

DECOMPOSING WORLD INCOME DISTRIBUTION: DOES THE WORLD HAVE A MIDDLE CLASS?

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Using the national income/expenditure distribution data from 111 countries, we decompose total inequality between the individuals in the world, by continents and regions. We use Yitzhaki's Gini decomposition which allows for an exact breakdown of the Gini. We find that Asia is the most heterogeneous continent; between-country inequality is much more important than inequality in incomes within countries. At the other extreme is Latin America where differences between the countries are small, but inequalities within the countries are large. Western Europe/North America is fairly homogeneous both in terms of countries' mean incomes and income differences between individuals. If we divide the world population into three groups: the rich (those with incomes greater than Italy's mean income), the poor (those with incomes less than Western countries' poverty line), and the middle class, we find that there are only 11 percent of people who are "world middle class"; 78 percent are poor, and 11 percent are rich.

1. INTRODUCTION

Recent heightened awareness of globalization is also reflected in the interest in issues of international and global inequality. This is, of course, expected since once we begin thinking of the globe as a single unit, then the distribution of income (or welfare) among world citizens becomes a natural topic. Milanovic (2002) has derived world income distribution, the first time such a distribution was calculated from individual countries' household surveys—formally in the same way as one would calculate national income distribution from regional distributions of household incomes. Similar computations were also recently performed by T. Paul Schultz (1998), Chotikapanich, Valenzuela, and Rao (1997), Korzeniewick and Moran (1997), and Firebaugh (1999). They deal either with international inequality (inequality between mean countries' incomes where importance of each country is weighted by its population), or try to approximate world inequality assuming that each country displays a log-normal distribution of income.

Once we consider the world as unit of observation, we can immediately ask the following question: does world distribution also exhibit certain features familiar from our study of individual countries' distributions? Who are the world's rich, and poor? Is there world's middle class? Can we partition the world by

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countries and still obtain a reasonably good approximation of its “true” inequality obtained by treating all individuals equally regardless of where they live? Are continents good candidates for such partitioning since, for example, most of Africa is poor, most of Western Europe is rich etc.? These are the questions we address in this paper. In Section 2 we describe the data we use. In Section 3, we review the Gini decomposition methodology, due to Yitzhaki (1994), which dispenses with the problem of non-exact decomposition of the Gini by recipients. Section 4 decomposes world inequality by continents. Section 5 does the same thing for continents themselves: it decomposes each continent’s inequality by countries in an effort to establish how homogeneous or heterogeneous the continents are. Section 6 partitions the globe into three familiar “worlds”: the First World of the rich OECD countries, the Second World of the middle class which includes all countries with mean income levels between Brazil and Italy, and the Third World of the poor. Section 7 concludes the paper.

2. DESCRIPTION OF THE DATA

The data used in this paper are the same data as used by Milanovic (2002) in the first derivation of world income distribution based on national household surveys. The sources, drawbacks and advantages of the database are explained in detail in Milanovic (2002, pp. 56ff and Annex 1).¹ Here, we shall only briefly describe some of the key data characteristics.

We use here only the data for the year 1993 (Milanovic derives world income distribution for two years, 1988 and 1993). They cover 111 countries (see Table 1). For most of the countries, the distribution data are presented in the form of mean per capita income by deciles (10 data points). In a number of countries, however, since we had access to the individual-level data, we decided to use a finer disaggregation than decile, e.g. to use 12, 15 or 20 income groups. Individuals are always ranked by household per capita income. The preferred welfare concept is net (disposable) income, or expenditures. However, in many cases, particularly for poorer countries where direct taxes are minimal, we use gross income. In these cases, there is practically no difference between net and gross income.

The data for all countries come from nationally-representative household surveys. There are only three exceptions to this rule: the data from Argentina, El Salvador, and Uruguay are representative of the urban areas only, and thus in the calculation and decomposition of inequality, these countries’ population includes only urban population. About three-quarters of the country data used in the study are calculated from individual (unit record) data.

All the countries are divided into five geographical regions: Africa, Asia, Eastern Europe and the former Soviet Union (transition economies), Latin America and the Caribbean (LAC), and Western Europe, North America and Oceania (WENAO). We choose these five groups because they represent the “natural” economico-political groupings which by being either geographically or politically and economically close share many common characteristics. For example, combining Eastern Europe with the countries issued from the former

¹The data can be downloaded from <http://www.worldbank.org/research/transition/inequality>

TABLE 1
COUNTRIES INCLUDED IN THE STUDY

WENAO (23)
Australia, Austria, Belgium, Canada, Cyprus, Denmark, Finland, France, Germany, Greece, Ireland, Israel, Italy, Luxembourg, Netherlands, Norway, New Zealand, Portugal, Sweden, Switzerland, U.K., U.S., Turkey

Latin America and Caribbean (19)
Argentina(urb), Bolivia, Brazil, Chile, Colombia, Costa Rica, Dominican Republic, El Salvador(urb), Honduras, Jamaica, Mexico, Panama, Paraguay, Venezuela, Ecuador, Uruguay(urb), Peru, Guyana, Nicaragua

Eastern Europe and FSU (22)
Armenia, Bulgaria, Czech Republic, Georgia, Slovak Republic, Hungary, Poland, Romania, Belarus, Estonia, Kazakhstan, Kyrgyz Rep., Latvia, Lithuania, Moldova, Russia, Turkmenistan, Ukraine, Uzbekistan, FR Yugoslavia, Slovenia, Albania

Asia (20)
Bangladesh, China, Hong Kong, India, Indonesia, Japan, Jordan, Korea South, Malaysia, Pakistan, Philippines, Taiwan, Thailand, Laos, Mongolia, Nepal, Papua New Guinea, Singapore, Vietnam, Yemen Rep.

