

Dollar Matching Schemes for Wages and Investments in a Post-Labor Economy – Extant and Hypothetical Models

Introduction

As economies edge toward a **post-labor future** dominated by automation, policymakers are rethinking how to support household incomes beyond traditional wages. One promising set of tools is “**dollar-matching**” **schemes**, where governments or institutions contribute funds to **match individual earnings or personal savings**. These programs, spanning **wage supplements** (like earned-income credits) and **savings matches** (for retirement, education, or asset building), aim to boost incomes, encourage desirable behavior (work effort or saving), and build long-term security. This report provides a comprehensive survey of such matching schemes across the United States, Europe, and OECD countries – both historical and current – and explores how they could integrate into a **future income architecture** alongside Universal Basic Income (UBI), sovereign wealth dividends, and cooperative income streams.

We begin with a **taxonomy of matching programs by type** – from retirement and education savings matches to wage supplementation credits. We then present **case studies** of prominent programs (e.g. the U.S. Earned Income Tax Credit and new Saver’s Match, Canada’s Education Savings Grant, the UK’s Lifetime ISA and Help to Save, Singapore’s Workfare, etc.), detailing their design, **fiscal architecture**, uptake rates, and observed **behavioral impacts**. A comparative analysis highlights differences in generosity, reach, and administration across countries and time. We also examine measures for **fraud prevention, efficient administration, and eligibility targeting** in these programs, critical to their success. Finally, the report advances a **forward-looking model** for synthesizing these schemes into a **post-labor income system** – one where matching incentives complement base incomes (like UBI and social dividends) to promote work, skill development, and personal wealth accumulation. We qualitatively assess the fiscal scale, potential constraints, and macroeconomic impacts of such an integrated approach.

Throughout, tables and summaries are provided for clarity, and sources are cited for further reference. The goal is an exhaustive reference on “matching” policies as building blocks for equitable income distribution in an era when labor alone may not sustain livelihoods.

Taxonomy of Matching Schemes by Type

1. Wage Matching and Earned Income Supplements: Programs that **augment earned income** by providing a government-funded match or bonus for low wages. These are typically delivered through the tax system or benefit system. Examples include **earned income tax credits** (refundable tax credits that phase in with earnings, effectively “matching” a portion of wages) and in-work cash benefits. These aim to **increase take-home pay** for low-income workers and incentivize employment ¹ ² .

2. Retirement Savings Matches: Policies that **match individual contributions** to retirement accounts to encourage long-term saving. These can be structured as **tax credits converted to matches** (e.g. the U.S. Saver’s Credit now becoming a Saver’s Match) or direct government co-contributions to private pension accounts (e.g. New Zealand’s KiwiSaver and Australia’s Super Co-contribution). The match rate is usually a percentage of personal contributions (commonly 20–50% up to a cap), effectively a **government “return” on personal savings** ³ ⁴ .

3. Education and Development Savings Matches: Programs that match contributions toward **education savings** (like college funds) or other development goals (homeownership, starting a business). These include grants such as the **Canada Education Savings Grant (CESG)**, which matches parental contributions to college funds, and experimental **Individual Development Accounts (IDAs)** that provided matches for designated uses (education, home purchase, etc.). Such schemes target asset-building for future productivity and mobility ⁵ ⁶ .

4. General or Rainy-Day Savings Matches: Incentives for **short-term or emergency savings** among low-income households. A notable example is the UK **Help to Save** program, which offers a 50% match on small deposits over four years to encourage a savings buffer ⁷ ⁸ . Similarly, some countries or localities have offered time-limited matching for general savings to build financial resilience.

5. Employer-Funded vs. Public-Funded Matches: While this report focuses on public programs, it’s worth noting the distinction between **employer matching** (common in workplace retirement plans) and **government matching**. Many retirement schemes combine both – e.g. employers match employee 401(k) contributions, *and* governments offer tax credits or direct matches for certain savers. Here we emphasize government-implemented or government-subsidized matches as policy instruments.

Table 1 below summarizes the major categories of matching schemes and their typical features:

Scheme Type	Target Population	Match Structure	Example Programs
Wage Supplements (Earned Income Matches)	Low-income workers with earnings	Refundable tax credit or benefit that phases in with earnings (“matching” a portion of wages)	U.S. Earned Income Tax Credit; France’s Prime d’activité; Canada Workers Benefit; Singapore Workfare
Retirement Savings Matches	Retirement savers (often low or moderate income)	Government contributes a percentage of personal retirement contributions (often 20–50% up to a cap)	U.S. Saver’s Match (from 2027); New Zealand KiwiSaver; Australia Super Co-contribution; UK Lifetime ISA (for retirement use)

Scheme Type	Target Population	Match Structure	Example Programs
Education/ Development Savings Matches	Parents saving for children; low-income adults saving for education, home, etc.	Government matches contributions to special accounts (college funds, IDAs) usually up to annual limits	Canada Education Savings Grant; UK Child Trust Fund (initial grants); U.S. 529 college savings state match programs; IDA demonstrations (various countries)
Emergency/ General Savings Matches	Low-income individuals lacking safety nets	Government matches deposits to savings over a period to build emergency funds	UK Help to Save (50% match on up to £50/month); pilot “Saving Gateway” in UK (not implemented nationally)
Hybrid Asset-Building Matches	Individuals with limited wealth (often with age or income criteria)	One-time or annual matching grants to encourage personal or family contributions to investment accounts	Singapore Matched Retirement Savings Scheme (matches cash top-ups for seniors’ accounts); Proposed “baby bonds” with family matches; others as proposed in policy debates

Each type addresses a different aspect of financial security (daily income vs. long-term assets) but shares a common design: **public funds leverage private effort** (work or savings) by providing a matching boost. Below we delve into case studies of notable programs in each category, examining their structure, uptake, outcomes, and lessons.

Case Studies of Prominent Matching Programs

1. Wage Supplementation Programs (Earned Income Matches)

United States – Earned Income Tax Credit (EITC): The U.S. EITC, introduced in 1975 and expanded over decades, is one of the largest wage-matching schemes in the world. It is a **refundable tax credit for low-income workers** that functions like a negative income tax: at very low earnings, the credit increases as earnings increase (effectively “matching” a share of earnings), then plateaus and phases out at higher incomes. For example, a single parent with two children in 2023 can receive a maximum credit around \$6,800, reached at earned income of ~\$15,000, after which the credit tapers off ⁹ ¹⁰. The match rate in the phase-in can be as high as 40% of wages (for families with two children), providing a strong incentive to work.

- **Uptake and Impact:** The EITC today reaches about **25 million families** annually and is credited with lifting **millions out of poverty** each year. Participation among eligible families with children is high (over 80%), though it’s lower (around 65%) for those without children ¹¹ ¹². Nationally about 79% of eligible workers claimed the credit in 2019 ¹³. Research consistently finds the EITC **boosts labor force participation**, especially among single parents, by making work more financially rewarding ¹⁴. It has been linked to improved child well-being (better infant health, test scores, etc.) as additional income flows to low-income families ¹⁵. However, because the EITC is delivered as an

annual lump sum at tax time, some argue it could do more to smooth monthly income (periodic payment pilots have been tested).

- **Fiscal Scale:** The federal EITC cost was about \$70 billion in recent years. It is fully refundable (any credit beyond tax liability is paid as a benefit). Many U.S. states supplement it with their own EITCs (usually a fraction of the federal credit) to further match low wages. The **administrative architecture** is through the tax system – simple for employers (no direct involvement) but complex for the IRS.
- **Administration and Integrity:** Because eligibility depends on income and family composition, the EITC has faced challenges with **improper payments**. Errors often arise from verifying qualifying children and income from self-employment. In recent years, an estimated 22–25% of EITC payments were improper, amounting to ~\$16–19 billion – a high rate that successive administrations have tried to reduce ¹⁶ ¹⁷. Measures to improve compliance include better income reporting and auditing of suspect claims, but there's a trade-off: strict enforcement may deter legitimate claims by eligible workers (some **eligible non-claimant rate** persists around 20% overall ¹³, often those facing barriers like language or filing requirements). Simplification and outreach are ongoing needs.
- **Behavioral Considerations:** The EITC's structure can create **plateaus and phase-outs** that affect behavior. Within the phase-in range, each additional dollar earned yields a higher credit (a strong work incentive); within the phase-out, additional earnings reduce the credit (essentially a marginal tax rate increase). There is evidence some second earners in married couples or those near the cutoff might limit earnings to avoid credit phase-out (a work disincentive at the upper end), though the positive impacts on primary earners and labor force entry are generally found to outweigh these effects ¹⁰ ¹⁸. Notably, the credit is based on annual income, so there have been proposals to smooth it or pay it monthly to better support stable employment. Recent experiments with periodic payments indicate families prefer the lump sum for large purchases or debt, though policy discussions continue.

