

# A consistent dataset for the net income distribution for 190 countries and aggregated to 32 geographical regions from 1958-2015

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## Abstract

Data on income distributions within and across countries are becoming increasingly important to inform analysis of income inequality and to understand the distributional consequences of climate change. While datasets on income distribution collected from household surveys are available for multiple countries, these datasets often do not represent the same concept of inequality (or income concept) and therefore make comparisons across countries, over time and across datasets difficult. Here, we present a consistent dataset of income distributions across 190 countries from 1958 to 2015 measured in terms of net income. We complement the observed values in this dataset with values imputed from a summary measure of the income distribution, specifically the GINI coefficient. For the imputation, we use a recently developed principal components-based approach that shows an excellent fit to data on income distributions compared to other approaches. We also present another version of this dataset aggregated from the country level to 32 geographical regions. Our dataset is developed for the purpose of calibrating models such as Integrated human-Earth system models with detailed data on income distributions. This dataset will enable more robust analysis of income distribution at multiple scales.

## 1. Introduction

Data on income distributions are important to understand trends in global and regional income inequality. These data are also routinely used to train models that project income distributions into the future (Fujimori et al., 2020; Hallegatte & Rozenberg, 2017; Hughes et al., 2009; Hughes, 2019; Soergel et al., 2021; Van der Mensbrugghe, 2015). In the climate literature, long-term projections of within-country income distribution have been used to inform analyses of how the impacts of climate change may affect inequality and poverty (Hallegatte & Rozenberg, 2017; Jafino et al., 2020). Income distribution data are generally collected through national and local household surveys. The most prominent sources of national-level income distribution data are the datasets presented by the World Bank through the PovCal tool (Bank, 2015) and the income distribution datasets available from the Luxembourg Income Study (LIS) (Ravallion, 2015; Smeeding & Grodner, 2000). Both these datasets present useful time series of income distribution for income groups such as deciles, based on multiple household surveys.

While these datasets have been widely used, they are subject to certain limitations. The definition of income in these datasets is often not the same, making comparisons across countries and

1 datasets difficult (Smeeding & Latner, 2015). For example, the PovCal dataset has mixed  
2 observations for net income and consumption for the same country in different years. Such  
3 inconsistencies can occur because the underlying surveys in different years might have been  
4 conducted to measure different concepts of inequality (hereafter referred to as income concepts) .  
5 The two income concepts that these data tend to use are:

6 i) ***Post tax income or disposable income or net income*** - This measure is defined as employee  
7 income plus income from firms (self-employment) plus income from rentals (excluding any  
8 payments), property income (these are generally capital gains and include dividends) plus current  
9 transfers received (these include insurance benefits, employer contributions) less transfers paid  
10 (taxes paid and employee contributions). This is the concept of income recommended by the  
11 Canberra group for the international comparison of incomes (Europe, 2011).

12 ii) ***Consumption*** - This measure is the sum of food consumption plus non-food consumption plus  
13 durable goods purchases (expenditure value minus cost of repairs) plus housing expenditures  
14 (rent, mortgage payments) less any payments made (taxes, loan payments, asset purchases, etc).  
15 This is the concept of income recommended by Deaton & Zaidi (2002) for welfare measurement.

16 Temporal and spatial coverage of the data are another issue. The LIS dataset provides consistent  
17 data on the net income distribution. However, these data are only available for 50 countries from  
18 1980 to 2016. The PovCal dataset provides data for a considerably higher number of countries  
19 (165) compared to the LIS. However, the data are a combination of net income and  
20 consumption-based observations (net income distribution data for 73 countries and consumption  
21 distribution data for 118 countries).

22 Previous studies that have made use of these datasets for analysis or for modelling income  
23 distributions have treated these income concepts as interchangeable (Rao et al., 2019; Sauer et  
24 al., 2020). Moreover, for countries where no survey data on income distributions are available,  
25 studies have used simple methods such as using a summary measure of income distribution such  
26 as the GINI coefficient in combination with a parametric functional form such as a lognormal  
27 distribution to impute the within country or within-region income distribution (Fujimori et al.,  
28 2020; Rao et al., 2019; Shorrocks & Wan, 2008; Soergel et al., 2021).

29 There have been efforts to generate consistent datasets of the income distribution. However,  
30 these efforts have been limited to local or regional data. For example, Frank (2009) generated a  
31 consistent dataset of income distribution metrics for a single income concept for the fifty US  
32 states. That particular study builds on previous studies that have compiled data for the US  
33 states (Piketty & Saez, 2003). At the national level, there have been some efforts to produce  
34 standardized datasets of income inequality, but they have generally been limited to summary  
35 metrics of the income distribution such as the GINI coefficient (Babones & Alvarez-Rivadulla,  
36 2007). Lanker and Milanovic (Lakner & Milanovic, 2016) developed a useful time series of  
37 income deciles across countries which is a combination of data from the LIS, PovCal and other  
38 sources. However, this dataset is still a combination of different income concepts and has a  
39 limited temporal time series (the dataset only extends to the year 2013).

1 In this study we present a consistent dataset on national income distributions that represents a  
2 single income concept namely, net income. This dataset contains a total 8522 data points of  
3 income deciles across 190 countries. This dataset is constructed by first choosing net income  
4 decile data observations from all available sources for all available countries (1191  
5 observations). For countries that only have consumption distribution data, we impute the net  
6 income distribution using a regression-based approach (494 observations). For countries and  
7 years where no data on income distribution is available, we impute income deciles using the  
8 GINI coefficient combined with a principal component analysis (PCA) based method that  
9 provides a better fit to data than existing methods (6837 observations). This PCA-based method  
10 was recently developed as a non-parametric approach to projecting income distribution (Narayan  
11 et al., 2023). While this method was primarily used for generating estimates of future income  
12 distribution, the same was also validated against historical data (as described in sections below)  
13 and hence was selected as a valid method to perform imputations. We note that the PCA based  
14 imputation provides the maximum number of observations in the dataset.

15 One intended use of this dataset is to initialize income distribution variables in the Global  
16 Change Analysis Model (GCAM) (Calvin et al., 2019). GCAM is a global, integrated model of  
17 the energy, land, water, climate, and socioeconomic systems that produces projections for several  
18 economic, climatological and physical systems variables for 32 geopolitical regions. Hence, we  
19 also present income distributions for these 32 aggregated regions in addition to the 190 countries.  
20 We use an aggregation method that takes into account cross-country inequality within a region in  
21 addition to within-country inequality.

22 This dataset can be used to train projection models for income distribution across different scales  
23 and, given the consistent income concept represented, can also be used to understand trends  
24 within and across countries and regions. While these data are generated to enable modelling of  
25 the income distributions in GCAM, they can be used to train any model for projecting income  
26 distributions.

## 27 2. Dataset construction

28 We explain our approach for the dataset construction in detail in the sections below. To  
29 summarize, we used the following steps:

- 30 a. We first identified observations by country and year of net income deciles from all  
31 available datasets (LIS, PovCal, and individual research studies). In doing so, we  
32 prioritized the LIS dataset over all other datasets given its high data quality on the net  
33 income distribution. Our selection process is explained in **section 2.1 and 2.2** below.
- 34 b. For countries/years in which there were no net income data, but consumption data was  
35 available, the net income distribution was imputed from the consumption distribution  
36 using a regression-based approach. This is explained in **section 2.3**.
- 37 c. Where there were no net income or consumption data, but the GINI coefficient, a  
38 summary metric of the income distribution, i.e., was available, we imputed the net  
39 income distribution from the summary measure using a PCA-based approach. This is  
40 explained in **section 2.4**.

1 Note that point c. in the above yields the maximum number of data points in our final dataset.  
 2 Table 1 below summarizes the coverage of our dataset-

<b>Type of data</b>	<b>country-year observations</b>
Original data on net income ( <i>Explained in section 2.2</i> )	1191
Imputed based on original data on consumption ( <i>Explained in section 2.3</i> )	394
Imputed from GINI coefficient (using PCA algorithm) ( <i>Explained in section 2.4</i> )	6837
<b>Total</b>	<b>8522</b>

15 *Table 1: Summary of data points covered in our data set*

## 16 **2.1 Literature review and data selection from available household survey data**

17 We first conducted a literature review to identify sources of national-level data on income  
 18 distributions for as many countries as possible. There are three main datasets available, from the  
 19 Luxembourg Income Study (LIS)(Ravallion, 2015; Smeeding & Grodner, 2000) the World Bank  
 20 (whose data on income distributions are available through the PovCalNet tool) (Bank, 2015) and  
 21 UNU WIDER (which compiles data from different sources including the LIS, PovCal and other  
 22 research studies) (WIDER, 2008). Each dataset contains income distribution data for different  
 23 income concepts such as net income and consumption, based on nationally representative  
 24 surveys that may also represent sub-groups of the population (e.g., Urban vs Rural). These data  
 25 are sometimes supplemented with data from research studies, and they use different equivalence  
 26 scales to convert from household to per capita income. We first evaluated data availability for net  
 27 income deciles based on these criteria (income concept, scale, temporal coverage, and spatial  
 28 coverage).