Africa (27)
Algeria, Egypt, Ghana, Ivory Coast, Lesotho, Madagascar, Morocco, Nigeria, Senegal, Tunisia, Uganda, Zambia, Bissau, Burkina, Djibouti, Ethiopia, Gambia, Guinea, Kenya, Mali, Mauritania, Namibia, Niger, RCA, South Africa, Swaziland, Tanzania

Total: 111

Soviet Union makes sense because of the shared cultural and historical backgrounds reflected, among other things, in a similar level of income and inequality. Three regions (Africa; Latin America and the Caribbean; Eastern Europe and the former Soviet Union) correspond to the regional classification used by the World Bank. WENAO is equivalent to the “old” OECD (before the recent expansion of the organization) short of Japan, or to Maddison’s grouping of Western countries and their overseas off-shoots.²

The countries included represent 5 billion people, or 91 percent of estimated world population in 1993. The total current dollar GDP of the countries covered is about 95 percent of current dollar world GDP (see Table 2).

TABLE 2
DATA COVERAGE OF POPULATION AND GDP

	Total Population (million)	Population included in the Surveys (million)	Coverage of Population (in %)	Coverage of GDP (in %)
Africa	672	503	74.8	89.2
Asia	3,206	2,984	93.1	91.3
E. Europe/FSU	411	391	95.2	96.3
LAC	462	423	91.6	92.5
WENAO	755	716	94.8	96.4
World	5,506	5,017	91.1	94.7

²For simplicity, the regions are also called “continents.”

WENAO and Eastern Europe/FSU are covered almost in full (95 percent of the population; 96 percent of GDP). Asia and LAC are covered slightly above 90 percent, both in terms of population and GDP. Finally, Africa's coverage is almost 90 percent in terms of GDP and 75 percent in terms of population.

What are the most important data problems? Other than the issue of differential reliability (quality) of individual country surveys, differences in surveys' designs (recall and reference period, imputation of housing services etc.) which we lack information to correct for, the main problem is the mixing of income and expenditures. This was unavoidable—if we want to cover the entire world—because countries generally tend to collect either income or expenditures survey data. Most of the survey data in Africa and Asia are expenditure-based; on the other hand, in WENAO, Eastern Europe/FSU, and Latin American countries, almost all surveys are income-based (Table 3).

TABLE 3
WELFARE INDICATORS USED IN SURVEYS:
INCOME OR EXPENDITURES (NUMBER OF
COUNTRIES), 1993

	Income	Expenditure
Africa	2	25
Asia	7	13
Eastern Europe	19	3
LAC	16	3
WENAO	23	0
World	67	44

Another problem is the use of a single PPP exchange rate for the whole country even when regional price differences may be large. This is particularly a problem in the case of large and populous countries like China, India, Indonesia and Russia which are, economically-speaking, not well integrated into a single national market, and where prices may differ significantly between the regions. Since these countries, because of their large populations, strongly influence the shape of overall world distribution, small errors in the estimates of their PPPs may produce large effects on the calculated world inequality. There is no adjustment, however, that one can in an *ad hoc* fashion apply to the purchasing power exchange rates generated by the international comparison project.³ In principle, these rates are based on direct price comparisons in 1993, which is one of the reasons why we benchmarked the calculation of world income distribution precisely at 1993.

3. THE MAIN PROPERTIES OF THE DECOMPOSITION OF THE GINI INDEX

This section describes the main properties of the decomposition of the Gini index according to sub-populations. The decomposition we follow is the one presented in Yitzhaki (1994).

³The only adjustment that we have made was to reduce price level in rural China by 20 percent compared to the China PPP number obtained from the International Comparison Project. This was done because the PPP value for China was calculated from prices observed in three cities alone, and rural price level in China is considered to be lower than urban. Lowering price level for rural China lowers world inequality.

Let y_i , $F_i(y)$, $f_i(y)$, μ_i , p_i represent the income, cumulative distribution, the density function, the expected value, and the share of group i in the overall population, respectively.⁴ The world population is composed of groups (i.e. regions, countries) so that the union of populations of all countries makes the world population. Let $s_i = p_i\mu_i/\mu_w$ denote the share of group i in the overall income.

Note that

$$(1) \quad F_w(y) = \sum_i p_i F_i(y)$$

That is, the cumulative distribution of the world is the weighted average of the distributions of the groups, weighted by the relative size of the population in each group. The formula of the Gini used in this paper is (Lerman and Yitzhaki, 1984):

$$(2) \quad G = \frac{2 \operatorname{cov}(y, F(y))}{\mu}$$

which is twice the covariance between the income y and the rank $F(y)$ standardized by mean income μ . The Gini of the world, G_w , can be decomposed as:

$$(3) \quad G_w = \sum_{i=1}^n s_i G_i O_i + G_b,$$

where O_i is the overlapping index of group i with the world's distribution (explained below), and G_b is between group inequality. The world Gini is thus exactly decomposed into two components: the between group inequality (G_b), and a term that is the sum of the products of income shares, Ginis and overlaps for all groups.

