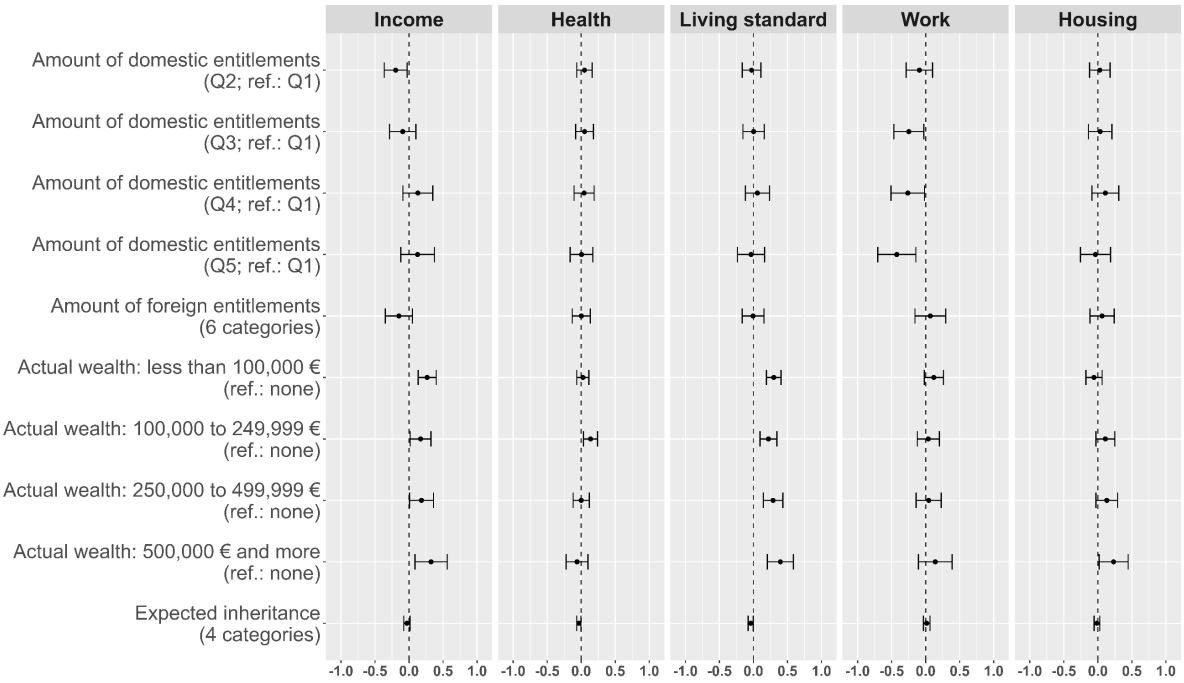


Source: LeA (n = 8,901 people born 1957 to 1976).

Finally, there are some significant effects on subjective well-being for the total pension entitlements in Germany as well as for the accumulated amount of wealth (Figure 8). Contrarily, expecting a future inheritance only makes a difference for satisfaction with health (b = -0.035) and living standard (b = -0.039; Table A.3) while total pension entitlements abroad don't play a role at all. Not surprisingly, income satisfaction ($b_{\text{less than 100,000 €}} = 0.267$; $b_{\text{100,000 to 249,999 €}} = 0.170$; $b_{\text{250,000 to 499,999 €}} = 0.183$; $b_{\text{500,000 € and more}} = 0.324$; Table A.1) and living standard satisfaction ($b_{\text{less than 100,000 €}} = 0.299$; $b_{\text{100,000 to 249,999 €}} = 0.220$; $b_{\text{250,000 to 499,999 €}} = 0.289$; $b_{\text{500,000 € and more}} = 0.396$; Table A.3) is much higher for those belonging to the higher wealth

categories than for those belonging to the reference group of those without any assets. Interestingly and in contrast to the bivariate relationships discussed in Section 4.1.1, there are quite a few significant negative effects of total domestic pension entitlements on work satisfaction (b_{Q3} = -0.247; b_{Q4} = -0.262; b_{Q5} = -0.424; Table A.4).

Figure 8: Pension entitlements, wealth, expected inheritance and SWB in 2016
(b coefficients with 95%-CI; full model A/B)



Source: LeA (n = 8,901 people born 1957 to 1976).

5 Summary and conclusions

The paper has shown that there are manifold relationships between life courses and old-age provision on the one hand and life satisfaction on the other hand. The findings indicate that both old-age provision and (non-)employment biographies influence life satisfaction, even though the strength of these effects varies across domains. Based on data of the LeA study, which combines retrospective survey data with linked pension records, we examined five satisfaction domains among individuals aged 40-59.

At the bivariate level, clear associations emerge. Continuous and employment-centered biographies – above all civil servants – report higher satisfaction, while biographies dominated by care and work or employment abroad are linked to lower satisfaction. Among individual episodes, unemployment, illness, and pension receipt are most clearly associated with reduced

well-being. In contrast, education and training are positively related to life satisfaction. With respect to old-age provision, higher pension entitlements and especially greater wealth correspond to higher satisfaction with income and living standards.

In multivariate models, the explanatory power of life course and provision related indicators remains more limited, but many coefficients are still significant and differentiate the statements and associations. Non-employment episodes, particularly unemployment and illness, continue to show strong negative effects. Wealth displays the most robust positive associations. Pension entitlements, however, lose importance once other factors are controlled for. Only statutory pension participation shows a positive link to work satisfaction, while the apparent advantages if civil servants disappear when controls are included.