29 In Table 2, we summarize these datasets differentiated by these criteria. Since the UNU WIDER  
 30 dataset is a compilation of data sources (i.e., LIS, PovCal or others), we also identified the  
 31 number of observations (country-year) in the UNU WIDER data derived from each source. **SI**  
 32 **Table 1** of this document summarizes some of the other studies which were used in the  
 33 collection of data for the UNU WIDER database.

1 We are primarily interested in decile-level income distributions derived from household surveys.  
 2 Given our criteria for data selection, we limited our data collection to the datasets mentioned  
 3 above. For example, we did not use the Standardized World Income Inequality Database(Solt,  
 4 2020) since it includes only the GINI coefficient and not a full distribution by income groups  
 5 (such as deciles). Similarly, we did not use the World Inequality Database (Chancel et al 2021)  
 6 since this dataset is not based on household survey data (This database uses a distributed national  
 7 account methodology). However, as more detailed datasets become available, they can be  
 8 included in our dataset.

<b>Source</b>	<b>Income concept</b>	<b>Scale of survey</b>	<b>Countries</b>	<b>Years (range)</b>	<b>Observations (n)</b>
Luxemburg income study	Net income	National	50	1980-2016	347
	Consumption	National	25	1980-2016	209
PovCalNet	Net Income	National	73	1981-2018	1644
		Urban/Rural	3	1981-2018	37
	Consumption	National	114	1981-2018	2341
		Urban/Rural	3	1983-2018	54
UNU WIDER	Net Income	National	163	1979-2017	1707 347 from LIS 533 from other sources 827 from PovCal
		Urban	22	1961-2018	315 51 from PovCal 264 from other sources
		Rural	20	1950-2017	215 3 from PovCal 212 from other sources

	Consumption	National	66	1973-2018	1030 116 from LIS 779 from PovCal 135 from other sources
		Urban	5	1975-2017	52 45 from PovCal 7 from research studies
		Rural	5	1975-2017	50 46 from PovCal 4 from research studies

1

2 *Table 2: Summary of coverage by data source*

3 We also evaluated access to microdata (i.e., underlying household-level data from household  
4 surveys) for each of these datasets, since detailed microdata allows us to validate and understand  
5 how the different income distributions for different income concepts were arrived at. Of all  
6 datasets evaluated, we found that the LIS database has the most access to microdata via the  
7 METIS tool (<https://www.lisdatacenter.org/frontend>).

8 The PovCal database maintained by the World Bank has the highest coverage geographically and  
9 temporally in terms of observations. PovCal uses the disposable income data from LIS for high-  
10 and middle-income countries and uses household survey data for consumption and disposable  
11 income for low-income countries. The scales of the surveys are mostly national other than India,  
12 China, and Indonesia where distribution data from separate rural and urban surveys are available.  
13 Mean and median values of the income concepts are available in 2011 USD PPP converted using  
14 country-specific conversion factors.

15 PovCal sometimes combines data of different types even within countries, e.g., for China,  
16 PovCal uses income data in early years up to 1990 and then switches to consumption data.  
17 Moreover, the micro-data for PovCal are not readily available.

18 UNU WIDER releases quality scores of individual datasets. It classifies the LIS database as  
19 “High quality”, due especially to the availability of metadata, and classifies the PovCal dataset as  
20 “Average quality”. Figure 1 below shows the income distributions by deciles for different  
21 countries for different income concepts from the UNU-WIDER dataset.



1

2 *Figure 1: Income distributions across countries (facets) for different deciles (color) for different income concepts (line types) from*  
 3 *the UNU WIDER dataset*

#### 4 **2.2 Selection of income concept and scheme for selection of data points**

5 We construct a dataset that represents solely net income based on the same per-capita  
 6 equivalence scale. The per capita equivalence scale is calculated using total household income  
 7 divided by the household size assuming equal sharing of income. Our process, summarized in  
 8 Figure 2, improves upon other attempts to construct income distribution datasets from different  
 9 sources (Rao & Min, 2018; Rao et al., 2019), since the previous studies used the income concept  
 10 from different datasets interchangeably. We primarily select observations for net income deciles  
 11 across countries from the LIS, given the high quality of data available from that dataset. We

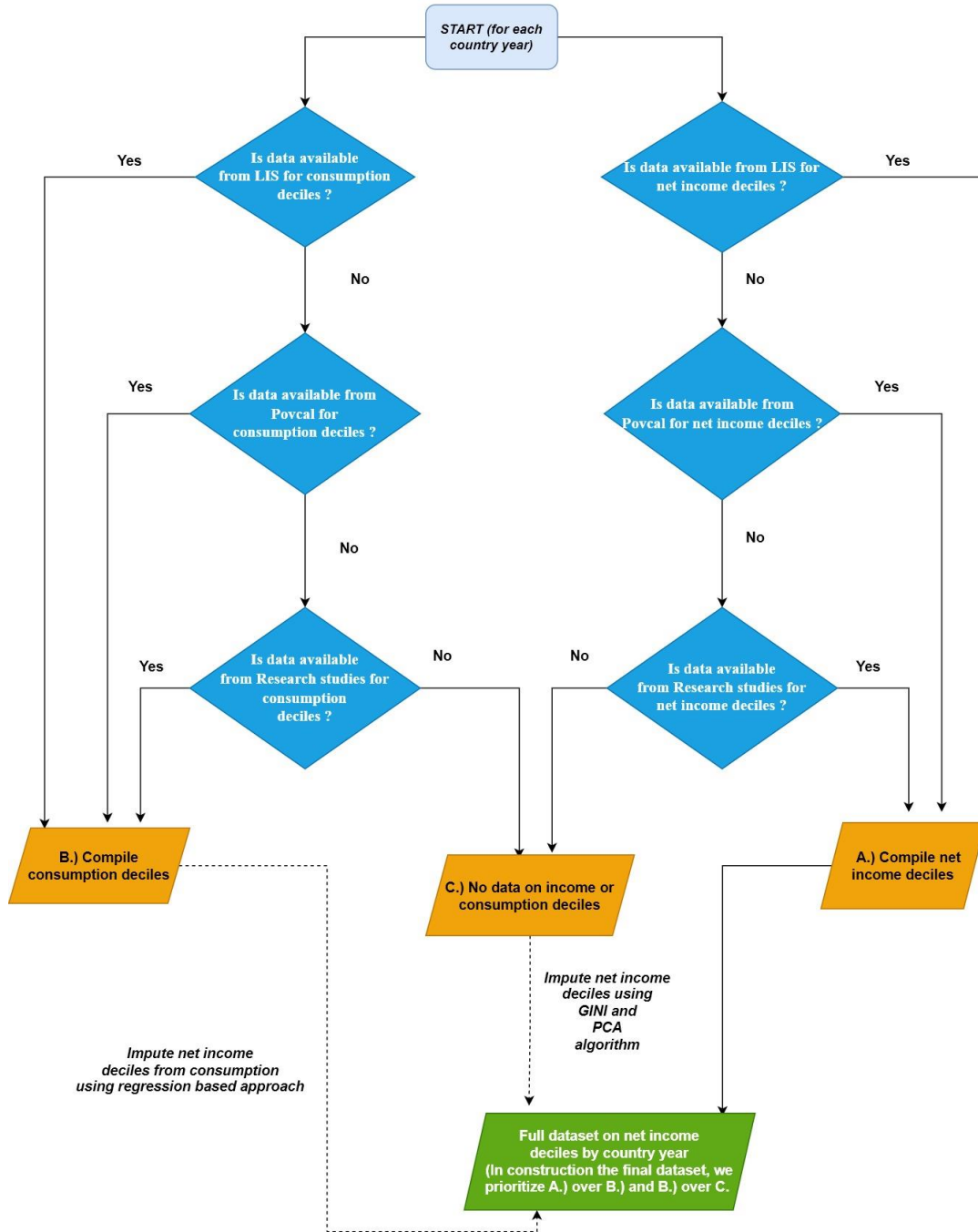
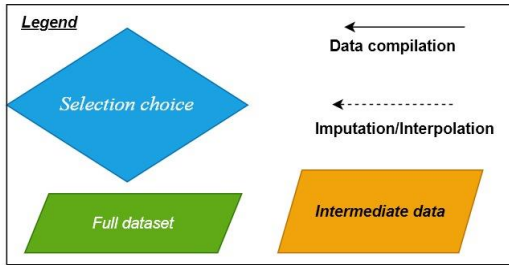
1 begin by compiling separate datasets of the income distribution for net income and consumption.  
2 In construction of both these datasets, we prioritize data points from the LIS. If no data were  
3 available from the LIS for a country-year, we selected an observation of net income or  
4 consumption from the PovCal database. Finally, if data were not available from that database, we  
5 rely on income distribution data from other research studies available from the UNU WIDER  
6 database. Note that when selecting values across multiple research studies we select values based  
7 on the rating assigned by the UNU WIDER database to the studies. All data are selected for the  
8 equivalence scale applied in the WIDER dataset, in which household income was converted to  
9 per capita units by dividing the household income by the household size assuming equal sharing  
10 of income. Note that when selecting data points, the WIDER dataset presents data in multiple  
11 equivalence scales. This enabled us to select data that represent a single equivalence scale.