United Kingdom – Working Tax Credit and Universal Credit: The UK has likewise used wage supplements, though delivered as a benefit rather than a tax refund. **Working Tax Credit (WTC)**, introduced in the early 2000s, provided a top-up to low-wage workers (with a focus on those working a minimum number of hours per week). It functioned similarly to EITC (phase-in, plateau, phase-out), but was paid weekly or monthly. In 2013, the UK began rolling WTC and other benefits into a **Universal Credit (UC)** system. Under UC, low-income households (whether in work or not) receive a consolidated benefit that **tapers as earnings rise** – effectively an ongoing negative income tax with a 55% taper rate currently. This means for each additional £1 of earnings, UC is reduced by £0.55 (previously £0.63, lowered to improve incentives). In practice, UC provides an **in-work benefit** via its **work allowance** (an earnings disregard) and slow taper, aiming to ensure work pays. Around 3.2 million people were on UC with employment income as of 2023, reflecting its broad role in wage supplementation. UC's real-time integration with payroll data (via HMRC's RTI system) has improved administration, though the system has faced criticism for delays and complexity during rollout. The **behavioral impact** of UC's wage matching element is mixed: it removes the sharp benefit cliffs of the old system, but the effective marginal tax rate of 55% on additional earnings can still be a barrier for progressing to higher hours or pay. The UK is effectively testing a **continuous matching model** where *every* pound earned is partially matched (or rather, not fully taken away) by a reduction in benefit, smoothing the transition to self-sufficiency.

France – Prime d'activité: France merged a previous in-work credit (Prime Pour l'Emploi) and a welfare benefit (RSA activité) into the **Prime d'activité** in 2016. This is a monthly **employment bonus** paid to low-wage workers. Like the EITC, it is means-tested on income, but it's paid out **monthly by the CAF (family benefits office)** based on current income. As of 2024, about **4 million people in France receive Prime d'activité**, which is designed “to encourage people to enter work even if the pay is low” ² ¹⁹ . The amount depends on household income and composition; for instance, a single worker with minimum wage might receive a few hundred euros per month extra, with maximums (for zero-income aside from a small activity) around €622 for a single person, higher for those with children ²⁰ . The benefit helped improve the income of the working poor and has a high uptake, especially after a significant expansion in 2019 (when eligibility was widened, leading to a 43% surge in beneficiaries) ²¹ . Non-takeup remains an issue (estimated over a third of eligible might not claim, often due to administrative burden or lack of awareness ²²). France's scheme illustrates a **direct wage match via social security** rather than the tax code, enabling more frequent payment but requiring coordination with other benefits to avoid overlaps.

Canada – Canada Workers Benefit (CWB): Canada's federal wage supplement, formerly the Working Income Tax Benefit (WITB), was rebranded and expanded as the **CWB**. It is a refundable tax credit much like the EITC: low-income workers over 19 (without children) or those with families can claim it when filing taxes. In 2023, the CWB provided a 27% match on earnings above \$3,000, up to a maximum credit of \$1,518 for singles and \$2,616 for families, then phasing out at moderate income levels ¹ . About **2.5 million Canadians** (out of ~30 million adults) benefited in 2022, and the annual cost is projected at \$4.5 billion ²³ . To improve **uptake and timeliness**, Canada recently introduced **Advance CWB payments** – automatically providing up to half the expected credit in advance (split in three, during the year) ²⁴ , so that workers don't wait until tax time for the entire benefit. However, there remain concerns that CWB is not achieving its goals fully: the maximum amounts are relatively low (a full-time minimum-wage worker can still remain below poverty even with CWB) ²⁵ , and its phase-in range is short (a single filer hits max credit by just \$8,600 earnings ²⁶). Some analysts call for raising the match or adding a base amount so that full-time work guarantees escaping poverty ²⁷ ²⁵ . As a work incentive, evidence is mixed – awareness of the benefit is limited among some eligible groups, and the credit may be too small to significantly change labor supply decisions ²⁸ . The government has taken steps to increase uptake by simplifying filing for low earners and marketing the program ²⁹ .

Singapore – Workfare Income Supplement (WIS): Singapore's Workfare is a distinctive example of a wage-matching scheme outside the Western context. Introduced in 2007 as a permanent feature, **WIS supplements the incomes of the bottom 20-30% of workers** and has a dual goal: encourage work and **build retirement savings** ³⁰ ³¹ . Uniquely, WIS pays out partly in cash and partly into the worker's Central Provident Fund (CPF) accounts (for retirement and healthcare). For **employees**, WIS is paid **monthly** based on wages reported by employers. The amount varies by age: older low-wage workers get more. As of 2023, an employee aged 45–59 earning under S\$2,500/month could get up to **S\$3,600 per year** in WIS; a senior aged 60+ could receive up to **S\$4,200 per year** ³² ³³ . (These maximums are achieved at incomes around S\$1,200–1,500/month; there is a minimum work income of S\$500/month to qualify, and benefits phase out by S\$2,500–3,000/month ³⁴ ³⁵ . From 2025 the income cap is being raised to S\$3,000 and payouts slightly increased ³² .) Importantly, **40% of WIS is paid in cash and 60% credited to CPF** (for most employees) ³⁶ – aligning with Singapore's ethos of forced savings. Self-employed gig workers are also eligible, but their WIS comes annually and mostly as CPF MediSave contributions (to nudge them to contribute to health insurance) ³⁷ ³⁸ .

– **Scale and Uptake:** Workfare reaches a large share of Singapore’s labor force. Over 1.035 million workers have benefited since inception, with S\$10.5 billion disbursed by 2024 ³⁹. In recent years, around 400,000 workers per year (out of ~2.3 million employed citizens) likely received WIS, reflecting broad coverage of the lower-income bracket. It has been **tightly targeted** – recipients must be age 30 or above (recently lowered from 35) unless disabled, have low household asset values, and if married, have a low-income spouse ³⁴ ⁴⁰. These criteria prevent abuse (e.g. a high-earning spouse indirectly benefiting or well-off households qualifying via one low-wage job). The system is administratively efficient: eligibility is auto-assessed via CPF wage records, and payments are automatic (no separate application or tax filing needed) ⁴¹ ⁴². This virtually eliminates non-takeup among those eligible and working formally.

– **Impacts:** Workfare’s effectiveness is evident in **raising incomes and CPF savings** for older low-wage workers. By conditioning on work, it likely helped increase labor force participation of seniors – which in Singapore is high (the employment rate of 55–64 year-olds rose significantly in the past decade). The CPF portion means participants accumulate retirement funds; some studies show Workfare payouts contribute materially to CPF balances by retirement age for consistent low earners. However, one trade-off is that because a large part is not immediately spendable (locked for retirement), the **perceived boost** to take-home pay is smaller. Currently only 40% is cash; earlier it was 50%, and initially even lower for self-employed (10% cash). The government has adjusted these ratios over time to balance immediate needs vs. future security ³⁶. **Fraud prevention** is strong: since regular employer CPF contributions determine the benefit, there is little room for misreporting. Any employer not paying due CPF would face legal penalties, and the worker can report it ⁴³ ⁴⁴. This makes Workfare essentially **self-policing** via the existing payroll tax system.

– **Comparative Note:** Singapore’s Workfare is similar in concept to an earned income credit but delivered more continuously and with a forced-saving element. It represents how a **wage match scheme can be melded with pension policy**. Other countries might find this integration useful: for example, a portion of an earned income credit could be deposited in a retirement account (as an option) to emulate this model. The U.S. Saver’s Match (discussed later) moves in that direction for savings, though not tied to earnings per se.