Overall, the results underline the cumulative impact of employment biographies. Stable employment improves both old-age provision and psychosocial resources, while repeated phases of non-employment reduce financial satisfaction and life satisfaction more broadly. Wealth provides an additional buffer and compensates for disadvantages. The findings also demonstrate the value of analyzing satisfaction separately by domain. Income and standard of living are most directly shaped by biographies and old-age provision, whereas health and housing are influenced by other determinants.

To deepen and differentiate the results, future research should broaden the population to encompass additional age groups. Since the present analyses are confined to individuals aged 40–59, the findings cannot be generalized to younger or older cohorts. Furthermore, entitlements acquired abroad were available only in categorical form, and expectations of inheritance are likely underestimated. For the specification of biography types, parallelism of (non-)employment episodes and the partner context could be considered. Additionally, a path-analytical decomposition (cf. Bollen 1989) of the direct and indirect effects of (non-)employment episodes on life satisfaction would be interesting.

Finally, future studies should address certain limitations and expand the age range, apply longitudinal perspectives, and incorporate cross-national comparisons to capture institutional differences. A precondition for such analyses is the availability of suitable data, as provided by the LeA study. These data should be expanded in terms of content (e.g., satisfaction with old-age provision) and methodology (e.g., longitudinal data to test causal effects), and should be regularly updated to allow for continuous and up-to-date research.

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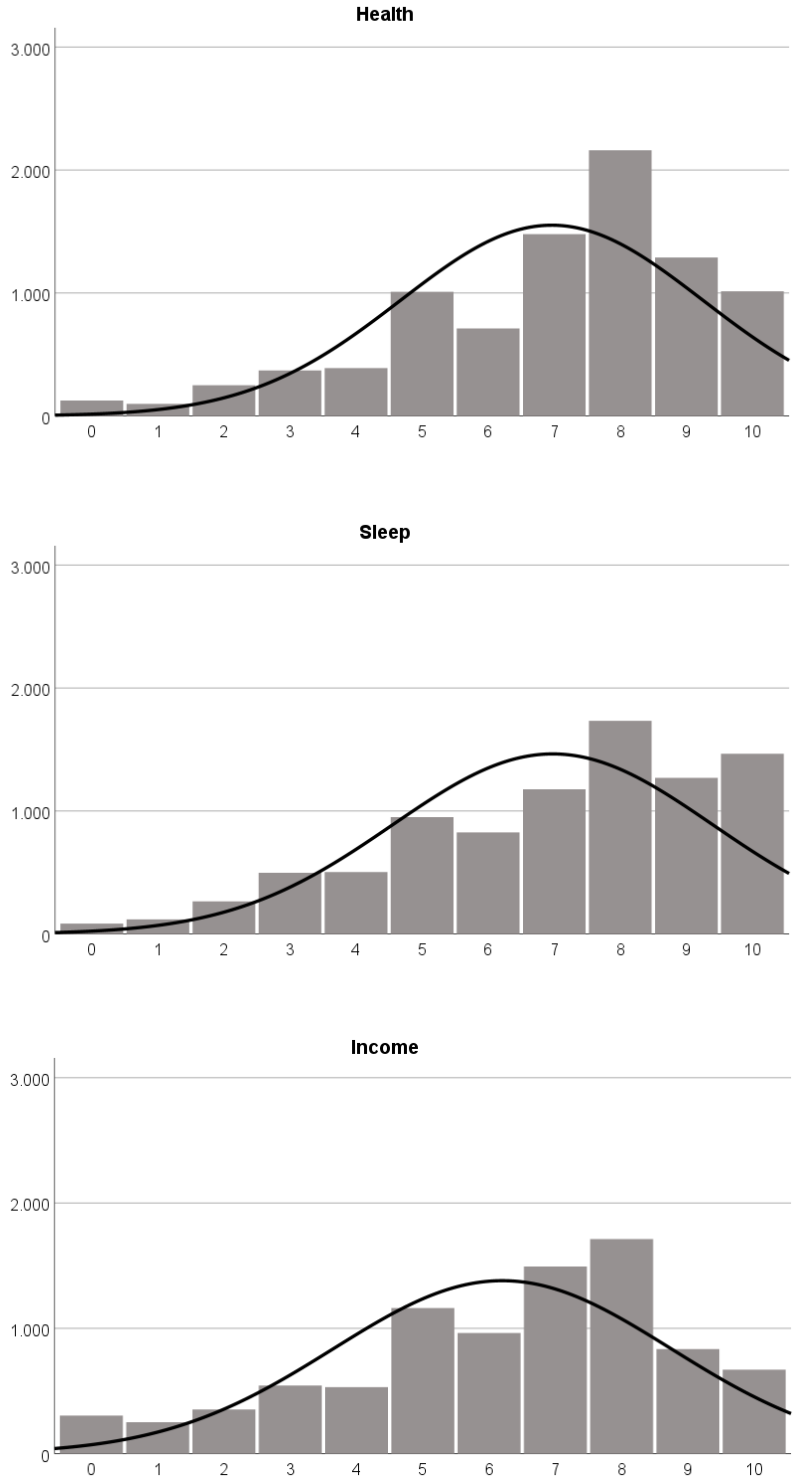
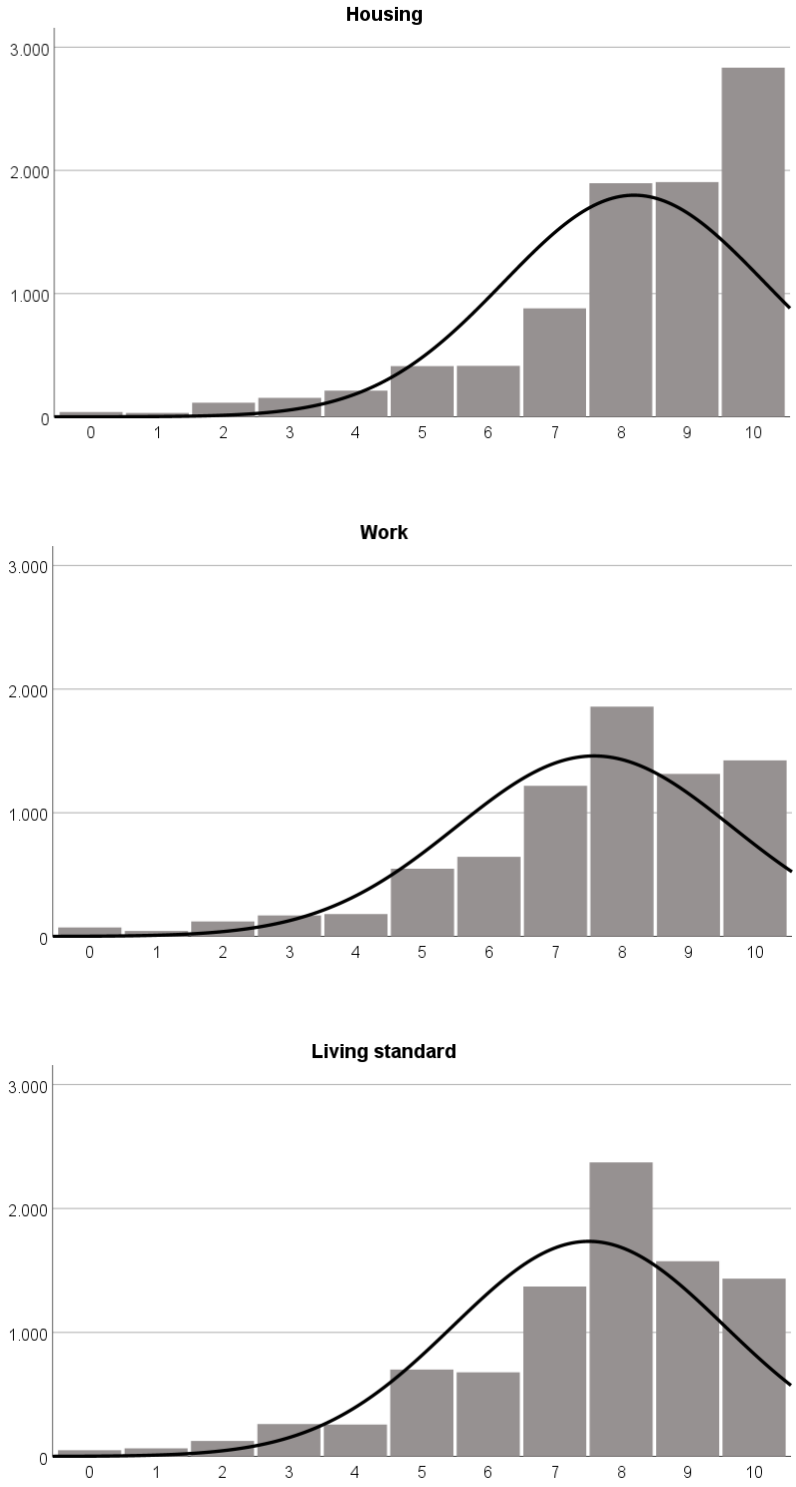
Appendix