The between group inequality G_b is defined in Yitzhaki and Lerman (1991) as:

$$(4) \quad G_b = \frac{2 \operatorname{cov}(\mu_i, \bar{F}_{wi})}{\mu_w}$$

G_b is twice the covariance between the mean income of each group and its mean rank in the overall population of the world (\bar{F}_{wi}), divided by overall mean income. That is, each group is represented by its mean income, and the average of the ranks of its members in the world distribution. The term G_b equals zero if either average income or average rank, are equal in all countries. In extreme cases, G_b can be negative, when the mean income is negatively correlated with mean rank.

This definition of between group inequality differs from the one used by Pyatt (1976), Mookherjee and Shorrocks (1982), Shorrocks (1984) and Silber (1989). In their definition, the between-groups is based on the covariance between mean income and the rank of mean income. The difference in the two definitions is in the rank that is used to represent the group: under Pyatt's approach it is the rank of the mean income of the country, while under Yitzhaki–Lerman it is the mean of the ranks of all members (citizens of a country). These two approaches

⁴In the sample, the cumulative distribution is estimated by the rank, normalized to be between zero and one, of the observation.

yield the same ranking if all the individuals have the same (average) income. Denote the Pyatt between-group as G_p . Then it can be shown that:

$$(5) \quad G_b \leq G_p.$$

The upper limit is reached, and (5) holds as an equality, if the ranges of incomes that groups occupy do not overlap. We will return to this point, following the interpretation of the overlapping term.

Overlapping is interpreted as the inverse of stratification. Stratification is defined by Lasswell (1965, p.10) as:

In its general meaning, a stratum is a horizontal layer, usually thought of as between, above or below other such layers or strata. Stratification is the process of forming observable layers, or the state of being comprised of layers. Social stratification suggests a model in which the mass of society is constructed of layer upon layer of congealed population qualities.

According to Lasswell, perfect stratification occurs when the observations of each group (e.g. country) are confined to a specific range, and the ranges of groups do not overlap. Stratification plays an important role in the theory of relative deprivation (Runciman, 1966), which argues that stratified societies can tolerate greater inequalities than non-stratified ones (Yitzhaki, 1982).

Formally, overlapping of each group is defined as:

$$(6) \quad O_i = O_{wi} = \frac{\text{cov}_i(y, F_w(y))}{\text{cov}_i(y, F_i(y))},$$

where, for convenience, the index w is omitted and cov_i means that the covariance is according to distribution i , i.e.

$$(7) \quad \text{cov}_i(y, F_w(y)) = \int (y - \mu_i)(F_w(y) - \bar{F}_{wi})f_i(y) dy,$$

where \bar{F}_{wi} is the average rank in group i in the world (all people in group i are assigned their rank in the distribution of incomes in the world and \bar{F}_{wi} represents the mean value). The overlapping (6) can be further decomposed to identify the contribution of each group that composes the world distribution. In other words, total overlapping of group i , O_i , is composed of overlapping of i with all other groups, including group i itself. This further decomposition of O_i is⁵:

$$(8) \quad O_i = \sum_j p_j O_{ji} = p_i O_{ii} = p_i + \sum_{j \neq i} p_j O_{ji}$$

where

$$O_{ji} = \frac{\text{cov}_i(y, F_j(y))}{\text{cov}_i(y, F_i(y))},$$

is the overlapping of group j by group i .

⁵The proofs are in Yitzhaki (1994).

The properties of the overlapping index O_{ji} are the following:

- (a) $O_{ji} \geq 0$. The index is equal to zero if no member of the j distribution is in the range of distribution i (i.e. group i is a perfect stratum).⁶
- (b) O_{ji} is an increasing function of the fraction of group j that is located in the range of group i (note that the reference group is subscripted second).
- (c) For a given fraction of distribution j that is in the range of distribution i , the closer the observations belonging to j to the mean of group i the higher O_{ji} .
- (d) If the distribution of group j is identical to the distribution of group i , then $O_{ji} = 1$. Note that by definition $O_{ii} = 1$. This result explains the second equality in (8). Using (8), it is easy to see that $O_i \geq p_i$, a result to be borne in mind when comparing different overlapping indices of groups with different size.
- (e) $O_{ji} \leq 2$. That is, O_{ji} is bounded from above by 2. This maximum value will be reached if all observations belonging to distribution j are concentrated at the mean of distribution i .⁷ In general, the higher the overlapping index O_{ji} the lower will be O_{ij} . That is, the more group j is included in the range of distribution i , the less distribution i is expected to be included in the range of F_j .

Properties (a) to (e) show that O_{ji} is an index that measures the extent to which group j is included in the range of group i . Note that the indices O_{ji} and O_{ij} are not related to each other by a simple relationship. It is clear that the indices of overlapping are not independent. To see this, consider two countries with similar income levels but different inequalities. Let us take Mexico, i , and Czechoslovakia (under socialism), j . Mexico's Gini was around 50, Czechoslovakia slightly over 20. There are many rich and many poor people in Mexico, while the range of people's incomes in Czechoslovakia is very narrow. Consequently, almost (or maybe all) Czechoslovak citizens will be contained within the wide income range of Mexico, while relatively few Mexican citizens will be contained within the narrow income range of Czechoslovakia ($O_{ij} > O_{ji}$).