12 Thus, at this stage, we compiled two different data sets, one that represents net income  
13 distribution across countries across time and another that represents consumption for the same  
14 countries. Now, we prioritize the selection of net income distribution values over consumption  
15 for each country-year.

16 Where data are only available for the consumption distribution, we convert the consumption data  
17 to net income data (as explained in section 2.3 below), using a regression approach to generate a  
18 harmonized dataset of net income deciles. Where necessary, we aggregated data sources across  
19 different survey scales (urban vs. rural) using a population-weighted average.

20 Figure 2 summarizes our data selection approach.





1

2 Figure 2: Summary of data selection approach for each country, year observation

1

2 Based on the above, we evaluated data coverage for the 229 countries we are targeting. The  
3 geographical boundaries of the 32 GCAM regions are defined based on these 229 countries  
4 (countries with their corresponding regions are listed in **SI Table 2**). We identified observations  
5 after the selection above for four categories, namely countries where we have net income data for  
6 at least one year, countries where we had both net-income and consumption distribution data for  
7 at least one year (in case of these countries we selected the net income distribution value for  
8 deciles), countries where we had only consumption data, and countries where there were no data  
9 (these countries only had data on aggregate measures of inequality such as the GINI coefficient  
10 but no data on income deciles). Table 3 below summarizes the number of observations (country  
11 years) by category of data.

12

<b>Data availability (for at least 1 year) by income concept</b>	<b>Number of countries</b>	<b>Notes on use</b>
Net income only	33	Use net income share data.
Both net income and consumption	54	Use net income share data.
Consumption only	83	Imputed income shares to be calculated (See section 2.3)
No decile data available but GINI is available	14	Impute deciles based on GINI coefficient (See section 2.4)
No data available	39	Drop from data set (section 5)
<b>Total</b>	<b>229</b>	

13

14 *Table 3: Summary of data availability by income concept.*

15 **2.3 Imputing net income shares using consumption shares**

16 Using data for countries which had both income and consumption distribution observations for  
17 the same years (n=257, across 54 countries where each of which have data for ten deciles of  
18 consumption and the ten deciles of net income), we constructed linear regression equations based  
19 on a training dataset (n=148) for each decile to impute the net income shares using the  
20 consumption shares of the income distribution (Figure 3). The highest R squared value was  
21 observed for the fifth, sixth, seventh and tenth deciles d10 of 0.78 and the lowest R squared value  
22 was observed for d9 of 0.48. We calculate values for 9 deciles d1-d8 and d10 and the re-calculate  
23 d9 as the residual. This is because d9’s regression equation was found to have the lowest R

1 squared value amongst the 10 deciles. We have verified that all imputed decile values add up to  
 2 1.

3

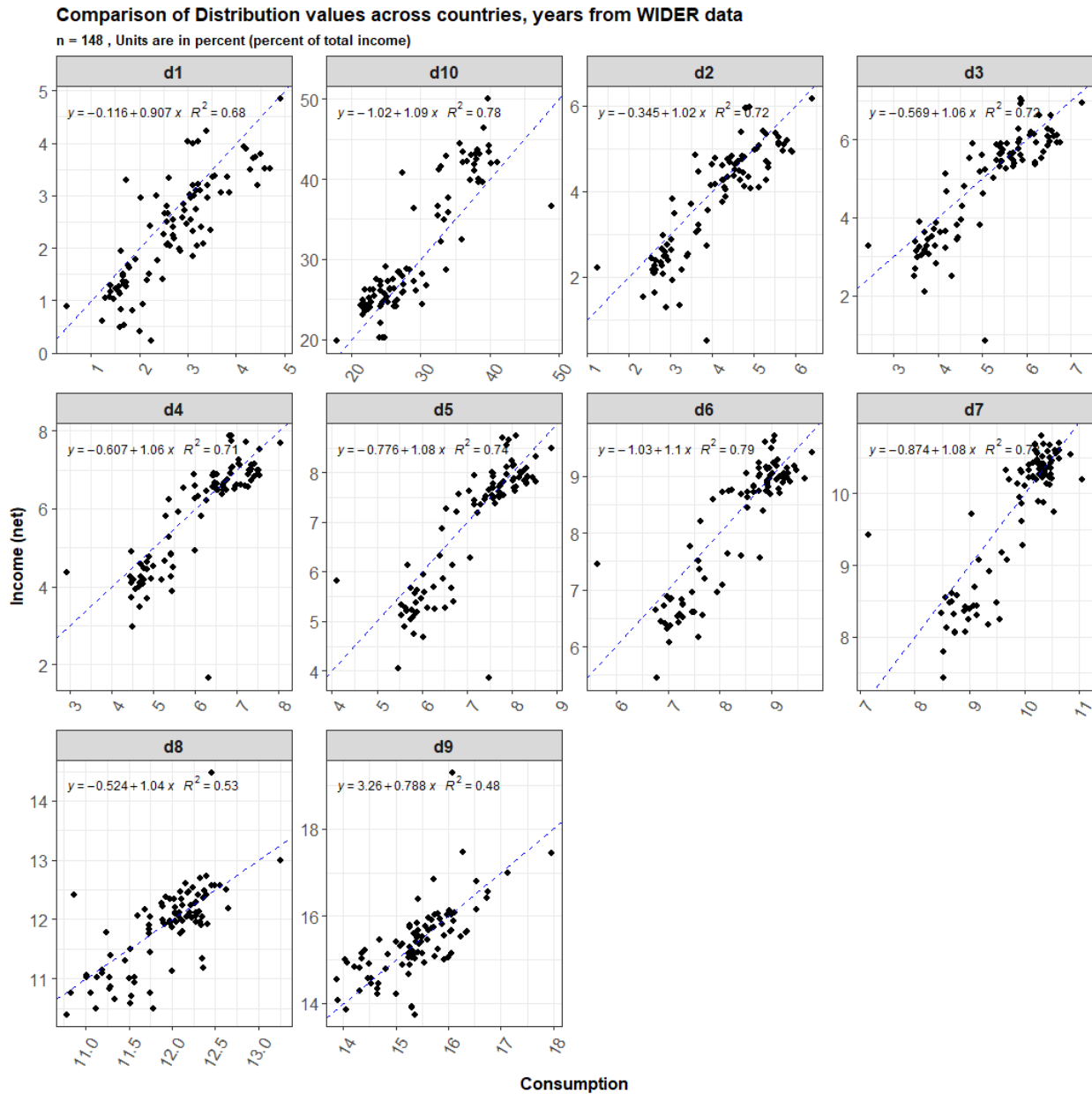


Figure 3: Consumption distribution deciles (x axis) compared to Net income distribution deciles (y axis) across all country-year observations. Dashed lines show the 1:1 linear relationship. Solid line is the used regression line. Only observations for half the dataset are selected (Pre 2004) for the plot

5 Consumption distribution deciles are converted into net income deciles using the equation (1)  
 6 (which was fit using a linear regression for each decile) below,

1  $D_{netincome_{n,r,t}} = a_n * D_{consumption_{n,r,t}} + b_n$  (1)

2 where,

3 D is the share of consumption or income in a particular decile between 0 and 100,

4 a is the coefficient applied to each decile parameterized using a linear regression,  
 5 documented in Table 4 below.