Figure A.1: Distribution of satisfaction with health, sleep, and income (abs.)



Source: LeA (n = 8,901 people born 1957 to 1976).

Figure A.2: Distribution of satisfaction with housing, work, and living standard (abs.)



Source: LeA (n = 8,901 people born 1957 to 1976).

Table A.1: OLS regression of satisfaction with income in 2016 (full model A/B)

Determinant	Indicator	b	SE	ß	t	p	$b_{CI\ 95\%-}$	$b_{CI\ 95\%+}$
Age	40 to 44 years	0.037	0.090	0.006	0.404	0.686	-0.141	0.214
	45 to 49 years	0.042	0.075	0.007	0.564	0.573	-0.104	0.188
	50 to 54 years	-0.037	0.065	-0.007	-0.568	0.570	-0.163	0.090
Sex/Region	Women (West Germany)	0.506	0.094	0.098	5.355	0.000	0.321	0.691
	Men (West Germany)	-0.005	0.083	-0.001	-0.065	0.948	-0.168	0.158
	Women (East Germany)	0.368	0.111	0.043	3.326	0.001	0.151	0.584
Education	CASMIN 2	0.016	0.059	0.003	0.264	0.792	-0.101	0.132
	CASMIN 3	0.096	0.094	0.016	1.023	0.306	-0.088	0.281
Marital status	Single	-0.073	0.080	-0.012	-0.915	0.360	-0.231	0.084
	Divorced	0.029	0.084	0.004	0.346	0.729	-0.136	0.195
	Widowed	0.321	0.164	0.019	1.955	0.051	-0.001	0.644
Partnership: yes		0.068	0.076	0.012	0.894	0.371	-0.081	0.217
Number of children		0.013	0.031	0.005	0.417	0.677	-0.047	0.073
Single parenthood: yes		-0.369	0.074	-0.054	-5.007	0.000	-0.513	-0.224
Household size		-0.165	0.029	-0.080	-5.605	0.000	-0.223	-0.107
Household income (in €/month)		0.287	0.020	0.225	14.017	0.000	0.247	0.327
Personal income (in €/month)		0.463	0.025	0.288	18.577	0.000	0.414	0.512
Migration	Germans without experience	-0.009	0.094	-0.001	-0.099	0.921	-0.193	0.175
	Germans with experience	0.228	0.106	0.025	2.149	0.032	0.020	0.437
Health: subjective state (5 categories)		-0.460	0.028	-0.182	-16.474	0.000	-0.515	-0.405
Health: number of doctor visits		-0.011	0.014	-0.008	-0.825	0.410	-0.038	0.015
Health: disability	Yes, partly	-0.155	0.097	-0.015	-1.593	0.111	-0.346	0.036
	Yes, fully	-0.801	0.151	-0.064	-5.304	0.000	-1.098	-0.505
Housing status: tenant		-0.084	0.068	-0.017	-1.231	0.218	-0.218	0.050
Housing expenses (6 categories)		-0.061	0.015	-0.039	-4.023	0.000	-0.091	-0.031
Housing: living space (4 categories)		0.016	0.036	0.006	0.450	0.653	-0.055	0.088
Employment episodes (in years)	Full-time employment*	-0.008	0.004	-0.036	-1.896	0.058	-0.015	0.000
	Part-time employment*	-0.004	0.006	-0.008	-0.706	0.480	-0.016	0.007
	Marginal employment	-0.001	0.007	-0.001	-0.079	0.937	-0.014	0.013
	Civil servant	-0.007	0.010	-0.016	-0.710	0.478	-0.027	0.013
	Self-employment	-0.027	0.005	-0.062	-5.044	0.000	-0.037	-0.016
	Working abroad	-0.010	0.008	-0.017	-1.255	0.210	-0.026	0.006
Non-Employment episodes (in years)	Education	-0.032	0.009	-0.050	-3.705	0.000	-0.049	-0.015
	Illness/Unemployment	-0.044	0.006	-0.083	-6.757	0.000	-0.057	-0.031
	Care for others	-0.023	0.018	-0.011	-1.252	0.211	-0.058	0.013
	Child rearing	0.002	0.005	0.006	0.438	0.662	-0.008	0.013
	Household work	0.001	0.014	0.001	0.058	0.954	-0.026	0.027
	(Disability) Pension	0.035	0.012	0.034	2.910	0.004	0.011	0.059
Old-age provision	Statutory pension insurance	-0.056	0.135	-0.004	-0.412	0.680	-0.320	0.209
	Civil servants' pension	0.201	0.244	0.018	0.824	0.410	-0.277	0.679
	Farmers' pension	-0.075	0.237	-0.003	-0.318	0.751	-0.540	0.390
	Liberal professions' pension	-0.194	0.180	-0.011	-1.079	0.281	-0.547	0.159
	Occupational pension (private)	0.094	0.060	0.017	1.566	0.117	-0.024	0.212
	Occupational pension (public)	0.058	0.072	0.008	0.805	0.421	-0.083	0.199
	Riester pension	-0.048	0.052	-0.009	-0.909	0.363	-0.150	0.055
	Other private pension	0.097	0.052	0.019	1.875	0.061	-0.004	0.199
Entitlements (domestic)	2nd quintile	-0.196	0.086	-0.030	-2.286	0.022	-0.364	-0.028
	3rd quintile	-0.092	0.099	-0.015	-0.935	0.350	-0.286	0.101
	4th quintile	0.130	0.112	0.021	1.162	0.245	-0.089	0.349
	5th quintile	0.126	0.126	0.020	0.999	0.318	-0.121	0.374
Entitlements (abroad) (6 categories)		-0.149	0.101	-0.018	-1.468	0.142	-0.347	0.050
Wealth	Less than 100,000 €	0.267	0.068	0.043	3.942	0.000	0.134	0.399
	100,000 to 249,999 €	0.170	0.078	0.027	2.167	0.030	0.016	0.323
	250,000 to 499,999 €	0.183	0.090	0.024	2.033	0.042	0.007	0.359
	500,000 € and more	0.324	0.121	0.029	2.676	0.007	0.087	0.562
Expectation of inheritance (4 categories)		-0.031	0.024	-0.013	-1.307	0.191	-0.077	0.015
Constant		**4.995**	**0.282**		**17.722**	**0.000**	**4.443**	**5.548**

** Employment subject to statutory pension insurance.*

Source: LeA (n = 8,901 people born 1957 to 1976).

Table A.2: OLS regression of satisfaction with health in 2016 (full model A/B)