To see the impact of an increase in overlapping on the decomposition of Gini it is convenient to start with between-group inequality. As we have mentioned above (equation 5) G_p is the upper limit for G_b and it is reached if groups are perfectly stratified, i.e. $O_i = p_i$ for all i . In this case, the rank of the mean income of the group is identical to the average rank of (people's) incomes in the overall distribution. Overlapping will cause those two terms to deviate from each other, leading to a lower correlation between mean income and mean rank, and this will decrease the between-group component. Therefore, one can use the ratio of G_b/G_p as an index indicating the loss of between group inequality due to overlapping. Since the distribution of world income is given, and the Gini and mean income of each country are given, an increase in between group inequality must

⁶If incomes of all individuals from group j are higher than incomes of all individuals belonging to group i , then $F_j(y) = 1$ for all j , and thus $O_{ji} = 0$.

⁷Note, however, that if distribution i is given then it may be that the upper limit is lower than 2 (see Schechtman, 2000). That is, if we confine distribution i to be of a specific type, such as normal, then it may be that the upper bound will be lower than 2, depending on the type of the distribution.

be associated with a decrease of the overlapping component, and we can therefore view the overlapping indices as indicating the appropriateness of the variable used (e.g. country, region) to decompose the world inequality. Our objective in this paper is to show how this stratification-based Gini decomposition adds an entirely new dimension both to our understanding of inequality, and to the conclusions that one might draw.

4. DECOMPOSITION OF WORLD INEQUALITY BY CONTINENTS

World inequality can be decomposed by countries or by other grouping such as regions. Since there are more than 100 countries in the data it is convenient to perform the decomposition using groups of countries. Consider first the five regions which we have defined above.

TABLE 4
GINI DECOMPOSITION OF WORLD INEQUALITY BY CONTINENTS

Continent	(1) Population Share (p_i)	(2) Mean Income in \$PPP (μ_i)	(3) Mean Rank (F_{iv})	(4) Gini (G_i)	(5) Overlap Component (O_i)
Africa	0.100	1,310.0	0.407	0.521	0.921
Asia	0.595	1,594.6	0.397	0.615	1.037
Eastern Europe and FSU	0.078	2,780.9	0.609	0.465	0.721
Latin America and Caribbean	0.084	3,639.8	0.629	0.555	0.742
WENAO	0.143	10,012.4	0.861	0.394	0.346
Total	1	3,031.8	0.5	0.659	—
Between group Gini				0.309 (47%)	
Within group Gini $\sum_i s_i G_i O_i$				0.350 (53%)	
Overall Gini				0.659	

Note: Percentage contributions to overall Gini given between brackets.

Table 4 presents the decomposition of the Gini of the world in 1993. Overall Gini is 0.66 which is high by any standard. To get a grasp of the implication of such a coefficient it is worthwhile to compare it to a Gini of an easy-to-remember distribution. Consider a distribution where 66 percent of the population has zero income, and all income is equally divided among the rest. This is a distribution with a Gini of 0.66. Between Group Gini is 0.31 which is less than a half of the world Gini. Average income per capita is \$PPP 3031.8 (in international dollars of the year 1993).

The first column presents the share of each group in the population of the world, the second column presents continents' mean income per capita, the third the average ranking of the people in the continent in the world (e.g. the mean rank of Africans is 40.7th percentile); the fourth column presents the Gini coefficient of the continent, and the fifth the overlapping coefficient between this group and the world. If the overlap coefficient = p_i , it means that the continent forms a perfect stratum, 1 indicates that continent's distribution mimics the distribution function of the world, while an overlapping index which is approaching 2 means that the

continent is heterogeneous with respect to the world. It breaks into two separate strata, one richer and the other poorer than the world.

We focus on the last column. Asia is not a homogeneous group. It has the highest inequality (which is almost equal to world inequality) and has an overlapping index slightly higher than one, which means that it is not a stratified group with respect to the world. Its distribution follows very closely world distribution. This result is not surprising if we consider having Japan and China in the same continent. African distribution is also close to that of the world. LAC and Eastern Europe/FSU distributions show certain similarities: in both the mean ranks and the overlap components are very close although LAC is somewhat richer. Finally, WENAO, as we would expect, has a very low overlap component. It almost forms a stratum. For the sake of convenience, we shall consider each grouping to represent a stratum if its O_{ji} component is less than 0.3, provided of course, that the lower bound (population share) is not close to this number.

Between-continent inequality Gini is 0.309, which is less than half of the inequality in the world. Had we used Pyatt's between-group component, we would have gotten a between-continent Gini of 0.398, which means that overlapping of incomes has decreased the between-continent component by about 9 Gini points, and increased the intra-group component from 0.26 to 0.35.

TABLE 5
CONTRIBUTION OF EACH CONTINENT TO OVERALL INEQUALITY

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6) = (5)/(1)
	Income Share (s_i)	Overlap Component (O_i)	Gini (G_i)	$s_i O_i G_i$	Share of Total Intra-group Inequality	
Africa	0.0433	0.921	0.521	0.0208	0.059	1.4
Asia	0.3128	1.037	0.615	0.1994	0.570	1.8
Eastern Europe and FSU	0.0715	0.721	0.465	0.024	0.069	1.0
LAC	0.1013	0.742	0.555	0.0417	0.119	1.2
WENAO	0.4711	0.346	0.394	0.0642	0.183	0.4
Total	1	0.5	0.659	0.350	1	1

Table 5 presents the decomposition of the within-group term $\sum_i s_i G_i O_i$ according to equation (3). Column 4 shows the product of income share, overlap component, and Gini coefficient for each continent. The sum of such products across all continents gives the within-group term in equation (3). (Note that the sum of column 4 here is equal to the total within component from Table 4.)