Decile	Intercept	Coefficient	Adjusted R <sup>2</sup>
1	-0.02	0.81	0.68
2	-0.39	1.00	0.72
3	-0.65	1.06	0.72
4	-0.76	1.08	0.71
5	-0.91	1.10	0.74
6	-1.12	1.12	0.79
7	-1.10	1.10	0.75
8	-0.74	1.06	0.53
9	4.81	0.69	0.48
10	-1.39	1.11	0.78

6 *Table 4: Summary of coefficients and intercepts by decile used by Equation 1. These are fit*  
 7 *based on 148 data points.*

8 b is derived from linear regressions run for each decile, documented in Table 4,

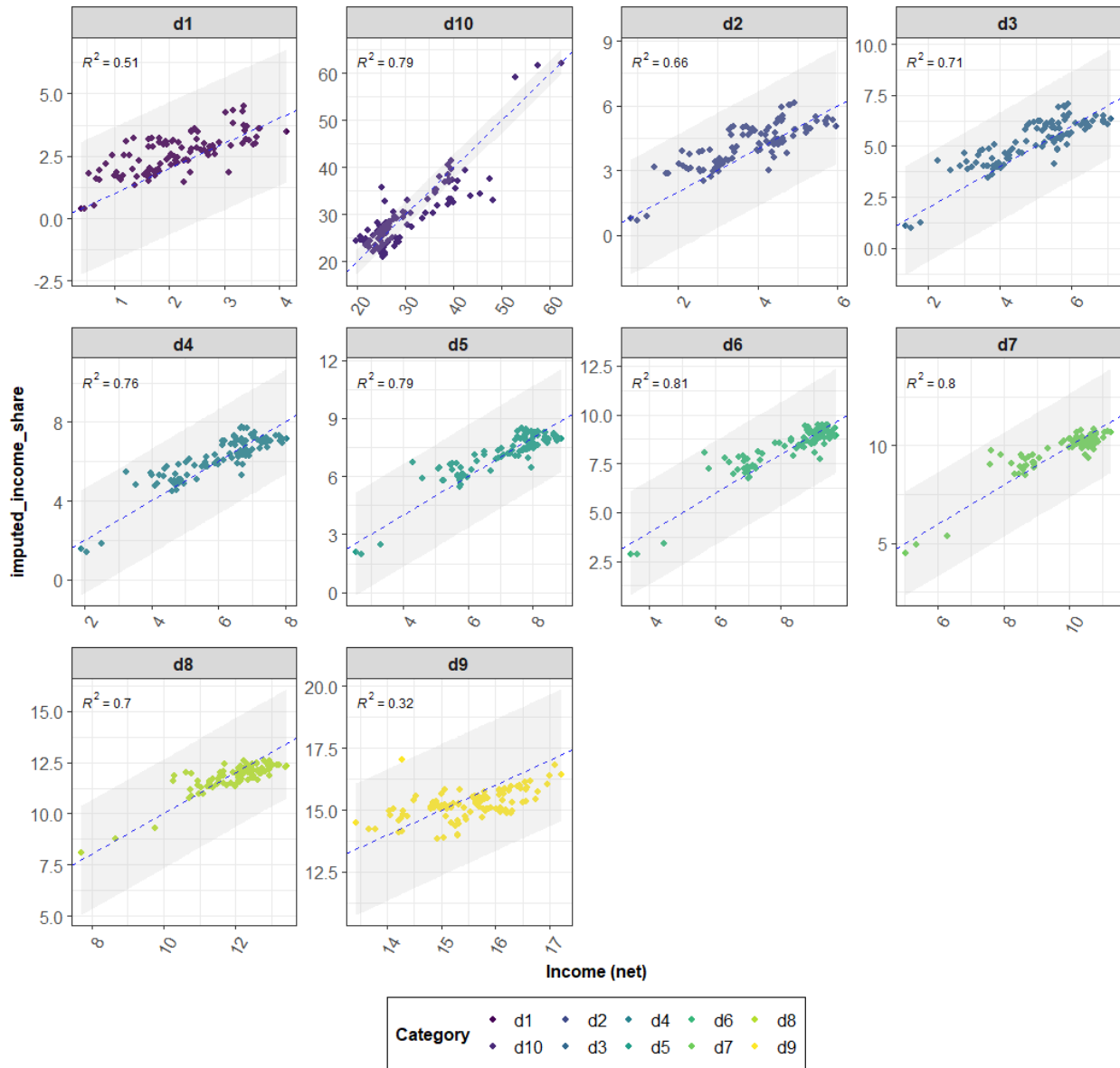
9 n is the decile ranging from 1 to 10, and

10 r, t are the region and the time step respectively.

11 **Validation of our approach-** We then verified the performance on our regression on a testing  
 12 dataset (Figure 4). We note that the R squared values in our testing dataset is similar to our  
 13 training dataset and we also noted that the imputed values are within a 5 percent confidence  
 14 interval of actual values. To validate our imputation method we calculated errors (Imputed  
 15 shares- actual shares) for our testing dataset (n=109). We compared the error by decile for the  
 16 dataset (*See SI Figure 1*). The mean error across deciles is generally within half a percent across  
 17 all years. There are larger differences for the year 2011, where we had very few observations.  
 18 We have also verified that all imputed decile values add up to 1.

**Comparison of Distribution values (using imputed income shares) across countries, years from the testing datase**

n = 109 , Units are in percent (percent of total income)



1

2 *Figure 4: Comparison of actual vs imputed values on our testing dataset. Different deciles are shown as facets and we also show*  
 3 *the confidence interval. All imputed values are found to be within a 5 % CI of the original values.*

4 We note that this imputation method is applied to a small subset of observations (394) out of the  
 5 total observations in our dataset 8522. We also acknowledge that this method is simple and  
 6 should be improved upon in future updates/analysis.

7

8 **2.4 Imputing net income deciles based on summary measures of the GINI coefficient.**

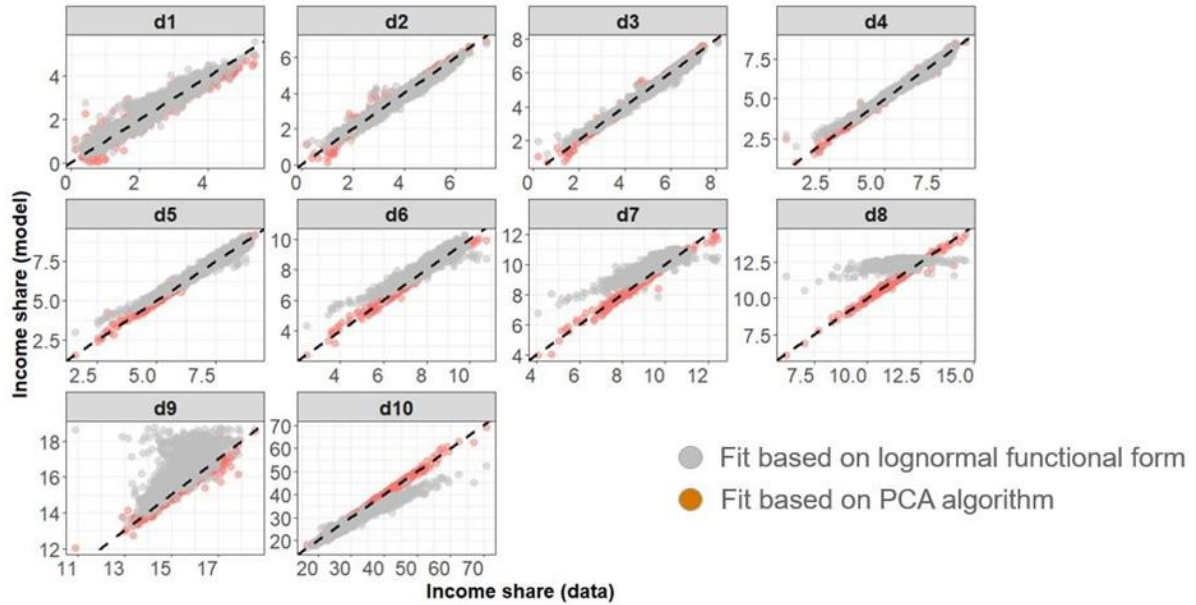
1 As observed in Table 1, the majority of observations in our dataset are those from the imputation  
2 from the GINI coefficient. In this section we will explain this imputation approach, why a new  
3 imputation approach was necessary and why this approach is an improvement upon existing  
4 methods.

5 For many countries, years, no data are available for the income or consumption deciles based on  
6 household survey data. However, World Development Indicators (WDI) dataset (Reid, 2012) do  
7 provide aggregate measures of the income distribution such as the GINI coefficient for some  
8 country-year observations<sup>1</sup>. Many studies have utilized the GINI coefficient in combination with  
9 different functional forms to estimate the underlying income distribution (Shorrocks & Wan,  
10 2008; Soergel et al., 2021). Most prominent amongst these methods is the usage of the lognormal  
11 functional form along with the GINI coefficient to derive the underlying distribution.