Determinant	Indicator	b	SE	ß	t	p	$b_{CI\ 95\%-}$	$b_{CI\ 95\%+}$
Age	40 to 44 years	-0.083	0.061	-0.015	-1.364	0.173	-0.202	0.036
	45 to 49 years	0.018	0.050	0.004	0.366	0.714	-0.080	0.117
	50 to 54 years	-0.014	0.043	-0.003	-0.331	0.741	-0.100	0.071
Sex/Region	Women (West Germany)	0.194	0.064	0.042	3.057	0.002	0.070	0.319
	Men (West Germany)	0.167	0.056	0.037	2.980	0.003	0.057	0.277
	Women (East Germany)	0.151	0.074	0.020	2.033	0.042	0.005	0.297
Education	CASMIN 2	0.038	0.040	0.008	0.945	0.345	-0.041	0.116
	CASMIN 3	-0.007	0.063	-0.001	-0.104	0.917	-0.131	0.118
Marital status	Single	0.069	0.054	0.012	1.278	0.201	-0.037	0.175
	Divorced	0.020	0.057	0.003	0.347	0.728	-0.092	0.131
	Widowed	0.033	0.111	0.002	0.294	0.769	-0.184	0.249
Partnership: yes		-0.028	0.051	-0.005	-0.544	0.586	-0.128	0.072
Number of children		0.002	0.021	0.001	0.114	0.909	-0.038	0.043
Single parenthood: yes		0.032	0.049	0.005	0.649	0.517	-0.065	0.129
Household size		-0.034	0.020	-0.018	-1.700	0.089	-0.073	0.005
Household income (in €/month)		0.038	0.014	0.033	2.767	0.006	0.011	0.065
Personal income (in €/month)		0.006	0.017	0.004	0.340	0.734	-0.027	0.039
Migration	Germans without experience	0.136	0.063	0.024	2.154	0.031	0.012	0.260
	Germans with experience	0.079	0.071	0.010	1.110	0.267	-0.061	0.219
Health: subjective state (5 categories)		-1.557	0.019	-0.689	-82.841	0.000	-1.593	-1.520
Health: number of doctor visits		-0.115	0.009	-0.096	-12.525	0.000	-0.133	-0.097
Health: disability	Yes, partly	-0.405	0.065	-0.044	-6.186	0.000	-0.533	-0.277
	Yes, fully	-1.144	0.102	-0.103	-11.251	0.000	-1.343	-0.945
Housing status: tenant		0.060	0.046	0.013	1.310	0.190	-0.030	0.150
Housing expenses (6 categories)		-0.010	0.010	-0.007	-1.018	0.309	-0.030	0.010
Housing: living space (4 categories)		0.074	0.024	0.029	3.049	0.002	0.027	0.122
Employment episodes (in years)	Full-time employment*	-0.010	0.003	-0.052	-3.662	0.000	-0.015	-0.005
	Part-time employment*	-0.006	0.004	-0.013	-1.523	0.128	-0.014	0.002
	Marginal employment	0.006	0.005	0.009	1.184	0.236	-0.004	0.015
	Civil servant	0.000	0.007	0.001	0.057	0.955	-0.013	0.014
	Self-employment	-0.003	0.004	-0.009	-0.974	0.330	-0.010	0.004
	Working abroad	0.000	0.006	-0.001	-0.079	0.937	-0.011	0.010
Non-employment episodes (in years)	Education	-0.006	0.006	-0.010	-1.008	0.314	-0.017	0.006
	Illness/Unemployment	-0.017	0.004	-0.036	-3.904	0.000	-0.026	-0.009
	Care for others	0.014	0.012	0.008	1.144	0.253	-0.010	0.038
	Child rearing	-0.008	0.004	-0.025	-2.382	0.017	-0.015	-0.002
	Household work	-0.005	0.009	-0.004	-0.518	0.605	-0.023	0.013
	(Disability) Pension	-0.004	0.008	-0.005	-0.530	0.596	-0.020	0.012
Old-age provision	Statutory pension insurance	0.057	0.091	0.005	0.633	0.527	-0.120	0.235
	Civil servants' pension	-0.039	0.164	-0.004	-0.237	0.812	-0.360	0.283
	Farmers' pension	-0.006	0.160	0.000	-0.037	0.971	-0.319	0.307
	Liberal professions' pension	-0.094	0.121	-0.006	-0.773	0.439	-0.331	0.144
	Occupational pension (private)	0.070	0.040	0.014	1.738	0.082	-0.009	0.150
	Occupational pension (public)	0.063	0.048	0.010	1.309	0.191	-0.032	0.158
	Riester pension	0.024	0.035	0.005	0.694	0.488	-0.045	0.093
	Other private pension	-0.055	0.035	-0.012	-1.563	0.118	-0.123	0.014
Entitlements (domestic)	2nd quintile	0.048	0.058	0.008	0.832	0.406	-0.065	0.161
	3rd quintile	0.049	0.066	0.009	0.739	0.460	-0.081	0.179
	4th quintile	0.042	0.075	0.008	0.563	0.574	-0.105	0.190
	5th quintile	0.004	0.085	0.001	0.051	0.960	-0.162	0.171
Entitlements (abroad) (6 categories)		0.001	0.068	0.000	0.014	0.989	-0.132	0.134
Wealth	Less than 100,000 €	0.024	0.046	0.004	0.534	0.594	-0.065	0.114
	100,000 to 249,999 €	0.137	0.053	0.025	2.597	0.009	0.034	0.240
	250,000 to 499,999 €	-0.001	0.061	0.000	-0.009	0.992	-0.119	0.118
	500,000 € and more	-0.062	0.081	-0.006	-0.756	0.450	-0.221	0.098
Expectation of inheritance (4 categories)		-0.035	0.016	-0.016	-2.203	0.028	-0.066	-0.004
Constant		**10.890**	**0.190**		**57.421**	**0.000**	**10.518**	**11.261**

** Employment subject to statutory pension insurance.*

Source: LeA (n = 8,901 people born 1957 to 1976).

Table A.3: OLS regression of satisfaction with living standard in 2016 (full model A/B)