We note that Africa with 4 percent of the world income, and with high overlap and Gini components is responsible for 2.08 Gini points. This implies almost 6 percent of intra-group inequality (intra-group inequality is 0.35). Asia, on the other hand has 31 percent of world income, high overlap component, high Gini and therefore contributes very high 19.94 Gini points. It thus accounts for the lion's share of intra-group inequality—57 percent. LAC and the Eastern Europe/FSU represent more homogeneous groups, and their percentage intra-group contributions are similar to their relative share in income (see column 6),

while WENAO represents the most homogeneous group. Despite its total income accounting for almost half of world income, WENAO exhibits low inequality and low overlapping with the rest of the world so that its contribution to world inequality is only 6.4 Gini points. Looking at these numbers only, we can already see that Asia is the most important contributor to world inequality: it contributes some 20 Gini points which is almost one-third of total world inequality, and 57 percent of intra-continent inequality. At the other extreme are the rich WENAO countries whose contribution to world inequality falls short of their share in world income (see value of 0.4 in column 6, Table 5).

Overlapping Between the Continents

Table 6 presents the overlapping matrix between continents. The rows in Table 6 represent the continent whose distribution is used as the base distribution. When Africa is used as the base, then only WENAO forms a distinct group, although not the stratum according to our previous definition. When WENAO is used as a base, both Africa and Asia, with overlapping indexes of 0.186 and 0.182 respectively, are shown to have almost nothing in common with the advanced economies. The interpretation of the two overlapping indices is that there are relatively more citizens of Europe, North America and Oceania in the range of Africa’s distribution (i.e. poor), than there are Africans or Asians in the range of WENAO distribution. (We guess that it is not surprising.) This is even more in evidence when we compare Asia and WENAO. With Asia used as the base, the overlap index with WENAO is 0.97; but with WENAO region used as a base, there is only a very small percentage of Asians who fall in the income range characteristic for the developed countries (the overlap index is 0.182).

TABLE 6
OVERLAPPING BETWEEN CONTINENTS

	Africa	Asia	Eastern Europe and FSU	LAC	WENAO
Africa	1	0.995	0.998	0.974	0.485
Asia	1.030	1	1.251	1.22	0.970
Eastern Europe and FSU	0.749	0.668	1	0.948	0.634
Latin America	0.672	0.599	1.042	1	1.069
WENAO	0.186	0.182	0.466	0.469	1

Note: The base group is given in row.

Table 7 presents the average ranking of members of one group in terms of the other. The diagonal presents each group in its own ranking which is 0.5 by definition. The average ranking, unlike mean income, is not sensitive to extreme observations. An average ranking above 0.5 means that, on average, people in a given region have higher ranks in the world than in their own distribution—they are a richer group. For example, a person who is relatively poor in the U.S. (and hence has a low income rank) will be relatively rich in a world ranking. The average ranking of an African individual in terms of a European/North American is 0.05 which means that an average African is in the middle of the lowest European/North American decile. Since the rankings of Europeans/North Americans

TABLE 7
THE RANKING OF ONE DISTRIBUTION IN TERMS OF ANOTHER

	The Yardstick Distribution				
	Africa	Asia	Eastern Europe and the FSU	LAC	WENAO
Africa	0.5	0.515	0.275	0.261	0.049
Asia	0.485	0.5	0.265	0.247	0.064
Eastern Europe and the FSU	0.725	0.735	0.5	0.483	0.136
LAC	0.739	0.753	0.517	0.5	0.172
WENAO	0.951	0.936	0.864	0.828	0.5

in terms of Africans and the Africans in terms of Europeans/North Americans add up to one, this implies that the average ranking of Europeans/North Americans in terms of the African distribution is 0.95. That is, on average, citizens of WENAO are in the middle of the top decile in Africa.

Africa continues to be ranked low if we compare it to transition economies or Latin America, making it only slightly above the 25th percentile, but it fares pretty well with respect to Asia. That is, using the average rank as the indicator of average well being, Africa's position is a bit higher than Asia's. This could have been observed from Table 4 where the average income in Africa is shown as lower than the average income in Asia but, on the other hand, the average ranking of Africans is a bit higher than the average ranking of Asians. This is the result of several Asian countries with high income that are making Asia's average income higher than Africa's average income, although (mostly rural) masses in India, China, Indonesia, and Bangladesh have very low ranks in world income distribution.

5. DECOMPOSITION OF THE CONTINENTS' DISTRIBUTIONS BY COUNTRIES

In the previous section, we have looked at the decomposition of world inequality by continents. But exactly the same decomposition could now be carried a step further. In this section we decompose the inequality in each continent according to countries. We start with the poorest region: Africa.

Inequality in Africa

The average income in Africa is \$PPP 1310 per capita per year, which is the lowest among continents. Although the mean income is low, overall inequality is high, with the continent-wide Gini equal to 0.521. Between group inequality is 0.203, which implies that the differences between countries are mild relative to distributions in the countries, because between country inequality explains less than 40 percent of overall inequality.