12 However, methods such as the lognormal functional form have documented limitations. For  
13 example, the observations are known to deviate from the lognormal in the tails of the  
14 distribution (Badel et al., 2020; Chotikapanich, 2008). Moreover, the lognormal functional form  
15 is assumed for every country for every year. Recently, a non-parametric approach was developed  
16 which uses the GINI coefficient in combination with a two-component model based on a  
17 principal components analysis (PCA) to produce a more accurate estimate of income deciles  
18 (Narayan et al., 2023). This method addresses some of the limitations of the lognormal  
19 functional form. The performance of the non-parametric PCA based approach compared to the  
20 lognormal functional form is described in more detail in Figure 5 below. We found that the PCA  
21 based approach improves the fit across several deciles compared to the lognormal functional  
22 form. The paper by Narayan et al. (Narayan et al., 2023) contains a more extensive discussion on  
23 the model fit and comparisons of fit across countries, years and individual deciles. Given that the  
24 method provided a good fit to the historical data on income distributions, we use this method to  
25 impute income deciles where only the GINI is available.

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<sup>1</sup> The WDI dataset has observations of the GINI coefficient from various research studies. However, the underlying income concept of the GINI coefficient is not always available.



1

2 *Figure 5: Comparison of fit of lognormal functional form (grey dots) with PCA based fit (orange dots) with data for each decile*  
 3 *(facet). Lines represent 1 to 1 fit between x and y axis. Income shares are expressed as a percent of total income.*

4 For country-years where we could not find data on net income or consumption, we used this  
 5 PCA based approach along with observed values of the GINI coefficient from the World  
 6 Development Indicators Database (Reid, 2012) to impute the underlying net income distribution.

7 The PCA based approach can be described as follows.

8 The income deciles are calculated as

$$9 \quad D_{r,t} = a_{r,t}PC1 + b_{r,t}PC2 \quad (2)$$

10 Where,

11 D is a 10-dimensional vector of income shares for all population deciles in region r at time t.

12 PC1 and PC2 are the two principal components, also vectors of length 10 (Values of PC1, PC2  
 13 are provided in **SI 2 Figure 2, SI 2 Table 3**)

14 a and b are coefficients of the two principal components specific to each region and time

15 The coefficient a is derived from the GINI coefficient using a regression equation estimated on  
 16 **1659** observations of national net income distribution

$$17 \quad a_{r,t} = -11.4815 + 29.71708 * GINI_{r,t} \quad (3)$$

1 And the coefficient  $b$  is estimated using lagged values of the Palma Ratio ( $d_{10}/(d_1+d_2+d_3+d_4)$ )  
2 and income share in the ninth decile and the current period labor share of GDP

$$3 \quad b_{r,t} = -17.18222 + (1.07957 * LabShareGDP_{r,t}) + (113.10810 * NinthDecile_{t-1}) \\ 4 \quad \quad \quad + (-0.36392 * PalmaRatio_{r,t-1}) \quad (4)$$

5

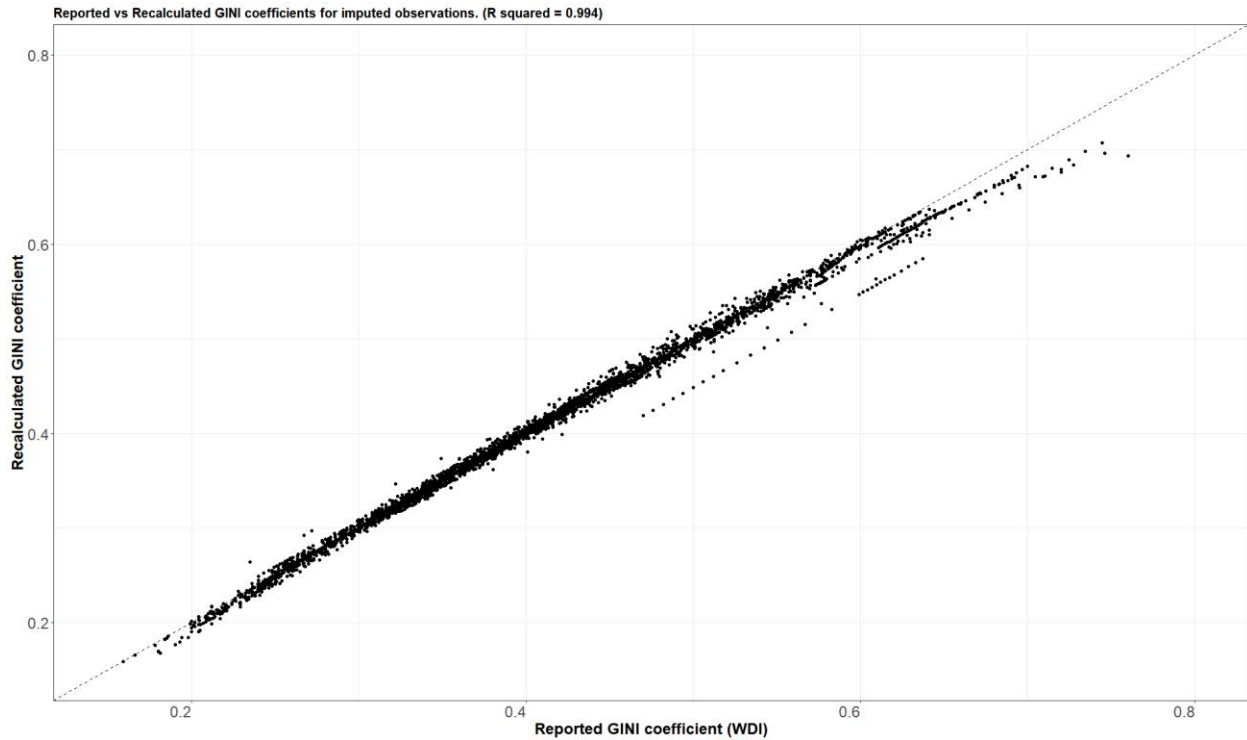
6 Using this approach, we were able to fill in values for various country-years. The observations in  
7 our dataset are now summarized in Table 1 above.

8 As mentioned and discussed above, the PC algorithm used for the imputation was tested against  
9 the latest data on decile level income distributions and provided a good fit for all deciles across  
10 all countries. This testing was performed both for in sample and out of sample observations. This  
11 PCA based method was also found to yield a better fit to the data when compared to other  
12 methods such as using a GINI coefficient in combination with a lognormal functional form.

13 Since we used a summary measure (GINI coefficient) to derive the underlying distribution, we  
14 also validated our imputation approach by recalculating the GINI coefficient from the imputed  
15 distribution and comparing it with the reported GINI coefficient (Figure 6). We observe that our  
16 re-calculated values largely have a one-to-one correlation with the input GINI values suggesting  
17 that the imputation did not introduce many errors (overall R squared value of the comparison is  
18 0.99). However, the relationship does start to weaken for countries with very high GINI  
19 coefficients such as South Africa where the recalculated GINI coefficient is different from the  
20 observed GINI coefficient by as much as 0.07 points. This is a result of the parameters of the  
21 PCA algorithm which do not reproduce well values for outlier countries with extreme GINI  
22 coefficients. We also observe that the re-calculated GINI coefficients for some countries are  
23 different in different years. For example, in Malawi, there are large year to year jumps in the  
24 reported GINI coefficients from year to year (**SI 2 Figure 3**).



1



2

3 *Figure 6: Comparison of the reported GINI coefficients from the WDI (x axis) with the recalculated GINI coefficients from the*  
4 *imputed distribution (y axis). Each dot is a country-year observation. The dashed line represents a one-to-one relationship.*

5 We also evaluated temporal trends in the complete dataset which now include values from direct  
6 observations and also imputed values. The top two panels in Figure 5 below shows trends in the  
7 income shares for the 10<sup>th</sup> decile for India and China across time from all data sources.

8 This approach helps us generate better coverage in our dataset and the PCA model provides a  
9 statistically valid method to generate the data from GINI coefficients. This approach does have  
10 some limitations, however. The GINI coefficients from the WDI can represent multiple income  
11 concepts. For example, in the US, the GINI from the World Development Indicators database is  
12 based on gross income and the income distribution based on surveys (From LIS) is for net  
13 income, i.e., it includes adjustments for direct taxation<sup>2</sup>. Moreover, it is unclear when the GINI  
14 coefficients are based on simple interpolation or country level/subnational survey data. This  
15 further makes it important to understand/document the source of the GINI coefficients used  
16 clearly.