Determinant	**Indicator**	**b**	**SE**	**ß**	**t**	**p**	**$b_{CI\ 95\%-}$**	**$b_{CI\ 95\%+}$**
Age	40 to 44 years	-0.045	0.073	-0.009	-0.620	0.535	-0.189	0.098
	45 to 49 years	-0.044	0.060	-0.009	-0.720	0.472	-0.162	0.075
	50 to 54 years	-0.041	0.052	-0.009	-0.792	0.428	-0.144	0.061
Sex/Region	Women (West Germany)	0.437	0.077	0.105	5.711	0.000	0.287	0.587
	Men (West Germany)	0.030	0.067	0.007	0.439	0.661	-0.103	0.162
	Women (East Germany)	0.427	0.090	0.062	4.770	0.000	0.252	0.603
Education	CASMIN 2	-0.014	0.048	-0.003	-0.287	0.774	-0.108	0.080
	CASMIN 3	0.024	0.076	0.005	0.311	0.756	-0.126	0.173
Marital status	Single	-0.009	0.065	-0.002	-0.133	0.894	-0.136	0.119
	Divorced	-0.034	0.068	-0.006	-0.498	0.619	-0.168	0.100
	Widowed	-0.067	0.133	-0.005	-0.501	0.616	-0.328	0.194
Partnership: yes		0.192	0.061	0.040	3.115	0.002	0.071	0.312
Number of children		-0.041	0.025	-0.021	-1.643	0.100	-0.089	0.008
Single parenthood: yes		-0.087	0.060	-0.016	-1.456	0.146	-0.204	0.030
Household size		-0.139	0.024	-0.084	-5.843	0.000	-0.186	-0.093
Household income (in €/month)		0.285	0.017	0.277	17.153	0.000	0.252	0.317
Personal income (in €/month)		0.096	0.020	0.074	4.760	0.000	0.056	0.135
Migration	Germans without experience	0.461	0.076	0.090	6.057	0.000	0.312	0.611
	Germans with experience	0.287	0.086	0.039	3.332	0.001	0.118	0.456
Health: subjective state (5 categories)		-0.497	0.023	-0.245	-21.960	0.000	-0.541	-0.453
Health: number of doctor visits		0.013	0.011	0.012	1.211	0.226	-0.008	0.035
Health: disability	Yes, partly	0.060	0.079	0.007	0.762	0.446	-0.094	0.215
	Yes, fully	-0.523	0.122	-0.052	-4.275	0.000	-0.763	-0.283
Housing status: tenant		-0.175	0.055	-0.043	-3.173	0.002	-0.284	-0.067
Housing expenses (6 categories)		-0.049	0.012	-0.040	-4.033	0.000	-0.074	-0.025
Housing: living space (4 categories)		0.080	0.029	0.034	2.707	0.007	0.022	0.137
Employment episodes (in years)	Full-time employment*	-0.006	0.003	-0.037	-1.946	0.052	-0.013	0.000
	Part-time employment*	-0.004	0.005	-0.009	-0.801	0.423	-0.013	0.006
	Marginal employment	-0.010	0.006	-0.017	-1.710	0.087	-0.021	0.001
	Civil servant	-0.001	0.008	-0.003	-0.118	0.906	-0.017	0.015
	Self-employment	-0.014	0.004	-0.041	-3.336	0.001	-0.023	-0.006
	Working abroad	-0.008	0.007	-0.017	-1.200	0.230	-0.021	0.005
Non-employment episodes (in years)	Education	-0.013	0.007	-0.026	-1.938	0.053	-0.027	0.000
	Illness/Unemployment	-0.045	0.005	-0.106	-8.540	0.000	-0.055	-0.035
	Care for others	-0.019	0.015	-0.012	-1.285	0.199	-0.048	0.010
	Child rearing	0.001	0.004	0.003	0.188	0.851	-0.008	0.009
	Household work	0.021	0.011	0.019	1.944	0.052	0.000	0.043
	(Disability) Pension	-0.002	0.010	-0.003	-0.228	0.820	-0.021	0.017
Old-age provision	Statutory pension insurance	-0.169	0.109	-0.016	-1.545	0.122	-0.383	0.045
	Civil servants' pension	-0.136	0.197	-0.015	-0.689	0.491	-0.523	0.251
	Farmers' pension	0.123	0.192	0.006	0.639	0.523	-0.254	0.499
	Liberal professions' pension	-0.003	0.146	0.000	-0.021	0.983	-0.289	0.283
	Occupational pension (private)	0.001	0.049	0.000	0.024	0.981	-0.094	0.097
	Occupational pension (public)	0.091	0.058	0.016	1.567	0.117	-0.023	0.206
	Riester pension	0.037	0.042	0.008	0.868	0.385	-0.046	0.120
	Other private pension	0.070	0.042	0.017	1.663	0.096	-0.012	0.152
Entitlements (domestic)	2nd quintile	-0.027	0.070	-0.005	-0.392	0.695	-0.164	0.109
	3rd quintile	0.003	0.080	0.001	0.033	0.974	-0.154	0.159
	4th quintile	0.058	0.091	0.012	0.642	0.521	-0.119	0.236
	5th quintile	-0.036	0.102	-0.007	-0.347	0.728	-0.236	0.165
Entitlements (abroad) (6 categories)		-0.006	0.082	-0.001	-0.067	0.946	-0.166	0.155
Wealth	Less than 100,000 €	0.299	0.055	0.060	5.453	0.000	0.192	0.406
	100,000 to 249,999 €	0.220	0.063	0.044	3.474	0.001	0.096	0.345
	250,000 to 499,999 €	0.289	0.073	0.048	3.959	0.000	0.146	0.432
	500,000 € and more	0.396	0.098	0.045	4.038	0.000	0.204	0.588
Expectation of inheritance (4 categories)		-0.039	0.019	-0.020	-2.072	0.038	-0.077	-0.002
Constant		**7.001**	**0.229**		**30.632**	**0.000**	**6.553**	**7.450**

** Employment subject to statutory pension insurance.*

Source: LeA (n = 8,901 people born 1957 to 1976).