Table 8 is identical to Table 4 in its structure. The poorest country in Africa is Zambia, and the richest is Swaziland. One interesting property of Africa is that inequality is relatively high in many countries, and that the overlapping indexes

TABLE 8
INEQUALITY IN AFRICA, DISAGGREGATED BY COUNTRY

	Population Share (p_i)	Mean Income (μ_i)	Mean Rank (F_{iw})	Gini (G_i)	Overlapping Index (O_i)
Zambia	0.018	316	0.165	0.513	0.829
Madagascar	0.028	361	0.192	0.445	0.82
Mali	0.020	452	0.226	0.488	0.986
Burkina	0.019	468	0.238	0.466	0.977
Senegal	0.016	509	0.253	0.519	1.051
Central Afr. Rep.	0.006	512	0.237	0.595	1.165
Gambia	0.002	521	0.275	0.463	0.975
Niger	0.016	611	0.341	0.354	0.796
Uganda	0.040	622	0.34	0.38	0.861
Ethiopia	0.113	737	0.391	0.385	0.895
Nigeria	0.209	752	0.382	0.441	0.946
Ivory Coast	0.026	878	0.459	0.36	0.842
Lesotho	0.004	901	0.368	0.565	1.162
Tanzania	0.056	1,036	0.511	0.363	0.809
Kenya	0.056	1,146	0.42	0.572	1.147
Mauritania	0.004	1,505	0.62	0.38	0.741
Guinea	0.013	1,508	0.612	0.395	0.734
Guinea-Bissau	0.002	1,531	0.526	0.545	1.048
Ghana	0.033	1,663	0.682	0.33	0.604
Egypt	0.112	1,896	0.751	0.265	0.449
Djibouti	0.001	1,964	0.700	0.390	0.662
Tunisia	0.017	2,176	0.759	0.325	0.545
Morocco	0.052	2,276	0.747	0.362	0.592
Algeria	0.053	2,454	0.780	0.346	0.515
South Africa	0.079	3,035	0.670	0.577	0.798
Namibia	0.003	3,254	0.542	0.707	1.047
Swaziland	0.002	3,876	0.731	0.58	0.672
<i>Africa</i>	<i>1</i>	<i>1,310</i>	<i>0.5</i>	<i>0.521</i>	<i>-</i>
Between country Gini				0.203 (39%)	
Within country Gini $\sum_i S_i G_i O_i$				0.318 (61%)	

with respect to the whole distribution of the continent are also relatively high. The implication of the latter finding is that there is a fair amount of homogeneity among African countries but not among African citizens.

Inequality in Asia

The average income is \$PPP 1595 per capita per year. The overall inequality (Gini) in Asia is 0.615, while between country inequality is 0.445 which is twice as high as the between country inequality in Africa. The fact that the between-country inequality in Asia accounts for higher share of overall inequality than that in Africa implies that Asia is a more stratified continent, according to countries, than Africa (see Table 9). One possible technical explanation for this result is that two countries, China and India account for 70 percent of the population, so that one can be led to the conclusion that the rest of the countries do not have any significant effect on the distribution. But, those two countries have relatively

TABLE 9
INEQUALITY IN ASIA, DISAGGREGATED BY COUNTRY

	Population Share (p_i)	Mean Income (μ_i)	Mean Rank (F_{iv})	Gini (G_i)	Overlapping Index (O_i)
India	0.302	523	0.295	0.328	0.911
Mongolia	0.001	610	0.368	0.312	0.829
Nepal	0.006	643	0.321	0.438	1.077
Bangladesh	0.039	705	0.44	0.281	0.767
Pakistan	0.041	798	0.485	0.299	0.764
Vietnam	0.024	805	0.473	0.328	0.819
Indonesia	0.063	884	0.508	0.319	0.770
Laos	0.002	945	0.552	0.295	0.692
China	0.401	1,121	0.563	0.381	0.811
Philippines	0.022	1,236	0.572	0.426	0.814
Papua New Guinea	0.001	1,743	0.737	0.326	0.512
Thailand	0.02	2,000	0.709	0.456	0.583
Yemen Republic	0.004	2,360	0.787	0.355	0.456
Jordan	0.002	3,221	0.854	0.352	0.280
Malaysia	0.007	5,583	0.887	0.463	0.252
Singapore	0.001	7,431	0.929	0.417	0.157
Taiwan	0.007	8,866	0.954	0.293	0.083
South Korea	0.015	9,665	0.956	0.31	0.093
Japan	0.042	11,667	0.969	0.243	0.066
Hong Kong (China)	0.002	12,934	0.95	0.497	0.119
<i>Asia</i>	<i>1</i>	<i>1,595</i>	<i>0.5</i>	<i>0.615</i>	—
Between country Gini				0.445 (72%)	
Within country Gini $\sum_i S_i G_i O_i$				0.170 (28%)	

low inequality and the difference in mean income of those two countries is relatively small, so that inequality in the combined population of these two countries cannot be very high.⁸ Therefore, the high inequality must originate from the incomes of other countries. Note that richest seven countries in Asia all have the overlapping index less than 0.3, a number that no country in Africa is even close to. Japan, Taiwan, and South Korea which have low inequality and high income clearly form distinct strata in Asia (the overlap index for each of them is very low—under 0.1). Note also that the average rank of these countries' population in Asia exceeds the 95th percentile. It is also interesting to observe that Hong Kong, the “country” with the highest per capita income in Asia has, because of high inequality, a larger overlap component than Japan, Taiwan and South Korea. Overall, intra-country inequality in Asia is much lower than intra-country inequality in Africa (28 percent of total inequality vs. 61 percent in Africa), so that the difference in Asia is more among countries while in Africa the differences are more inside the countries. The only country with overlapping greater than one is Nepal, which is the fourth most unequal country in Asia. There is no single country with a Gini coefficient above 0.5.