17 As a first step in addressing this, we used data from the “All the GINIs” dataset which clearly  
18 specifies the income concept of the derived GINI coefficient (G. Ferreira et al., 2015; Smeeding  
19 & Latner, 2015), to identify the income concepts of the GINIs used for interpolation. Based on  
20 that, we identified that roughly 4200 observations of the GINIs used for imputation are net  
21 income GINIs while the remaining are consumption/expenditure GINIs or Gross income GINIs

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<sup>2</sup> Note that the examination of the metadata for the LIS values for the US shows that the values are computed as the gross income distribution minus an imputed tax adjustment.

1 (Table 5). Therefore, data points when derived from imputation of a  
 2 consumption/expenditure/gross income GINI have been marked as such in our final dataset.  
 3 Users can choose to use all data points together or filter data depending upon their needs.

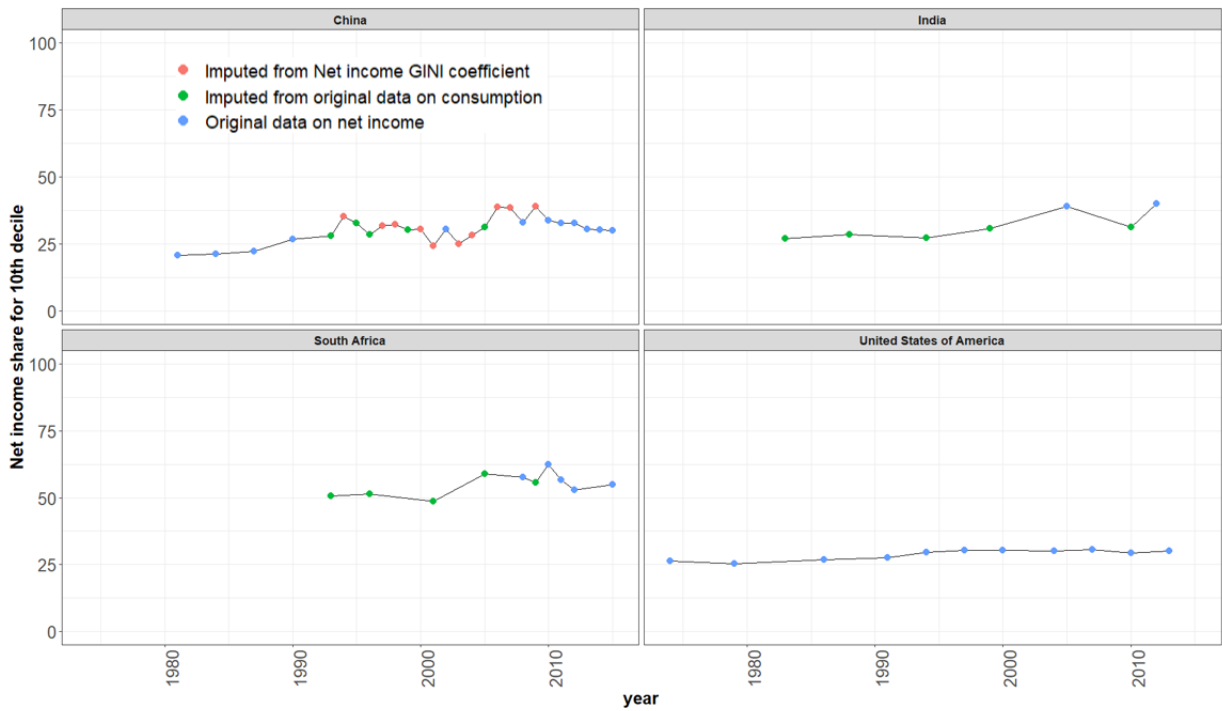
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Type of imputation	values
Imputed from Net income GINI	4201
Imputed from Expenditure and Consumption GINI	1303
Imputed from Gross income GINI	1333
<b>Total</b>	<b>6837</b>

5 *Table 5: Description of source of GINI used for imputation*

6 Given that the “All the GINIs” dataset still offers only a limited time series, this still suggests a  
 7 limitation in our imputation approach and one possible next step would be to only use net income  
 8 GINIs for the imputation of the decile level income distribution. Figure 7 below shows the full  
 9 time series of our dataset based on different types of imputation performed.

10



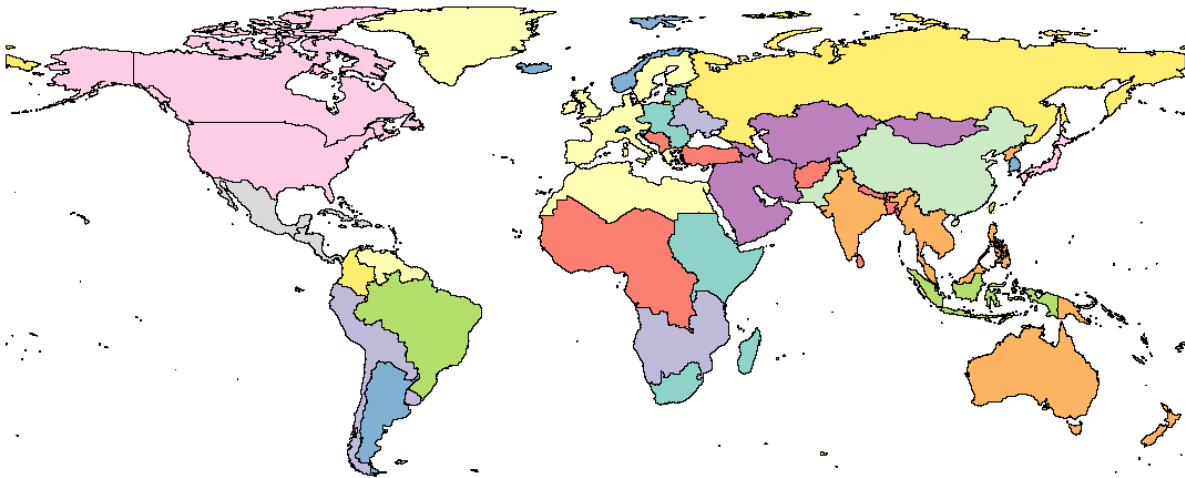
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12 *Figure 7: Temporal trends in the 10th decile for the complete dataset. Colors represent different data sources.*

13

14 **3. Aggregating income distributions to the regional level**

1 The motivation for developing this country-level dataset was to initialize decile level income  
2 distribution values for the Global Change Analysis Model (GCAM). Models like GCAM operate  
3 on regional boundaries and therefore would require the income distributions to be aggregated to  
4 their respective regional boundary conditions. We aggregated the income distributions from the  
5 country level to 32 geographic regions represented by GCAM. The 32 regions are shown as a  
6 map in Figure 7.



7

8 *Figure 7: Map of the 32 GCAM regions. These 32 GCAM regions are based on 229 country boundaries.*

9 Aggregating income distributions to the regional (where a region is made up of multiple  
10 countries) level is not straightforward because countries within regions differ in population size,  
11 average income level, and level of inequality in the income distribution. For example, an  
12 individual who belongs to the 10<sup>th</sup> decile in Romania would not necessarily be counted amongst  
13 the 10<sup>th</sup> decile of Europe as a whole, given the difference in the overall income level of Romania  
14 relative to higher income level of other European countries such as Germany and France.  
15 Similarly, even countries with similar average income levels may differ significantly in how  
16 income is distributed across deciles.

17 The aggregation of the country level income distributions to the regional income distributions  
18 involved the following steps:

- 19 1. First, we sorted all country net-income deciles in the region by the average decile income  
20 level, from lowest to highest income (The net income distribution shares are applied to  
21 this GDP per capita, measured in at PPP (2011 USD) to arrive at the income level). We  
22 use GDP per capita here, since that variable is the income proxy in GCAM.
- 23 2. Next, we calculated the cumulative population for each of these country income groups.  
24 The cumulative population over all country income groups matches the regional total  
25 population.

3. We then calculated cumulative population cutoffs that would create regional population deciles by dividing the regional population by 10.
4. Based on these cutoffs, we calculated the regional decile shares of income by assuming a uniform distribution of income within each country-decile. Thus, wherever a country decile spanned a regional cutoff, its income was split between regional deciles in proportion to the country population falling in each regional decile.

Figure 8 below illustrates our aggregation approach for GCAM region 14, Europe Non-EU, which is made up of Albania, Bosnia, Croatia, Macedonia, Montenegro, Serbia and Turkey. The figure demonstrates that a given regional decile can contain a mix of deciles at the country level. For example, the regional d2 consists of d3 and d4 values of some low-income countries such as Serbia and Albania. The regional d10 contains both the d9 and d10 values from Turkey.