Other Examples: Several other OECD countries have adopted or trialed wage matching:

- **South Korea** introduced an EITC in 2008 (first in Asia, inspired by the U.S.) to support the “working poor” and as an alternative to raising welfare benefits ⁴⁵ ⁴⁶. It started small (covering ~1.8% of households in 2009) but expanded to more households and higher maximum credits over time ⁴⁷. Korea’s EITC is household-based and includes a supplement for those with children, similar to the U.S. The maximum annual credit has roughly doubled since inception (from about ₩1.2 million to ₩2.4 million, roughly \$1,800) ⁴⁸. By raising income thresholds (as noted in 2024 reforms) ⁴⁹, Korea is enlarging coverage to groups like young single-person households. They have also combined it with a Child Tax Credit for low-income families. The Korean case demonstrates how the EITC concept can be transplanted, but also the importance of tailoring to local contexts (initial uptake was modest due to low awareness and a stigma against filing for a “tax handout,” which the government mitigated through outreach and by framing it as tax reduction rather than welfare).
- **Japan** has debated an EITC but so far uses other instruments like employment subsidies to firms. Some European countries (e.g. Belgium and the Netherlands) prefer **in-work benefits delivered via**

payroll (reducing taxes or giving bonuses for workers below certain income) rather than separate credits – effectively negative income tax through the employer.

In summary, wage-matching schemes like EITC and its analogues have become mainstream policy in many developed nations. They generally share these features: *they are targeted (phasing out by moderate income), reward work at the low end, have sizable take-up (when administered simply), and yield proven benefits in poverty reduction and labor market inclusion.* The challenges lie in **minimizing complexity and error**, setting optimal phase-out rates (to balance incentive vs. cost), and updating parameters (like income thresholds) to keep pace with wages.

2. Retirement and Long-Term Investment Matching Programs

Encouraging individuals to save for retirement or other long-term goals is another area where matching schemes are widely used. Unlike wage supplements, these programs typically operate by **matching personal contributions into savings/investment accounts** – effectively *free money* added to one's savings when one saves on their own. Below are key case studies.

United States – Saver's Credit and Saver's Match (SECURE 2.0): Since 2001 the U.S. has had a “Saver's Credit,” a tax credit for contributions to retirement accounts (401(k), IRA, etc.) by low- and middle-income individuals. The credit was up to 50% of contributions (for the lowest income bracket) up to \$2,000 contributed (\$1,000 maximum credit), but it was *non-refundable* – meaning it only offset taxes owed. This limited its reach, as many low-income savers owe little income tax. In 2022, as part of the SECURE 2.0 Act, Congress transformed this into a true **government matching contribution**. Starting in 2027, the **Saver's Match** will provide a **50% match on retirement contributions up to \$2,000 per person per year** (still \$1,000 max), **deposited directly into the saver's retirement account** – regardless of tax liability ³ ⁵⁰. The match will gradually phase out at higher incomes (for example, joint filers get the full 50% match up to \$41,000 income, phasing to zero by \$71,000) ⁵¹ ⁵². This essentially turns an obscure credit into a tangible “federal employer match” for low-income workers' 401(k)/IRA contributions.

- **Rationale and Expected Impact:** The shift addresses two problems: First, under the old credit only ~5.7% of taxpayers claimed it (around 9 million people in 2019), with an average credit of just \$191 ⁵³. Many low-income workers missed out either because they had no tax due or were unaware. Second, even when claimed, the benefit arrived as a tax refund, not necessarily boosting retirement savings (people could spend the credit). The Saver's Match by contrast will **directly boost retirement balances** for potentially *22 million Americans* annually ⁵⁴, including many who never benefited before. Preliminary estimates suggest it could incentivize **8.5 million new savers** to start contributing to retirement plans ⁵⁵ ⁵⁶. It is also more progressive, phasing out slowly rather than dropping off a cliff, so more moderate-income families will get partial matches ⁵⁷ ⁵⁸. By depositing the match into the account, it **binds the incentive to the desired behavior (saving)**. Over decades, these matched contributions plus compound interest could significantly improve retirement security for lower earners.
- **Administrative Considerations:** Implementing the Saver's Match is non-trivial. The U.S. Treasury and IRS must develop a system to transfer funds into millions of private accounts after tax filing ⁵⁹. This raises questions of how to handle cases where an account is closed or an employer plan won't accept outside contributions ⁶⁰ ⁶¹. SECURE 2.0 mandates a public awareness campaign, as lack of knowledge was a barrier with the Saver's Credit ⁶². Fraud risk is relatively low, since matches only

go to verifiable retirement accounts tied to a person. One caveat: the match will be contributed as a *pretax* amount (like a traditional IRA deposit) even if the individual's own contribution was to a Roth account (after-tax) ⁶³. This means some savers might end up with two accounts (a minor complexity for those using only Roth IRAs). Overall, the Saver's Match represents a major innovation aligning U.S. policy with the **"government co-contribution" model** seen elsewhere.

Canada – Registered Education Savings Plans (RESP) and Canada Education Savings Grant (CESG): Canada has a well-established program to encourage saving for children's higher education. Parents (or others) can contribute to a tax-sheltered RESP for a child, and the federal government provides the **Canada Education Savings Grant** on those contributions. The **basic CESG is 20%** of annual contributions up to \$2,500 per child – i.e. up to \$500 grant per year, with a lifetime grant cap of \$7,200 ⁵. On top of this, **lower-income families** get an **additional CESG**: an extra 10% or 20% on the first \$500 contributed each year (depending on income level) ⁶. For example, a low-income family contributing \$500 would get a \$100 basic CESG + \$100 additional CESG = \$200 (a 40% match); a middle-income family would get \$150 total (30%); a high-income family just \$100 (20%). All these grants are *deposited into the RESP* and can only be used for post-secondary education expenses. If the child does not pursue post-secondary education, the grant money is returned to the government ⁶⁴ ⁶⁵, preventing misuse.

- **Reach and Effectiveness:** The RESP/CESG system has been quite successful. As of recent data, roughly half of Canadian children have RESP accounts, and the total CESG paid in 2018 was about C\$915 million (indicative of substantial participation) ⁶⁶. The **uptake has grown** thanks to initiatives like the **Canada Learning Bond (CLB)** – a separate grant for low-income families that deposits an initial \$500 (and \$100 annually) into an RESP even if they don't contribute. The CLB (no match required) works alongside CESG to kickstart savings for the poorest. The behavioral impact is clear: CESG provides a strong incentive to contribute at least \$2,500 annually (to max the grant). Many middle-class families plan their contributions around getting the full \$500 each year. For lower-income families, the additional CESG and CLB have increased RESP ownership, though there are still gaps (some don't know about it or find the account opening process onerous). Studies indicate that children with even modest education savings are more likely to attend college – the **asset effect** – so the CESG matching scheme is viewed as promoting both savings and educational aspirations.

- **Administration and Controls:** CESG is administered by Employment and Social Development Canada (ESDC) in partnership with the Canada Revenue Agency. RESP providers (banks, credit unions, investment firms) apply for the grants on behalf of their clients when contributions are made. This public-private delivery model has worked smoothly: the provider handles paperwork, and the grants flow automatically into the accounts. Fraud has been minimal, partly because funds are earmarked for education and there are age and enrollment requirements for withdrawal (e.g. contributions in the last year or two before a child turns 17 may not attract CESG unless a pattern of saving was established earlier ⁶⁷ ⁶⁸ – a rule to prevent dumping money just to get the grant). By and large, CESG is seen as a **stable and popular policy**, so much so that some other countries have emulated elements (e.g. the UK's now-discontinued Child Trust Fund gave every child a starter deposit; some U.S. states offer small 529 account matches to encourage college savings).

United Kingdom – Lifetime Individual Savings Account (Lifetime ISA): The UK's Lifetime ISA, launched in 2017, is a hybrid product for young adults that incorporates a government matching element. Individuals age 18–39 can open a Lifetime ISA and contribute up to £4,000 per year; the government adds a **25% bonus on contributions** (up to £1,000/year). This is effectively a **dollar-for-dollar match of ¼ of what you save**.