Table A.4: OLS regression of satisfaction with work in 2016 (full model A/B)

Determinant	Indicator	b	SE	ß	t	p	$b_{CI\ 95\%-}$	$b_{CI\ 95\%+}$
Age	40 to 44 years	0.142	0.099	0.028	1.437	0.151	-0.052	0.335
	45 to 49 years	0.120	0.081	0.026	1.480	0.139	-0.039	0.280
	50 to 54 years	0.057	0.071	0.013	0.808	0.419	-0.082	0.196
Sex/Region	Women (West Germany)	0.222	0.103	0.052	2.168	0.030	0.021	0.423
	Men (West Germany)	0.086	0.090	0.021	0.955	0.340	-0.090	0.262
	Women (East Germany)	0.293	0.121	0.041	2.420	0.016	0.056	0.530
Education	CASMIN 2	-0.061	0.065	-0.015	-0.940	0.347	-0.188	0.066
	CASMIN 3	-0.120	0.100	-0.025	-1.200	0.230	-0.317	0.076
Marital status	Single	-0.003	0.086	-0.001	-0.038	0.970	-0.173	0.166
	Divorced	0.296	0.092	0.048	3.219	0.001	0.116	0.477
	Widowed	0.381	0.191	0.025	1.996	0.046	0.007	0.755
Partnership: yes		0.144	0.083	0.028	1.724	0.085	-0.020	0.307
Number of children		0.080	0.034	0.040	2.390	0.017	0.014	0.146
Single parenthood: yes		-0.127	0.081	-0.022	-1.561	0.119	-0.287	0.033
Household size		-0.042	0.032	-0.024	-1.314	0.189	-0.105	0.021
Household income (in €/month)		0.085	0.022	0.075	3.827	0.000	0.041	0.128
Personal income (in €/month)		0.170	0.027	0.124	6.227	0.000	0.116	0.223
Migration	Germans without experience	0.103	0.107	0.019	0.967	0.334	-0.106	0.312
	Germans with experience	0.120	0.119	0.016	1.015	0.310	-0.112	0.353
Health: subjective state (5 categories)		-0.501	0.031	-0.218	-16.223	0.000	-0.561	-0.440
Health: number of doctor visits		-0.020	0.015	-0.018	-1.411	0.158	-0.049	0.008
Health: disability	Yes, partly	0.099	0.115	0.010	0.861	0.389	-0.126	0.323
	Yes, fully	0.121	0.294	0.005	0.414	0.679	-0.454	0.697
Housing status: tenant		0.020	0.073	0.005	0.282	0.778	-0.122	0.163
Housing expenses (6 categories)		-0.018	0.016	-0.015	-1.171	0.242	-0.049	0.012
Housing: living space (4 categories)		0.147	0.039	0.060	3.790	0.000	0.071	0.223
Employment episodes (in years)	Full-time employment*	-0.003	0.004	-0.019	-0.774	0.439	-0.012	0.005
	Part-time employment*	-0.010	0.006	-0.024	-1.607	0.108	-0.023	0.002
	Marginal employment	0.000	0.008	0.000	0.021	0.983	-0.015	0.015
	Civil servant	0.000	0.011	0.000	-0.004	0.997	-0.022	0.021
	Self-employment	0.011	0.006	0.031	1.876	0.061	0.000	0.022
	Working abroad	-0.017	0.010	-0.032	-1.715	0.086	-0.036	0.002
Non-employment episodes (in years)	Education	-0.025	0.009	-0.048	-2.740	0.006	-0.044	-0.007
	Illness/Unemployment	-0.016	0.008	-0.029	-1.986	0.047	-0.033	0.000
	Care for others	0.029	0.020	0.017	1.431	0.153	-0.011	0.069
	Child rearing	0.016	0.006	0.049	2.618	0.009	0.004	0.028
	Household work	0.053	0.016	0.041	3.357	0.001	0.022	0.084
	(Disability) Pension	0.028	0.022	0.017	1.279	0.201	-0.015	0.070
Old-age provision	Statutory pension insurance	0.453	0.157	0.039	2.883	0.004	0.145	0.761
	Civil servants' pension	-0.006	0.254	-0.001	-0.022	0.982	-0.504	0.493
	Farmers' pension	0.375	0.245	0.019	1.530	0.126	-0.106	0.856
	Liberal professions' pension	0.084	0.186	0.006	0.449	0.653	-0.281	0.449
	Occupational pension (private)	-0.028	0.063	-0.006	-0.451	0.652	-0.151	0.095
	Occupational pension (public)	0.035	0.075	0.006	0.462	0.644	-0.112	0.181
	Riester pension	0.014	0.055	0.003	0.263	0.792	-0.093	0.122
	Other private pension	0.038	0.054	0.009	0.699	0.484	-0.068	0.144
Entitlements (domestic)	2nd quintile	-0.092	0.099	-0.017	-0.929	0.353	-0.286	0.102
	3rd quintile	-0.247	0.112	-0.050	-2.207	0.027	-0.467	-0.028
	4th quintile	-0.262	0.126	-0.054	-2.081	0.037	-0.509	-0.015
	5th quintile	-0.424	0.143	-0.087	-2.965	0.003	-0.705	-0.144
Entitlements (abroad) (6 categories)		0.069	0.115	0.010	0.598	0.550	-0.157	0.294
Wealth	Less than 100,000 €	0.120	0.072	0.024	1.678	0.093	-0.020	0.260
	100,000 to 249,999 €	0.039	0.083	0.008	0.475	0.635	-0.123	0.201
	250,000 to 499,999 €	0.045	0.094	0.008	0.476	0.634	-0.140	0.230
	500,000 € and more	0.142	0.126	0.016	1.125	0.261	-0.105	0.388
Expectation of inheritance (4 categories)		0.015	0.025	0.007	0.585	0.559	-0.034	0.063
Constant		**6.715**	**0.313**		**21.429**	**0.000**	**6.101**	**7.330**

** Employment subject to statutory pension insurance.*

Source: LeA (n = 8,901 people born 1957 to 1976).