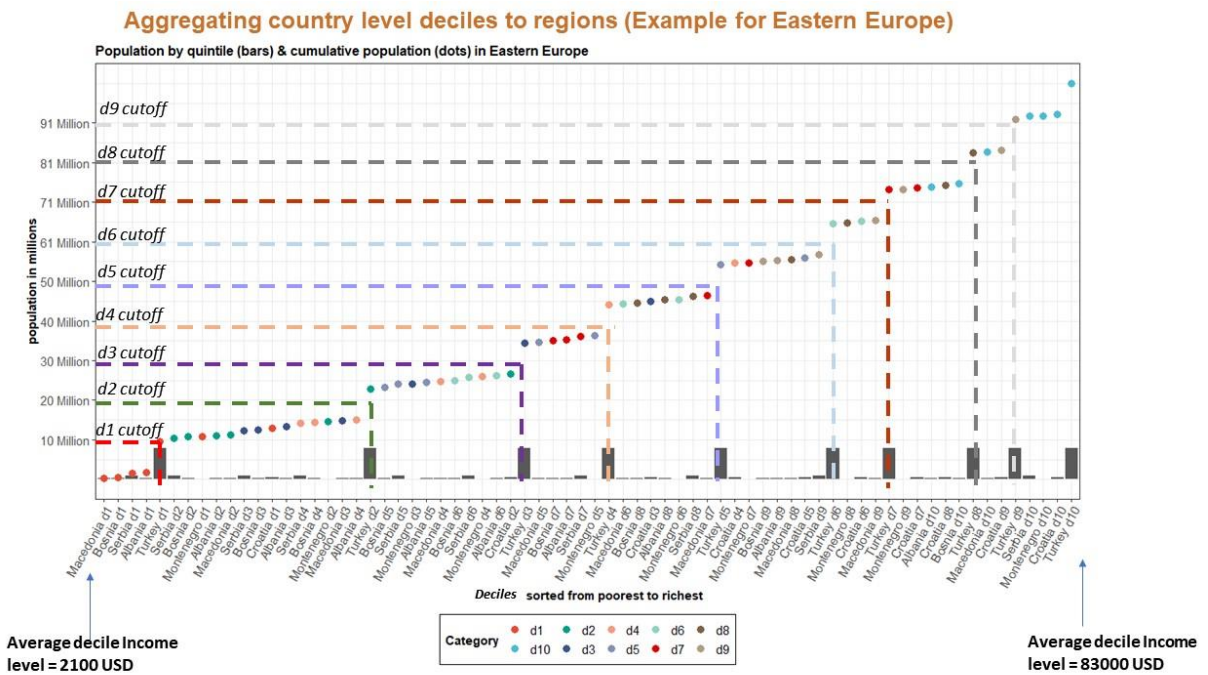
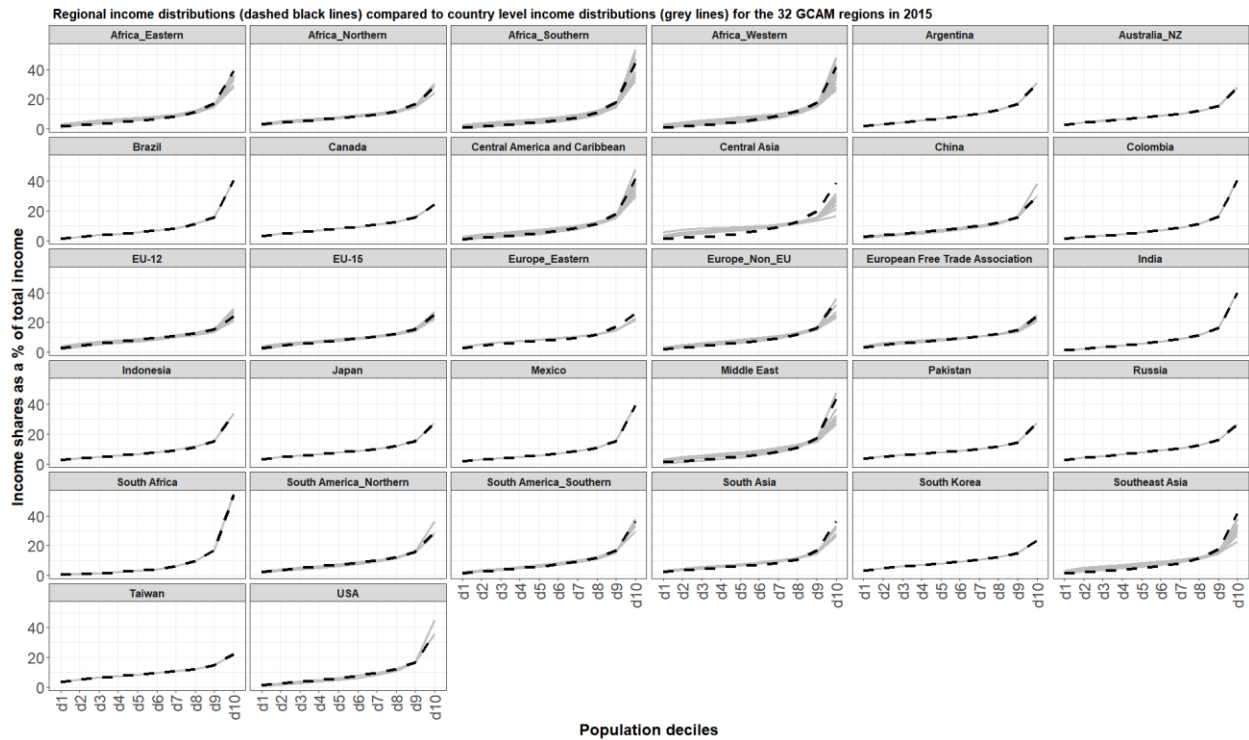


Figure 8: Explanation of our aggregation approach. On the x axis all deciles within the region are sorted from low income to high income. Bars track the population. The dots show the cumulative population compared to the decile level income. Dashed lines show the new regional cutoffs for the deciles.

We also compared the aggregated income distribution to the country level income distributions for 2015 (Figure 9). We find that the aggregated income distributions are mostly driven by trends in the income distribution of the most populous countries in the region, as expected. In the example above, the income distribution for GCAM region 14 (Europe Non-EU) is largely driven by the income distribution of Turkey, which is the most populous, and most unequal, country in that region (e.g., Turkey represents approximately 75% of the regional population in 2015). There are certain cases where the regional distribution is significantly different than the country-level distributions. In Central Asia for example, the regional income distribution is much more unequal (regional GINI is 0.53) compared to the country level GINIs (Highest GINI is 0.39). This is because there is considerable variation in the income levels across countries. The

1 country-level average incomes range from USD 2011 in Tajikistan to USD 23485 in Uzbekistan.  
 2 This further illustrates why a specific aggregation method was necessary to construct these  
 3 regional income distributions (Simple aggregation methods would miss such intra-regional  
 4 dynamics).

5  
 6



7  
 8 *Figure 9: Regional income distributions (Dashed black line) compared to the national income distributions (grey lines) in each of*  
 9 *the 32 regions in 2015.*

10

#### 11 4. Quantifying coverage and assessing regional bias in the data

12 As mentioned earlier, we intended to develop a dataset for net income distribution for the 229  
 13 countries aggregated to 32 regions used in GCAM. As shown in Table 5, we were unable to find  
 14 any data on net income or consumption for 39 of those 229 countries. Previous models that have  
 15 been developed for projecting income distributions have been based largely on data for high  
 16 income countries (Rao et al., 2019; Sauer et al., 2020).