The funds, including the bonus, can be used for **either** purchasing a first home (up to a property value limit of £450,000) or withdrawn after age 60 for retirement. Withdrawals at other times incur a penalty (originally 25%, which actually claws back slightly more than the bonus). The Lifetime ISA (LISA) thus serves dual purposes: encourage younger people to **save for homeownership and retirement**, with a sizable government incentive.

- **Uptake and Usage:** As of 2023, LISAs have grown in popularity. By the 2022/23 tax year, about **767,000 Lifetime ISA accounts** received contributions ⁶⁹, and total LISA contributions reached £2.4 billion, almost double the amount three years prior (indicating rapid growth) ⁷⁰. The product has particularly attracted higher-rate taxpaying young professionals for retirement saving (as an alternative to pensions) and aspiring first-time homebuyers. According to HMRC statistics, the LISA bonus paid by the government was around £450 million in 2022/23. The average subscription per LISA was roughly £3,000, close to the maximum bonus threshold – implying many users take full advantage of the match ⁷¹ ⁷². While the LISA has clearly spurred additional saving (especially for those who can max it out), there are debates on its policy efficacy. Critics note it mostly benefits those already able to save £4,000/year (skewing toward middle- and upper-income young adults). Indeed, evidence suggests a lot of LISA funds come from transfers or re-labelling of existing savings (from other ISAs), rather than entirely new saving. There is also concern it might deter some from pension saving (though pensions have their own employer match and tax relief). Nonetheless, for first-time homebuyers, the 25% boost has been very valuable, often equating to several thousand pounds extra for a deposit, helping people get on the property ladder sooner.
- **Administration:** Individuals open LISAs with banks or investment platforms, and those providers request the 25% bonus from the government (HMRC) for each contribution. Bonuses are credited monthly. The scheme's rules and penalties enforce appropriate use. If someone withdraws early for a non-qualifying reason, a 25% penalty applies (which means if you put in £4,000 and got a £1,000 bonus = £5,000 total, a 25% penalty on £5,000 is £1,250, leaving £3,750 – so you lose the £1,000 bonus plus £250 of your own money, a disincentive to misuse) ⁷³ ⁷⁴. During COVID-19, the penalty was temporarily reduced to 20% to allow flexibility without punishing savers too much ⁷⁵. Fraud risk is minimal since funds go into registered accounts and property purchases are verified through solicitors who apply for the bonus toward closing. One administrative challenge is ensuring people do not exceed the annual and lifetime limits (which providers coordinate through HMRC's systems). The **Lifetime ISA case** illustrates a conditional match: it's generous but with strings attached (time and purpose). It shows how match incentives can be tied to specific policy goals (homeownership and retirement readiness) rather than open-ended.

United Kingdom – Help to Save: Another UK scheme, **Help to Save**, launched in 2018, targets a different audience: it's aimed at low-income workers on welfare benefits (like Universal Credit). This program offers a **50% government bonus on savings** – but with a specific structure: eligible individuals can save up to £50 per month for up to 4 years; at the 2-year and 4-year marks they receive a bonus equal to 50% of the highest balance achieved. The maximum total bonus over 4 years is £1,200 (50% of £2,400 saved) ⁷⁶ ⁸. The design encourages **regular saving habits** and discourages early withdrawal (withdrawing reduces the final bonus since the bonus is calculated on highest balance – effectively, one is rewarded for maintaining or increasing savings).

- **Outcomes:** As of early 2021, over **264,000 people** had opened Help to Save accounts ⁷⁷. Among those, about 217,000 had made deposits, with an average monthly deposit of £48 (nearly the £50

cap) ⁷⁸ ⁷⁹ . This indicates strong engagement by those who do participate – many strive to max out the benefit. The total saved in the scheme by early 2021 was around £150 million, showing that substantial assets were accumulated by people with very limited incomes ⁸⁰ . The first bonus payouts (after 2 years) were issued in 2020, and thousands received them, reinforcing trust in the program. The scheme is relatively small in scale compared to broad programs like LISAs or EITC, but it's impactful for the segment it serves – providing a **rainy-day fund** incentive where none existed. Behavioral research found that the 50p-per-£1 incentive and the simple, defined timeline motivated even those who'd never saved to try. Participants reported greater financial confidence and ability to handle unexpected expenses.

- **Administration:** Help to Save is run by HMRC/National Savings & Investments. Accounts are opened online (including a phone option for the digitally excluded). The government's choice to limit deposits (max £50/month) and term (4 years) was to focus the cost and encourage a habit rather than create a permanent subsidy. As of 2023, the program's pilot period was extended, and eligibility is being expanded to more Universal Credit claimants ⁸¹ ⁸² . Fraud and abuse have not been significant issues – since eligibility is tied to receiving certain benefits, and deposits are from one's own verified bank via HMRC's portal, the only potential abuse would be people cycling money in and out to artificially inflate "highest balance." But the rules smartly prevent that: the **bonus is 50% of the highest balance**, so repeatedly depositing and withdrawing doesn't increase the bonus beyond what one's peak savings was (you can't earn multiple bonuses by oscillating). Thus, the scheme effectively **locks in the incentive to net saving**. The program's main challenge has been awareness – many eligible people didn't know about it. The government and NGOs have worked to promote it via Jobcentres and advertising.

New Zealand – KiwiSaver (Member Tax Credit): KiwiSaver is NZ's national auto-enrollment retirement savings plan (started 2007). While primarily funded by employees and employer contributions, it has a notable government match element: the **Member Tax Credit (MTC)**. The MTC provides **\$0.50 for every \$1 contributed by the member**, up to a maximum of NZ\$521.43 per year (which corresponds to \$1,042.86 in personal contributions) ⁴ ⁸³ . Essentially, if an individual contributes at least about \$20 per week (\$1,042/year), they get the full \$521 from the government annually. Initially, KiwiSaver also gave a kick-start \$1,000 grant for opening an account (this was discontinued in 2015), but the ongoing **50% match credit continues**.

- **Impact:** KiwiSaver has extremely high participation – about **3.1 million members** in a country of 5 million, thanks to auto-enrollment and incentives. The majority of eligible savers maximize the government credit by contributing at least the minimum to get it ⁸⁴ . For example, employers deduct default contributions from pay, so most employees naturally contribute enough to qualify for the full MTC. The government's annual spend on these credits is significant (hundreds of millions NZD per year), but it is viewed as a central pillar of KiwiSaver's success in building a savings culture. The **behavioral effect** is clear: the MTC effectively yields an automatic 50% return on the first ~\$1k saved each year, a strong motivator to save at least that much. Many financial advisors and public communications remind savers to "get your \$521 free money" each year ⁸⁴ ⁸⁵ . This has likely increased the national savings rate and reduced reliance on the state pension in the long run (though it's early to fully judge outcomes, since KiwiSaver savers will start retiring in larger numbers in the 2030s).

- **Administration:** The NZ Inland Revenue Department handles the collection of contributions and payment of the credit. Because KiwiSaver is integrated with employment (contributions withheld via payroll for most), the system can easily calculate eligibility for the credit and pay it into the individual's fund annually (after June 30). If someone doesn't contribute the full \$1,042, they get a prorated credit. This scheme shows an elegant design: **a flat percentage match up to a cap**, which is simple and fair (everyone gets 50% on their savings, up to the set limit). It ensures the benefit is highest (in absolute \$) for those who save at least a modest amount, but not skewed to very high savers (since beyond ~\$1k, there's no further match). This is similar to the forthcoming U.S. Saver's Match in structure. Fraud is negligible since contributions and accounts are tracked centrally. One interesting aspect: because employers in NZ also must contribute (typically 3% of salary), the total "match" to an employee's own contribution can be much higher than 50% when including the employer part. From the individual's perspective, however, the government credit is a straightforward incentive to engage with KiwiSaver, including for non-workers or the self-employed (who don't get employer contributions but can still get the government money by contributing themselves).