⁸The Gini index for India and China (combined) is 0.4128, with between group inequality being 0.09.

Inequality in transition economies

The mean income in the transition countries of Eastern Europe and the former Soviet Union countries is \$PPP 2781. Overall inequality is 0.465, which is relatively high, and between-group inequality is 0.180 which is around 40 percent of overall inequality (Table 10). Thus the region seems to display about the same degree of homogeneity as Africa where between group Gini is 0.20 and its contribution to total inequality is also around 40 percent.

Similar to Asia, however, is the fact that the overlapping index of all countries is less than one, with only five countries with relatively high overlapping (above 0.8): Ukraine, Yugoslavia (Serbia and Montenegro), Estonia, Lithuania and Russia. Also, no country displays a Gini in excess of 0.5—again a feature similar to Asia. The two poorest countries, Georgia and Uzbekistan have low inequality and form the strata (overlapping index less than 0.3).

Inequality in Latin America

Average income is \$PPP 3640 per person per year. As shown in Table 11, overall inequality in Latin America is high (Gini = 0.555), with between-country

TABLE 10
INEQUALITY IN EASTERN EUROPE AND FORMER SOVIET UNION, DISAGGREGATED BY COUNTRY

	Population Share (p_i)	Mean Income (μ_i)	Mean rank (\bar{F}_{iw})	Gini (G_i)	Overlapping Index (O_i)
Georgia	0.014	264	0.05	0.243	0.18
Uzbekistan	0.056	344	0.07	0.331	0.25
Armenia	0.009	367	0.08	0.431	0.36
Kyrgyz Rep.	0.012	397	0.09	0.428	0.35
Kazakhstan	0.042	637	0.16	0.318	0.43
Turkmenistan	0.011	1,095	0.27	0.351	0.65
Albania	0.009	1,293	0.32	0.286	0.55
Moldova	0.011	1,333	0.32	0.372	0.74
Romania	0.058	1,641	0.38	0.321	0.72
Belarus	0.027	2,045	0.47	0.282	0.69
Ukraine	0.133	2,053	0.42	0.428	0.93
Latvia	0.007	2,312	0.51	0.279	0.67
Poland	0.098	2,378	0.52	0.282	0.69
FR Yugoslavia	0.027	2,634	0.48	0.438	0.94
Estonia	0.004	2,634	0.51	0.383	0.87
Lithuania	0.010	2,818	0.55	0.369	0.84
Hungary	0.026	2,971	0.62	0.225	0.55
Bulgaria	0.022	3,161	0.60	0.334	0.77
Slovak Republic	0.014	3,712	0.73	0.178	0.38
Russia	0.379	4,114	0.66	0.393	0.82
Slovenia	0.005	4,616	0.77	0.239	0.47
Czech Republic	0.026	4,678	0.78	0.216	0.38
<i>Transition countries</i>	<i>1</i>	<i>2,781</i>	<i>0.5</i>	<i>0.465</i>	—
Between country Gini				0.180 (39%)	
Within country Gini $\sum_i s_i g_i O_i$				0.285 (61%)	

group inequality making less than 10 percent of this number (0.041). So, more than 90 percent of Latin American inequality is explained by inequality within countries. The low between-country income inequality is a hint that in LAC the countries are relatively similar to each other. Latin America forms a very homogeneous region, only slightly less so than the WENAO countries (see below). The great similarity between the countries is shown by the fact that the lowest overlap index still has a relatively high value of 0.73 (Uruguay). Even the richest country's (Chile) overlap index is 0.77 and the mean rank of a Chilean is equal to the 65th Latin American percentile. Compare this with the fact that the mean rank of a Japanese, South Korean or Taiwanese citizen is above the 95th percentile in Asia.

TABLE 11
INEQUALITY IN LATIN AMERICA AND THE CARIBBEAN, DISAGGREGATED BY COUNTRY

	Population Share (p_i)	Mean Income (μ_i)	Mean Rank (F_{iw})	Gini (G_i)	Overlapping Index (O_i)
El Salvador	0.006	1,294	0.262	0.504	0.97
Honduras	0.013	1,366	0.258	0.546	1.09
Peru	0.053	1,617	0.330	0.483	0.99
Jamaica	0.006	1,674	0.368	0.372	0.81
Bolivia	0.019	2,183	0.383	0.502	1.03
Venezuela	0.049	2,501	0.468	0.418	0.90
Guyana	0.002	2,888	0.463	0.490	0.96
Ecuador	0.026	3,256	0.554	0.407	0.79
Costa Rica	0.007	3,306	0.528	0.444	0.87
Dominican Rep	0.018	3,334	0.523	0.468	0.89
Brazil	0.370	3,472	0.454	0.59	1.08
Argentina(Urb)	0.069	3,568	0.536	0.496	0.94
Panama	0.006	3,668	0.491	0.559	1.03
Paraguay	0.011	3,886	0.504	0.569	1.04
Mexico	0.215	4,207	0.564	0.519	0.93
Nicaragua	0.010	4,338	0.584	0.501	0.90
Uruguay(urb)	0.007	4,504	0.635	0.425	0.73
Colombia	0.080	4,910	0.629	0.488	0.80
Chile	0.033	6,475	0.651	0.564	0.77
<i>Latin America</i>	<i>1</i>	<i>3,640</i>	<i>0.5</i>	<i>0.555</i>	—
Between group Gini				0.041 (7%)	
Within group Gini $\sum_i s_i G_i O_i$				0.514 (93%)	