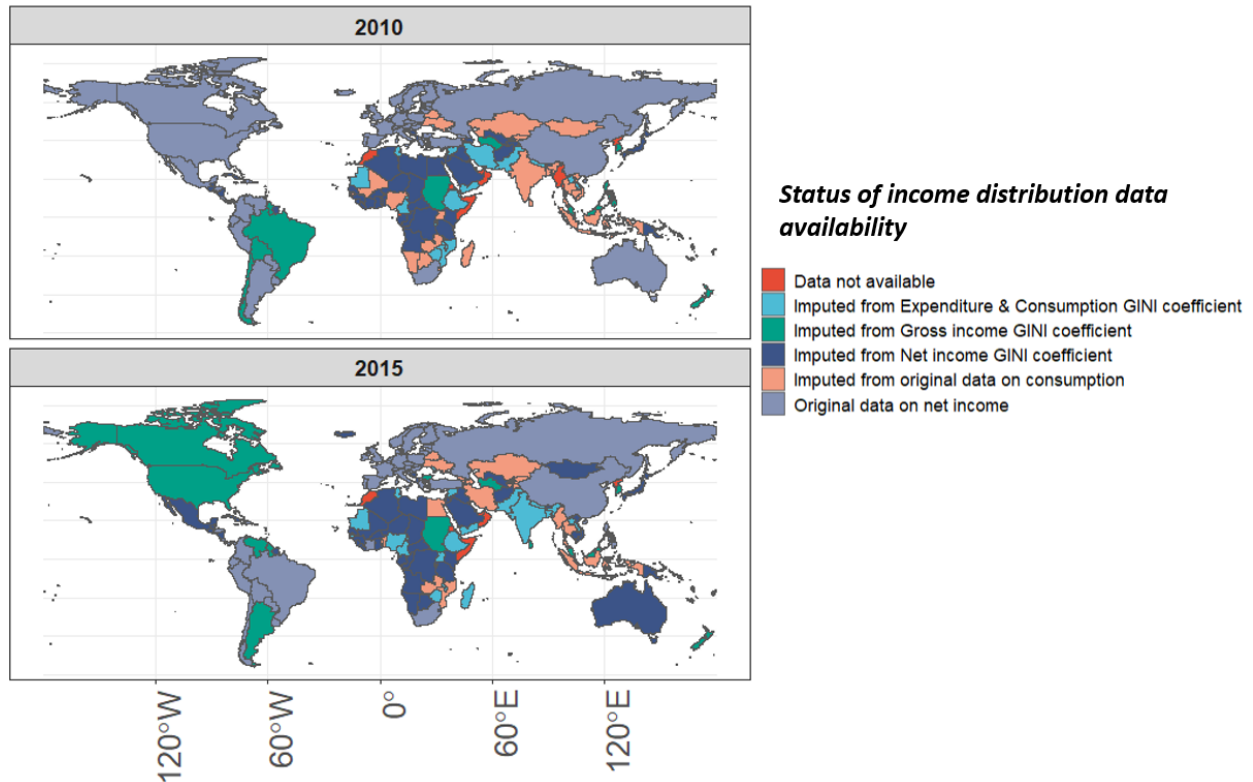
17 In order to evaluate whether the lack of data for the 56 countries introduces a bias, we assessed  
 18 the data coverage in terms of percent of global population (total population of 229 countries) and  
 19 percent of global GDP (total GDP at MER for 229 countries) for our dataset. We found that our  
 20 dataset covers 98% of the global population and 93% of the global GDP in any given year.

1 Similarly, we also compared the population and GDP of countries with and without data for two  
 2 years (**Table 6**) and found that the countries that are missing data in the latest historical year  
 3 (2015) only constitute 1.3% of the global population and 0.3% of the global GDP. The biggest  
 4 countries that are missing data in terms of population in 2015 are Morocco (33 million people),  
 5 North Korea (24 million people) and Somalia (10 million people). In terms of GDP, the biggest  
 6 countries missing are Morocco ( 123 billion USD at PPP), Oman (68 billion USD at PPP) and  
 7 Equatorial Guinea (18 billion USD at PPP).

Country data status	year	Global GDP PPP	Global Population
<b>Data not available</b>	<b>2010</b>	<b>0.4%</b>	<b>2.0%</b>
<b>Data not available</b>	<b>2015</b>	<b>0.3%</b>	<b>1.3%</b>
Imputed from GINI coefficient (using PCA algorithm)	2010	19.9%	25.8%
Imputed from GINI coefficient (using PCA algorithm)	2015	45.1%	52.5%
Imputed from original data on consumption (Using regression)	2010	10.8%	31.2%
Imputed from original data on consumption(Using regression)	2015	5.8%	9.6%
Original data on net income	2010	68.9%	41.0%
Original data on net income	2015	48.8%	36.6%

8 *Table 6: Coverage by data status in terms of GDP in PPP and Population from the SSP*  
 9 *database V9.*

10 Further , Figure 10 below shows the data availability status (from Table 6) as a map, to show the  
 11 status of data availability by ISO code.



1  
2 *Figure 8: Data availability by country. Availability is shown here for two years 2010 and 2015.*

3 Since this data will be used to initialize income distributions in the GCAM model, we also  
4 evaluated whether the data would introduce a bias for any GCAM region (e.g., is there no  
5 coverage or poor data coverage for any given GCAM region).

6 To evaluate this, we divided the countries in our dataset into the 32 geographical regions  
7 modelled by GCAM. We then assessed the data coverage in terms of a percent of population (SI  
8 3 Table 4) and GDP (SI 3 Table 5) for each of these regions. While these regions are specific to a  
9 particular model, they also well represent heterogeneity across countries in terms of regional  
10 economic and demographic conditions.

11 An example of a result of this assessment is that in the region of Africa Eastern we found data  
12 that covers 64% of the region's population in 2010 and 40% of the region's GDP for the same  
13 year. We performed this assessment for 5 years from 2010 to 2015. The purpose of this  
14 assessment is to verify whether we have some coverage of data for all regions of the world  
15 within those 5 years which would increase our confidence that our models are not biased towards  
16 high income countries. The lowest coverage in our dataset is found for the Middle East region  
17 where our data covers roughly 60% of the region's population and 40% of the region's GDP.

## 18 **5. Updating data in the future**

19 As noted in the sections above, our dataset currently contains data for the national income  
20 distribution from 1958 to 2015. This is largely because these data were produced to calibrate the  
21 Global Change Analysis Model (GCAM) whose final model base year is 2015. We will update  
22 this dataset to the most recent years in the near future. Users interested in extending the dataset



1 by themselves can make use of the R scripts made available as a part of the *pridr* software  
2 package (available here- <https://github.com/JGCRI/pridr>) to perform the extension.

## 3 4 **6. Discussion**

5 In this paper we present a new consistent dataset on the net income distribution across 190  
6 countries from 1958-2015. This dataset is also available for 32 aggregated regions. To our  
7 knowledge there is no other dataset that presents consistent data at multiple geographical scales  
8 that has been documented in a peer-reviewed article. This complete and harmonized dataset may  
9 be useful for efforts related to modelling of the net income distribution.

10 The aggregation method presented in this paper (section 3) takes into account both within-  
11 country and across-country inequality when aggregating income distributions to regional  
12 boundaries. This is important to regions where there is significant diversity in the income  
13 distribution across countries such as Central Asia, where the aggregated income distribution is  
14 significantly more unequal than any of the member countries (Figure 10).

15 There are a number of areas of improvement that we have noted that can be explored as next  
16 steps or in future updates to this dataset. First, we have used a simple linear regression approach  
17 when converting the consumption distributions to net income distribution. This can be improved  
18 upon if more data becomes available related to the savings rate across countries or if the income  
19 within countries can be broken down into the various incomes and expenditures similar to a  
20 Computable General Equilibrium (CGE) framework.

21 Similarly, while our imputation approach greatly increased spatio-temporal coverage in our  
22 dataset, we noticed that the GINI values from the WDI can represent multiple income concepts.  
23 In the future, these gross income or consumption GINIs should also be converted to net income  
24 GINIs before the imputation. This would require more detailed data on the input GINI  
25 coefficients. One possible next step would be to construct a method for such a conversion using  
26 GINI values from datasets such as the “All the GINIs” dataset which tracks the type of the GINI  
27 coefficient (G. Ferreira et al., 2015; Smeeding & Latner, 2015). Another option would be to  
28 explicitly generate a tax adjustment to convert gross income values to net income.

29 We further note that we utilized a single equivalence scale to represent our income distributions  
30 (per capita). However, we have not tested the effect of changing equivalence scales on income  
31 distributions. This can be tested in the future.

32 We further found that the PCA based imputation approach generates some error when imputing  
33 the income distributions of highly unequal regions such as South Africa. As more data on income  
34 distributions becomes available, the PCA algorithm can be re-parameterized to newer data.  
35 When this happens, the imputation should be re-performed.

36 Finally, the data generation described above is documented as an open-source workflow of a  
37 software package called *pridr* which can be used to generate and re-aggregate these data. The  
38 software package is available on GitHub and the dataset itself is available as a version-  
39 controlled release on Zenodo (See data availability statement below).



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## 7. Data availability

The main dataset is available here on Zenodo- <https://zenodo.org/record/7093997> (Narayan et al. 2022) There are 2 main datasets available –

1. 32 region income deciles from 1958 to 2015
2. ISO level income distributions from 1958-2015

Note that the income distributions data can be flexibly generated using the pridr software package available on GitHub here- <https://github.com/JGCRI/pridr>

## Competing interests

The authors declare that none of the authors have any competing interests.

## Author contributions

All authors contributed equally to the production of this dataset and to the writing of this manuscript.

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