Table A.5: OLS regression of satisfaction with housing in 2016 (full model A/B)

Determinant	Indicator	b	SE	ß	t	p	$b_{CI\ 95\%-}$	$b_{CI\ 95\%+}$
Age	40 to 44 years	0.027	0.081	0.006	0.336	0.737	-0.132	0.187
	45 to 49 years	0.076	0.067	0.017	1.130	0.258	-0.056	0.207
	50 to 54 years	0.000	0.058	0.000	-0.002	0.998	-0.114	0.114
Sex/Region	Women (West Germany)	0.185	0.085	0.045	2.179	0.029	0.019	0.351
	Men (West Germany)	-0.103	0.075	-0.026	-1.381	0.167	-0.250	0.043
	Women (East Germany)	0.333	0.099	0.049	3.356	0.001	0.139	0.528
Education	CASMIN 2	0.007	0.053	0.002	0.141	0.888	-0.097	0.112
	CASMIN 3	0.011	0.085	0.002	0.134	0.893	-0.155	0.177
Marital status	Single	-0.219	0.072	-0.044	-3.033	0.002	-0.361	-0.077
	Divorced	-0.123	0.076	-0.022	-1.625	0.104	-0.272	0.025
	Widowed	0.132	0.148	0.010	0.896	0.370	-0.157	0.422
Partnership: yes		0.027	0.068	0.006	0.399	0.690	-0.107	0.161
Number of children		-0.009	0.028	-0.005	-0.340	0.734	-0.063	0.045
Single parenthood: yes		-0.018	0.066	-0.003	-0.277	0.782	-0.148	0.111
Household size		-0.201	0.026	-0.124	-7.604	0.000	-0.253	-0.149
Household income (in €/month)		0.125	0.018	0.124	6.800	0.000	0.089	0.161
Personal income (in €/month)		0.005	0.022	0.004	0.218	0.828	-0.039	0.049
Migration	Germans without experience	0.567	0.084	0.113	6.720	0.000	0.402	0.733
	Germans with experience	0.448	0.095	0.063	4.691	0.000	0.261	0.635
Health: subjective state (5 categories)		-0.296	0.025	-0.149	-11.779	0.000	-0.345	-0.246
Health: number of doctor visits		0.031	0.012	0.030	2.565	0.010	0.007	0.055
Health: disability	Yes, partly	-0.127	0.087	-0.016	-1.448	0.148	-0.298	0.045
	Yes, fully	-0.230	0.136	-0.024	-1.694	0.090	-0.496	0.036
Housing status: tenant		-0.564	0.061	-0.141	-9.200	0.000	-0.684	-0.444
Housing expenses (6 categories)		0.033	0.014	0.027	2.420	0.016	0.006	0.060
Housing: living space (4 categories)		0.374	0.033	0.163	11.477	0.000	0.310	0.438
Employment episodes (in years)	Full-time employment*	0.010	0.004	0.064	2.932	0.003	0.003	0.017
	Part-time employment*	0.006	0.005	0.013	1.044	0.297	-0.005	0.016
	Marginal employment	0.000	0.006	0.000	-0.014	0.989	-0.012	0.012
	Civil servant	0.015	0.009	0.042	1.610	0.108	-0.003	0.033
	Self-employment	0.001	0.005	0.004	0.273	0.785	-0.008	0.011
	Working abroad	0.007	0.007	0.015	0.948	0.343	-0.007	0.021
Non-employment episodes (in years)	Education	-0.012	0.008	-0.024	-1.538	0.124	-0.027	0.003
	Illness/Unemployment	-0.008	0.006	-0.020	-1.416	0.157	-0.020	0.003
	Care for others	0.012	0.016	0.008	0.752	0.452	-0.020	0.044
	Child rearing	0.002	0.005	0.006	0.344	0.731	-0.008	0.011
	Household work	0.026	0.012	0.023	2.141	0.032	0.002	0.050
	(Disability) Pension	0.002	0.011	0.003	0.208	0.835	-0.019	0.023
Old-age provision	Statutory pension insurance	0.219	0.121	0.021	1.803	0.071	-0.019	0.456
	Civil servants' pension	-0.194	0.219	-0.022	-0.888	0.375	-0.624	0.235
	Farmers' pension	-0.150	0.213	-0.008	-0.703	0.482	-0.568	0.268
	Liberal professions' pension	0.023	0.162	0.002	0.140	0.889	-0.295	0.340
	Occupational pension (private)	-0.048	0.054	-0.011	-0.891	0.373	-0.154	0.058
	Occupational pension (public)	-0.109	0.065	-0.019	-1.677	0.094	-0.235	0.018
	Riester pension	-0.003	0.047	-0.001	-0.074	0.941	-0.096	0.089
	Other private pension	0.049	0.047	0.012	1.060	0.289	-0.042	0.141
Entitlements (domestic)	2nd quintile	0.028	0.077	0.006	0.368	0.713	-0.123	0.179
	3rd quintile	0.034	0.089	0.007	0.384	0.701	-0.140	0.208
	4th quintile	0.110	0.100	0.023	1.096	0.273	-0.087	0.307
	5th quintile	-0.035	0.113	-0.007	-0.310	0.757	-0.258	0.187
Entitlements (abroad) (6 categories)		0.061	0.091	0.009	0.674	0.500	-0.117	0.239
Wealth	Less than 100,000 €	-0.057	0.061	-0.012	-0.944	0.345	-0.177	0.062
	100,000 to 249,999 €	0.111	0.070	0.023	1.575	0.115	-0.027	0.249
	250,000 to 499,999 €	0.132	0.081	0.022	1.626	0.104	-0.027	0.290
	500,000 € and more	0.231	0.109	0.027	2.119	0.034	0.017	0.444
Expectation of inheritance (4 categories)		-0.013	0.021	-0.007	-0.622	0.534	-0.055	0.028
Constant		**6.938**	**0.253**		**27.393**	**0.000**	**6.442**	**7.435**

** Employment subject to statutory pension insurance.*

Source: LeA (n = 8,901 people born 1957 to 1976).