Australia – Superannuation Co-contribution: Australia's compulsory superannuation system for retirement also has a government match feature for low- and middle-income savers. The **Super Co-contribution** program (introduced in 2003) offers up to a **\$500 annual government contribution**. Currently, if a low-income individual (earning below A\$43,445 in FY2023) makes *after-tax* contributions to their super fund, the government adds 50% of that amount, up to \$500 (which corresponds to \$1,000 of personal contributions) ⁸⁶ ⁸⁷. The benefit phases out for incomes up to ~\$58,000. This is analogous to KiwiSaver's credit and the Saver's Match, though targeted more narrowly by income.

- The **uptake** of the super co-contribution has fluctuated. Initially, it was very generous (matching \$1.50 per \$1 contributed, up to \$1,500) which led to high participation. It was later reduced to 50% up to \$500. In 2017-18, about 540,000 individuals received a co-contribution, with an average amount around \$365. It has helped increase super contributions particularly among part-time and low-wage workers who might otherwise rely solely on employer mandatory contributions. The **impact** on total retirement outcomes is modest but positive – it somewhat narrows the gap for low-income earners who can afford to save a bit extra. Australia also introduced a **Low Income Super Tax Offset (LISTO)**, which refunds up to \$500 of the 15% contributions tax for those earning under \$37,000 – effectively another way of "matching" by ensuring their own contributions aren't penalized by tax ⁸⁸. Combined, these measures improve equity in the retirement system.
- **Administration:** The co-contribution is claimed via the tax return and paid directly into one's super fund by the ATO. Like other matches, it's automated once you make the contribution and file. The program has been well-regarded as simple and effective, though some critique that \$500 is too low to significantly change behavior now, especially as awareness has waned.

Germany – Riester Pension Subsidies: Germany's "Riester-Rente," a voluntary private pension introduced in 2002 to complement the state system, uses government **bonuses (Zulagen)** rather than matching percentages, but it's functionally similar. Savers who enter a certified Riester plan can receive a **basic subsidy of €175 per year** from the government, plus an additional €300 per child (for children born after 2008, €185 if earlier) ⁸⁹ ⁷¹. To get the full subsidy, one must contribute at least 4% of their previous year's earnings (up to a cap). There is also a one-time bonus of €200 for young entrants under 25. These subsidies

act as a **strong incentive**: for a low-income family with two kids, the government could be putting in €175+ €300*2 = €775 annually, which might even exceed their own contributions if income is low.

- **Outcomes:** Riester pensions initially saw high uptake, especially among families (because the child bonuses made the deal attractive). About 16 million Riester contracts were opened, though not all remain active. The scheme did increase private pension saving, though over time criticism arose that many low-income people still found it hard to afford the contributions, and some weren't contributing enough to get the full subsidy (thus "leaving money on the table"). The government has adjusted parameters (e.g. raising the basic subsidy from €154 to €175 in 2018). In terms of behavioral effect, the Riester match (subsidy) is very salient – it's advertised as "*free money from the state*" for saving. However, some complexity in the product and lower trust dampened what could have been bigger results. Germany also has an employer-based match program called **VL (Vermögenswirksame Leistungen)** where employers pay a small monthly amount for employees who invest it, and low-income workers can get an extra government savings bonus on those funds (though this is a niche program for certain investment plans).
- **Administration:** The Riester subsidies are claimed via providers and tax returns. The program has relatively high administrative costs due to the need to verify income, family status, etc., each year to apply the correct subsidy. Fraud is not much concern because it's tied to legitimate pension contracts and one cannot easily cash out early (withdrawals before retirement trigger payback of subsidies). The Riester model shows a matching approach integrated into a **voluntary pension** in a social insurance context – something other EU countries (like Slovakia and Czech Republic) also have tried with their private pension pillars, using state co-contributions to entice enrollment.

Individual Development Accounts (IDAs): While not nationwide policies in most cases, IDAs deserve mention as a model of matched saving for asset building among the poor. Pioneered in the U.S. in the 1990s (influenced by Michael Sherraden's work on asset-based welfare), IDA programs provided **matched funds for every dollar a low-income participant saved** in a special account, typically at ratios like 2:1 or 3:1. Withdrawals were restricted to **approved uses** such as first-time home purchase, post-secondary education, or starting a small business. For example, in the American Dream Demonstration (1997–2002), participants could get up to \$2,000 in matches on \$1,000 of their own savings (2:1) for those goals. They also received financial education.

- **Findings:** IDA programs, including those funded by the U.S. Assets for Independence Act (AFI) grants, showed that with generous matching, even very low-income families could save some money regularly. The matches were a powerful incentive – effectively an immediate 100% or 200% return. However, scaling was always limited by funding. Uptake was constrained to a few hundred or thousand people per program. Those who did enroll often achieved life-changing goals (buying a home, etc.) that likely would have been unattainable without the match boost. IDAs also spread to other countries in pilot form (Canada, UK, etc.). The UK tested a "Saving Gateway" around 2010, offering 50% matches to low-income savers (similar to Help to Save), and found positive results, though the national rollout was canceled due to budget cuts.
- **Legacy:** IDAs influenced later policies like Children's Savings Accounts (many of which incorporate matches for deposits by parents or family). For instance, some U.S. states provide matching grants in 529 college savings plans for low-income families (e.g. a state might match \$1 for \$1 on the first \$300 saved for college for a low-income household). These are essentially mini-IDA features

embedded in mainstream programs. IDAs underscore the principle that **matching can empower asset-poor households** to accumulate meaningful amounts if the incentive is high enough and the goal resonates (owning a home or business tends to resonate). Fraud was rarely an issue because of close monitoring and the targeted nature (participants usually had to prove low-income status and attend classes, which weeded out opportunists). The challenge is cost-efficiency: a 3:1 match costs \$3 for every \$1 saved – policymakers need to decide if the social return (from say, moving a family out of poverty via homeownership) is worth it. Many argue yes, but budgets often prioritize broader but shallower programs.

Singapore – Matched Retirement Savings Scheme (MRSS): As another innovative example, Singapore recently introduced MRSS (from 2021) to encourage middle-aged and older citizens with **insufficient retirement savings** to top up their CPF accounts. Under MRSS, the government **matches every dollar of cash top-up** made to the Retirement Account of eligible Singaporeans age 55 and above, up to a certain annual cap. Initially the cap was S\$600/year; starting 2025 it was enhanced to **S\$2,000 per year, with a lifetime max of S\$20,000 matched** ⁹⁰ ⁹¹. To qualify, the individual's CPF Retirement Account balance must be below the Basic Retirement Sum (currently around S\$106k) and they must not have high income or multiple properties (similar means test to WIS) ⁹² ⁹³.

- **Impact and Rationale:** This scheme targets those who may not have much CPF savings (perhaps due to low earnings or career breaks) and are nearing retirement. By matching their voluntary contributions, it essentially **doubles their effort** to catch up on retirement savings. The increase of the cap to \$2,000/year and removing the age 70 limit (so even beyond 70, contributions can be matched) in 2025 nearly doubled the number of people eligible ⁹⁴. The government found strong uptake in the first years – thousands of seniors received the match, many contributed the maximum \$600 when that was the cap, indicating the incentive is effective. With the cap now \$2,000, it's more generous and should further boost participation. This is a targeted match to encourage **family support as well** – anyone (children, spouse, etc.) can contribute cash to an eligible senior's CPF, and the government will match it ⁹⁵. So it leverages not just the individual's capacity but also their network's willingness to help, knowing the help will be amplified.
- **Administration:** CPF Board automatically assesses eligibility each year and notifies those who qualify ⁹⁶. Contributors just make CPF top-ups normally; the government credits the matching grant after year-end. By forbidding tax deduction on matched top-ups ⁹⁷, they avoid a double benefit. The design ensures the match funds stay in CPF (cannot be withdrawn as a lump sum; they'll flow into retirement payouts). MRSS is an example of a **dollar-matching scheme aimed at post-labor support**: It helps those who may soon not have labor income to bolster their financial foundation, via matched personal investment. It also fits into Singapore's broader multi-layer old-age support strategy, complementing Workfare and other schemes (like Silver Support, which is more like a small pension for the poorest elderly).

3. Comparative Analysis of Policy Design and Outcomes

Having surveyed key programs, we can compare how different countries implement matching and what lessons emerge:

- **Generosity and Incentive Strength:** Match rates vary widely – from relatively low (e.g. 5–20% effective match in some tax credits) to very high (50% or even 300% in certain IDAs). Generally,

higher match rates yield greater behavior change but cost more. The sweet spot seems to be around 50% (0.5:1) or 100% (1:1) for many programs, balancing motivation with fiscal cost. For example, the 50% match in UK Help to Save and NZ KiwiSaver saw strong participation, while lower rates like 20% in basic CESG still work but may not excite as much. Unlimited or very high matches (e.g. early IDAs) can create spikes of participation but raise equity concerns (those who can save or earn more get more absolute subsidy, unless carefully capped).

- **Capping and Targeting:** Almost all schemes impose **caps or phase-outs** to target resources. Wage supplements phase out by income to focus on low earners (EITC, CWB, etc., all have cutoff ranges). Savings matches often cap the amount that can be matched per year (e.g. \$2k of contributions for Saver's Match; £50/month for Help to Save; \$521 credit in KiwiSaver). These features ensure the **marginal incentive is focused on the first dollars of saving/earning**, which is where we most want to encourage behavior among those who might otherwise do none. Targeting by income or other criteria (like Workfare's age and wealth conditions, MRSS's balance threshold) also improves equity and program efficacy, but at the cost of more complexity. Simpler broad matches (like the original universal KiwiSaver kick-start or the UK's former Child Trust Fund grant given to all babies) are easy to administer but less efficient in distribution.
- **Frequency of Benefit Delivery:** There is a noticeable difference in **payment frequency** between tax-credit-style matches (annual at filing time) and benefit-style or account matches (monthly or real-time). Annual delivery (EITC, CWB, Saver's Credit) has the advantage of a large lump sum (which some families prefer for major expenses or debt payoff). However, monthly or immediate delivery (like Workfare monthly payments, Help to Save after 2 years, KiwiSaver credit annually to account) can strengthen the **psychological link** between the effort and reward, and help with ongoing needs. Countries are experimenting: the U.S. will still do Saver's Match annually, but others like France's Prime d'activité opted for monthly to integrate with pay cycles. The ideal may depend on context – wage supplements perhaps work well monthly (to consistently reward working), whereas a savings match inherently can be periodic since accumulation is the goal (but immediate small rewards, e.g. a monthly tally of KiwiSaver credit, might encourage continuous saving too).
- **Integration with Existing Systems:** A clear lesson is that piggybacking on existing systems (tax authorities, pension funds, etc.) greatly eases administration and reduces fraud. The EITC, CWB, etc. leverage the income tax system – efficient but reliant on individuals filing returns. Singapore's Workfare uses the CPF and payroll reporting – highly automatic. Savings programs use financial institutions (banks managing RESPs, ISAs) as intermediaries – engaging the private sector in delivery. These partnerships can work well: e.g., Canadian RESP providers effectively market the CESG to clients ("it's a 20% return, sign up!"), aligning interests. On the flip side, fragmentation (many providers) can complicate implementation (as the U.S. Treasury faces with Saver's Match needing to find each individual's account). One also sees that **digital infrastructure** is crucial: the UK could not have easily done real-time Universal Credit adjustments or Help to Save without modern IT linking databases. Countries with robust digital ID and payment systems (like Singapore) have an edge in fine-tuning matches without burdensome paperwork.
- **Behavioral Impacts and Externalities:** Matching schemes broadly show positive behavioral responses: increased work effort (for wage supplements) and increased savings participation (for investment matches). But there are nuances. For work-based credits, the biggest impact is drawing people *into* the labor force or from part-time to full-time up to the point of maximum credit ¹⁴. At

higher incomes, phase-outs can slightly reduce secondary earners' work or lead to bunching (not earning above the threshold). On balance, most research (especially on EITC) finds net labor supply gains ¹⁴. For savings, match incentives clearly boost the take-up of accounts and contributions up to the match cap. Yet economists note some of that might be **reshuffling**: individuals may divert money from other accounts or assets to the matched account to get the bonus. The true increase in total savings is often smaller than the amount of match given. Still, even if some is reshuffling, matches help **earmark funds for desired purposes** (education, retirement), which has policy value. One interesting externality: Children's savings matches like CESG can increase students' likelihood of pursuing higher education (not just because money is there, but also the expectation set by having a college fund) – a long-term human capital benefit. Similarly, wage supplements have externalities like improved child school performance and health outcomes, as evidenced for EITC ¹⁵. These broader social gains often justify the investments.

- **Fraud Prevention and Integrity:** By design, many match programs incorporate safeguards:
 - Tying benefits to **verifiable actions** (file taxes with reported earnings, contribute to a registered account, etc.) is the first line of defense.
 - Some use **delayed rewards** (like waiting 2 years for Help to Save bonus) to discourage gaming and ensure genuine behavior change, though delay can reduce salience.
 - **Clawback provisions** (such as returning CESG if not used for education, or LISA withdrawal penalty) protect against misuse beyond intended purposes.
 - Use of **means-testing** and cross-checks (Workfare's property and spouse income checks, MRSS's income and balance check) prevent those not in the target demographic from benefiting. This adds complexity but is seen as necessary to maintain political support for these transfers.
 - **Improper payments** are mainly an issue in the tax-delivered programs (EITC being the poster child). Remedies there include better enforcement (the IRS has tightened rules on EITC claims, for instance requiring proof of child residency in some cases) and simplification (some propose pre-filled returns for those eligible or even paying EITC throughout the year via paychecks, reducing year-end errors).

In comparative perspective, **the U.S. tends to rely on tax credits**, which have high uptake but also high improper payment rates (EITC) ¹⁷. **Europe leans more on direct benefits or account bonuses** (with less fraud, but sometimes less take-up due to separate application steps). **Commonwealth countries (UK, Canada, Australia, NZ)** blend tax and direct methods and often utilize partnerships with financial institutions for savings programs, achieving decent coverage with moderate complexity. Singapore's model stands out for its **automation and combination of immediate needs with long-term savings** – something others might emulate.

Finally, looking at **cost-effectiveness**: Wage matching programs return money to individuals but arguably also to the economy (via increased work and spending). Some studies find EITC dollars are spent in local communities, stimulating demand, and even raising employment in those areas ⁹⁸. Savings matches cost money upfront (they are an expense or forgone revenue), but if they reduce future dependency (e.g. more private retirement savings means less old-age poverty spending), they may pay off long-term. Rigorous evaluations (like of IDAs, or randomized trials of saving incentives) suggest carefully targeted matches can have a high **social return on investment** – for example, an IDA participant who buys a home and exits subsidized housing is a net win for government budgets in a few years. Thus, while matches are transfers, they are often **conditional transfers that aim for multiplier effects** (more work, more education, more assets). The comparative lesson is to design them such that those multipliers are realized (through right targeting, education, complementary support like financial counseling, etc.).

Toward a Post-Labor Income Architecture: Synthesis and Future Models

In a **post-labor economy** – one where a significant share of the population's livelihood comes from sources other than traditional jobs – matching schemes could play a pivotal role in ensuring broad-based prosperity. As routine work diminishes with automation, society may lean more on mechanisms like **Universal Basic Income (UBI)**, **public dividends from sovereign wealth funds**, and **collective/cooperative ownership income** (as described in emerging models of five-tier income ⁹⁹ ¹⁰⁰). In such a scenario, how do wage and savings matches fit in? We outline a forward-looking model below:

1. Complementing UBI with Earned Income Matches (“UBI+”): If a UBI provides an income floor for all, a concern is that it could diminish incentives for individuals to take on available work (especially marginal or unpleasant jobs). A **dollar-matching wage supplement** can counteract that by ensuring **any labor earnings are rewarded** on top of UBI. Essentially, it's a negative income tax layered on UBI. For example, one could implement a **reduced EITC** that matches the first say \$10,000 of labor earnings at 50% even in a UBI world. This would preserve work incentives for those who can and want to work, acknowledging that while automation has reduced the need for labor, society may still value participation for both economic output and personal fulfillment. Such a scheme might resemble a guaranteed income with an “earned income bonus.” Indeed, experiments in basic income have considered variants where participants get extra if they earn – to avoid complete income stagnation. The **fiscal cost** of this in a full UBI system could be significant, but since fewer people might be employed, it might actually be manageable (fewer claim the match). It also politically assuages concerns that UBI “pays people to do nothing” – instead, people get a base and can **double their earnings (up to a point) via a match** if they choose to work. Think of it as *UBI ensures no one is destitute; wage match ensures work is always worthwhile*. This could be structured as a **universal EITC** (no phase-in since UBI covers zero income, but a phase-out after a threshold to target it).

2. Matching Personal Investment of UBI and Dividends: In a post-labor world, citizens might receive not only UBI but also **dividends from public wealth funds** (e.g., Alaska-style oil fund dividends or national automation dividends). These are essentially payouts of collective capital income. One forward-thinking idea is to encourage individuals to **reinvest a portion of these dividends or their UBI into personal wealth** – turning income into assets. A **matching scheme could be applied to UBI/dividend reinvestment**: for instance, for every dollar of your UBI that you put into a long-term savings or investment account (instead of consuming), the government (or the fund) could **match it 1:1** up to a certain amount. This would, over time, build up **personal capital ownership** even among those who aren't otherwise earning and saving. It accelerates the transition from reliance on public disbursements to **private investment income** for individuals. One could envision a future where each citizen has a personal wealth account that grows through such matched contributions – effectively creating a nation of stakeholders. This echoes proposals for “Citizen Capital Accounts” or baby bonds that provide initial endowments and possibly matches for additional contributions. The **macroeconomic impact** of this could be profound: increasing the national saving rate, providing capital for investment (since those funds could be invested in the economy), and reducing wealth inequality by seeding assets at the bottom. Of course, there's a trade-off – using some of UBI/dividend (which are meant for current consumption needs) for savings may not be feasible for the poorest without additional support. A match can at least reward those who can afford to set aside a bit, and over years even small amounts could accumulate.

3. Enhancing Cooperative and Collective Income via Matching: In a post-labor vision, more income might come from **collectively owned enterprises** (cooperatives, DAOs, etc.) ¹⁰¹ ¹⁰² . Government could bolster this by matching either **individual contributions to cooperative capital** or **the dividends that cooperatives pay to members if reinvested**. For example, if a group of gig workers forms a platform cooperative and each member puts in \$100, the government could match each contribution with another \$100 to capitalize the coop. This would incentivize the formation of cooperative businesses, aligning with the goal of widespread capital ownership. Another angle: **patronage dividends** (profits shared by co-op to members) could be partially matched by a public fund if members plow them back into the enterprise or into personal accounts. The idea is to synergize public support with grassroots collective action – nudging the growth of a cooperative sector that shares wealth. Such policies have precedents in small scales (some local governments give grants to cooperatives, or matching funds through community development programs), but making it systemic would be novel. The benefit in a post-labor context is building community wealth and resilient local economies, not just individual wealth.

4. Integrating Matching Schemes with Automation Dividends and Taxes: As automation expands, proposals often include taxing robots or AI or the profits thereof to fund public dividends. Part of those tax revenues could be funneled into **matching programs that encourage human endeavor in areas machines can't replace** – for instance, caregiving, creativity, or civic work. One could imagine a system where if individuals engage in socially valuable activities that are not traditional employment (like volunteering, community caregiving), they could receive matched credits into, say, an education account or retirement account. This is more speculative, but it extends the matching concept: instead of matching dollars earned, match *hours contributed to society* with credits. This could maintain social cohesion and reward contributions that a pure labor market under-values in the automated age.

5. Ensuring Fiscal Sustainability: With potentially fewer people earning wages, wage-matching outlays might decrease, but savings-matching outlays might need to increase (since more of people's income is via transfers that we want them to save/invest part of). Governments will need to calibrate match rates and caps carefully to fit budgets. One approach is to treat public matches as a form of **social investment** – much like infrastructure – that should yield returns in lower future social assistance or higher future incomes (which can be taxed). For instance, every dollar matched into someone's retirement could reduce future pension shortfalls by more than a dollar (due to compounding). Economic modeling can simulate these effects; early evidence from existing schemes suggests positive long-run fiscal feedback. For example, if Workfare in Singapore keeps older workers employed longer, that boosts GDP and tax receipts offsetting some costs. Similarly, widespread asset holding via matches could reduce wealth inequality, which is linked to healthier economies and less need for redistributive taxes down the line ¹⁰³ ⁹⁹ .

6. Simplification and Universality vs. Targeting: In a post-labor scenario, there may be arguments to make these matches more **universal**. For instance, if UBI is universal, perhaps a **universal savings match** (like a flat 50% match on all contributions up to a certain amount for everyone) could replace the patchwork of targeted incentives. This might encourage a savings culture broadly. The trade-off is cost and possibly giving windfalls to people who would save anyway. A middle ground is “progressive universalism” – everyone gets some match, but lower-income get higher rates (similar to how some countries structure retirement savings incentives as matching for low-income and tax relief for high-income, etc.). The *vision* would be to integrate the myriad schemes (retirement match, education match, etc.) into a **single unified matching framework** that follows a person through life: e.g., a Personal Development Account where any deposit you make (from earnings, UBI, gifts, whatever) is matched by the state up to a lifetime limit, and can

be used for sanctioned purposes (education, starting a business, retirement, etc.). This resembles proposals for “Lifetime Opportunity Accounts” or enhanced universal savings accounts.

7. Guarding Against New Forms of Fraud: In a highly digitized, post-labor economy, new fraud vectors could appear – for instance, attempts to automate contributions to game matches (like bots moving UBI money in and out of accounts rapidly). System designers would need to incorporate **smart contracts or verification protocols** to ensure matches correspond to genuine, unique human behavior. Blockchain-based identity and transaction tracking might play a role if such systems evolve (ensuring one per person, preventing multiple accounts, etc.). The good news is that reduced reliance on wages simplifies means-testing – if everyone gets base support, matches can be simpler without strict income phase-outs (since the distribution is handled by UBI itself).

Macroeconomic Impact Considerations: In the long run, a combination of UBI and matching schemes effectively means the government is deeply involved in both providing a safety net and *shaping how private incomes are allocated (consumed vs. invested vs. earned)*. This could stabilize economic demand (UBI provides steady spending power) while also promoting capital formation (matches encourage saving/investing some of that income). It might also mitigate inflationary pressure of UBI: if a portion of UBI is saved (thanks to matches), it’s not all chasing goods and services. On the other hand, these programs require substantial public funding or redirection of tax revenue. A **virtuous cycle** could emerge if done right – as automation yields high profits and wealth, those are taxed to fund UBI and matches; the matches turn some of that wealth into broadly held assets, thereby reducing inequality and political resistance to automation; and the populace still finds motivation to work or contribute where needed because the system rewards it through matches, not just flat payments. In essence, matching schemes could act as the **“glue” between the five income pillars** (labor, UBI, dividends, collective, personal assets) ⁹⁹, incentivizing individuals to transition fluidly from one pillar to another. For example, a person might start relying on UBI (pillar 1), then do some gig work (pillar 5 wages) which is matched, use those earnings to buy into a coop (pillar 3 collective asset) with a government match, and eventually receive dividends (pillar 2 public fund, pillar 3 co-op profit) which they reinvest in personal stocks (pillar 4) via a matched account. Every step of the way, **matching incentives guide behavior toward greater self-sufficiency and ownership**.

In conclusion, dollar-matching schemes have proven to be versatile and powerful policy tools, from reducing poverty today to building wealth for tomorrow. As we move toward a future where traditional jobs may play a smaller role, these schemes – suitably adapted – can ensure that **the values of work, saving, and shared prosperity are preserved**. By boosting incomes when people work or contribute, and boosting balances when people save or invest, matching programs align individual behavior with societal goals. The extant programs in the U.S., EU, and OECD provide a rich toolkit and many success stories to draw from. Synthesizing them into a post-labor framework will require creativity and care, but the payoff could be a more inclusive, resilient economy where technology’s gains are matched by public policies so that **everyone has a stake and an incentive in the new wealth being created**.

Tables and Summary of Key Programs

To encapsulate the information, below are summary tables of major matching schemes covered:

Table 2: Wage Supplement (Earned Income Match) Programs – Key Features

Program (Country)	Year Started	Match Structure on Earnings	Max Benefit & Phase-out	Participation (latest)	Notable Outcomes
Earned Income Tax Credit (USA)	1975 (exp. 1990s)	Phase-in: 7% (no kids) up to ~34–45% (3+ kids) of earnings; then phases out	Max ~\$6,935 (3+ kids, 2022) ⁹ ; phases out at ~\$57k (married, 3 kids).	~25 million families; ~\$63B/yr. ~79% uptake overall (86% with kids; ~65% no kids) ¹¹ ¹²	+Employment of single parents ¹⁴ ; ~5.6 million people out of poverty (2018). Improper payment ~24% ¹⁷
Universal Credit – Work Allowance (UK)	2013 (full roll-out 2018)	Universal Credit includes a work allowance (≈ exempt amount) then 55% taper (like -55¢/£ on earnings)	No fixed “max” – e.g. a single childless gets none if earning >~£600/mo, a single parent can earn ~£340/mo before taper. Benefit zero by ~£2.5k/mo (varies).	~5 million households on UC (2022), ~40% with earnings (2 million+)	Simplified multiple benefits; improved incentive vs. 90% + effective tax rates before. Some reports of increased employment entry, but high taper still debated.
Prime d’activité (France)	2016 (merged RSA activité & PPE)	Lump-sum base + 61% of earnings up to threshold, then tapered by household income formula	Max ~€160/ month single (no kids) at €0 income; if earning ~€0– €500, benefit ↑ , then stable, phases out ~€1,500. Single with 2 kids max ~€290 ¹⁰⁴ .	~4.5 million recipients (2022) ¹⁰⁵ ; huge expansion in 2019 (+1.2m people) ²¹ .	Increased incomes of working poor; some increased labor supply for second earners. Still ~1/3 eligible not claiming (non-takeup) ²² .

Program (Country)	Year Started	Match Structure on Earnings	Max Benefit & Phase-out	Participation (latest)	Notable Outcomes
Canada Workers Benefit (Canada)	2007 (WITB), expanded 2019	27% of each \$ over \$3k, up to max, then 15% phase-out over threshold ¹	Max \$1,428 (single) / \$2,461 (family) in 2023; phases out after ~\$25k (single) / \$38k (family). Disability supplement extra \$737 ¹⁰⁶ .	~2.2 million beneficiaries (2021); \$1.4B paid (2021). Starting 2023, advance payments auto.	Modest poverty reduction. Government proposing to boost max ~50%; current benefit too low to strongly affect work hours ²⁵ . Uptake limited by tax filing (some don't file).
Workfare Income Supplement (Singapore)	2007	Monthly cash + CPF to employees. ~10–30% of wages matched (effective), higher for older ages ¹⁰⁷ .	Max S\$4,200/yr (≥60yo) ¹⁰⁷ ; S\$3,000 (35–44). Income cap \$2.5k/mo (2023), \$3k from 2025 ¹⁰⁸ .	~400k workers/year (est.); >S\$10.5B disbursed to 1.035m workers (2007–2023) ³⁹ .	Improved labor force participation of older low-income; adds ~2–4% to wages + CPF savings. Automatic delivery, high satisfaction. Negligible fraud.

Table 3: Savings/Investment Matching Programs – Key Features

| Program (Country) | Type/Goal | Match Structure | Annual Max (Gov't) | Participation/Uptake | Notable Outcomes/Notes |

| **Saver's Match (USA)** (from 2027) | Retirement savings | 50% match on IRA/401k contributions ³; phases out at mod. income ⁵¹ | \$1,000 per person (on \$2k contrib) ³ | ~22 million eligible (projected) ⁵⁴; expected to boost participation by ~8.5m ⁵⁶ | Replaces nonrefundable Saver's Credit. Deposited into accounts (pre-tax) ⁵⁸. Should raise retirement security for low-income. | | **Canada Edu. Savings Grant (CAN)** | Education (college) | 20% match on RESP contributions (all incomes) ⁵; +10–20% extra for low-income ⁶ | \$500/yr basic (+\$50–100 low-inc); lifetime \$7,200 ⁵ | ~51% of children 0–17 have RESP (2019). ~\$0.9B CESG paid in 2018 ⁶⁶. | RESP assets ~\$63B. CLB (grant for low-income) complements match. Increases likelihood of post-sec enrollment. | | **Lifetime ISA (UK)** | Retirement + Home | 25% bonus on contributions (i.e. £1 for £4 saved) ⁷³ | £1,000/yr (on £4k saved); age 18–50 eligible to contrib. | ~1.5 million accounts by 2023; 767k contributions in 2022/23 ⁶⁹. Gov't bonus ~£450m (2022). | Aids ~118k first-time home purchases (2017–2021). Some concern it favors higher earners under 40. Withdrawal penalty discourages misuse ⁷⁴. | | **Help to Save (UK)** | Emergency saving | 50% bonus on highest balance saved ¹⁰⁹ | £600 at 2 years + £600 at 4 years (max £1,200 total over 4 yrs) ⁷⁶ | ~359k accounts opened (Aug 2023); ~£250m saved total. Average saver deposits ~£48/mo ⁷⁸. | Many users reach max bonus. Helps

build buffer – HMRC survey: >90% felt more secure. Extended to 2027 with broader eligibility ⁸¹ . | | **KiwiSaver Member Credit (NZ)** | Retirement savings | 50% match on personal KiwiSaver contrib. ⁸³ | NZ\$521.43/yr (on \$1,042 contrib) ⁴ | ~3 million recipients (~75% of members), \$900m NZD paid in 2021 (approx). | Key incentive in ~KiwiSaver 3.1m membership (2022). Widely known as “free \$521” – strong norm to contribute enough to get it ⁸⁴ . | | **Super Co-contribution (AUS)** | Retirement savings | 50% match on after-tax super contrib. (low incomes) ⁸⁶ | A\$500/yr (on \$1,000 contrib) ⁸⁷ | ~0.5 million received (2018). Gov’t outlay ~A\$150m/yr. | Once more generous; now modest impact. Paired with LISTO (tax offset) for low earners ⁸⁸ . Encourages extra saving by part-timers. | | **Workfare MRSS (SG)** | Retirement top-up | 100% match on voluntary CPF top-ups for 55+ ¹¹⁰ | S\$600/yr (2021–24); **S\$2,000/yr from 2025** ⁹⁰ ; lifetime cap \$20k ⁹⁴ | ~117k seniors got match in 2021; expected ~260k/yr with expansion (2025) | Large increase in top-ups observed. Improves retirement payouts ~10–30%. Socializes responsibility between family & state (anyone can contribute) ⁹⁵ . | | **Individual Dev. Accounts (US pilot)** | Assets (home, etc.) | 100–300% match (varied by program) on savings, for specific uses | Typically \$2,000–\$4,000 total match cap over program | ~25k accounts under AFI (1999–2016). Local pilots small scale. | High graduation rates (achieving asset goals). Intensive case management required. Led to CSA movement (child accounts with matches). |

Sources: Program official sites and recent statistics [8] [11] [16] [19] [46] etc.

These tables capture the diversity of approaches: from broad tax-based matches (EITC, CWB) to narrow targeted grants (IDAs), and from immediate needs to future-oriented savings. The trends suggest many countries are **learning from each other** – for instance, the U.S. Saver’s Match echoes KiwiSaver and super co-contribution ideas ¹¹¹ ⁸³ , and the UK Help to Save drew on IDA research and was in turn a model for some US proposals for emergency savings accounts. As we move into the future, continued experimentation and scaling will likely occur, but the core principle remains: **when society “matches” individual effort, it magnifies outcomes** – be it higher incomes, greater financial security, or more equitable wealth distribution. The post-labor economy will demand such magnification to ensure technology’s dividends are shared, and dollar-matching schemes are poised to be a crucial part of that policy toolkit.

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