Inequality in West Europe, North America and Oceania

This is, of course, the richest region with the mean income of \$PPP 10,012 which is three times the mean income in Latin America, the second richest region. Overall inequality is relatively low, 0.394, while between-country inequality is also low 0.069 (Table 12). Clearly, we deal with a rich and homogeneous region, in which more than 80 percent of total inequality is explained by inequality within countries. This last point makes WENAO similar to Latin America, but with one important difference: the overall *level* of inequality is much lower in WENAO than in Latin America.

TABLE 12
INEQUALITY IN WESTERN EUROPE, NORTH AMERICA AND OCEANIA, DISAGGREGATED BY
COUNTRY

	Population Share (p_i)	Mean Income (μ_i)	Mean Rank (\bar{F}_{iw})	Gini (G_i)	Overlapping Index (O_i)
Turkey	0.083	2,578	0.123	0.448	0.701
Ireland	0.005	5,661	0.312	0.284	0.746
Austria	0.011	6,313	0.334	0.472	—
Israel	0.007	6,438	0.344	0.347	0.914
Portugal	0.014	7,469	0.395	0.348	0.968
Greece	0.015	7,837	0.425	0.32	0.880
Italy	0.080	8,019	0.443	0.306	0.851
Belgium	0.014	8,401	0.479	0.246	0.753
Australia	0.025	9,086	0.481	0.345	0.959
U.K.	0.081	9,440	0.485	0.354	0.957
Sweden	0.012	9,451	0.532	0.249	0.760
Netherlands	0.021	9,625	0.517	0.311	0.859
Finland	0.007	10,074	0.565	0.226	0.679
Cyprus	0.001	10,287	0.546	0.297	0.846
Germany	0.113	10,340	0.554	0.294	0.830
France	0.080	10,348	0.54	0.326	0.863
Norway	0.006	10,650	0.586	0.247	0.727
Canada	0.040	11,674	0.588	0.31	0.849
U.S.	0.361	12,321	0.574	0.394	0.980
Denmark	0.007	12,371	0.661	0.246	0.679
New Zealand	0.005	12,648	0.569	0.43	—
Switzerland	0.010	14,068	0.666	0.324	0.823
Luxembourg	0.001	15,262	0.730	0.264	0.597
<i>WENAO</i>	<i>1</i>	<i>10,012</i>	<i>0.5</i>	<i>0.394</i>	—
Between country Gini				0.069 (18%)	
Within country Gini $\sum_i s_i G_i O_i$				0.325 (82%)	

Note: For Austria and New Zealand, the bottom decile's incomes were recorded as zero, and thus the overlap component, probably spuriously, exceeded 1.

Even the lowest overlap index (in Luxembourg) is relatively high: almost 0.6. Therefore, no country forms a stratum. There is also no country with a Gini index over 0.5; Turkey is the most unequal country with the Gini of 0.45. Several countries, however, have relatively high overlap indexes, above 0.95: Portugal, Australia, the U.K. and the U.S. For a rich country like the U.S., this is an indication that there are many relatively poor Americans⁹; and for a relatively poor country like Portugal, an indication that there are relatively many rich Portuguese.

Table 13 presents summary statistics. As can be seen, the importance of between country inequality in Asia is high both in absolute amounts (Gini of 0.45) and also with respect to its potential share (89 percent of the between-country component according to the Pyatt decomposition). On the other hand,

⁹Note that the U.S. and Denmark have almost the same mean income, but the average income rank of Danish population is almost 9 percentage points higher than the average rank of Americans (66th percentile vs. the 57th). This is explained by high inequality in the U.S.

TABLE 13
SUMMARY OF RESULTS: BETWEEN AND WITHIN INEQUALITY BY CONTINENTS

Continent	(1) Gini	(2) Between-country Gini	(3) Within-country Gini	(4) Pyatt Between-country Gini	(5) (2):(4)
Africa	0.531	0.203	0.328	0.333	0.61
Asia	0.615	0.445	0.170	0.502	0.89
Eastern Europe/ FSU	0.465	0.180	0.285	0.266	0.68
Latin America	0.555	0.041	0.514	0.136	0.30
WENAO	0.325	0.069	0.256	0.142	0.49

the between-country inequality in Latin America is low in both aspects: its extremely low value (Gini of 0.041) and also with respect to its potential share (30 percent; see column 5). Thus Asia and Latin America represent the two antipodes (see Figure 1). The Asian continent consists of countries with widely different per capita income levels and moderate within-country inequalities. Latin America is a continent composed of countries with similar per capita incomes but with large within-country inequalities.

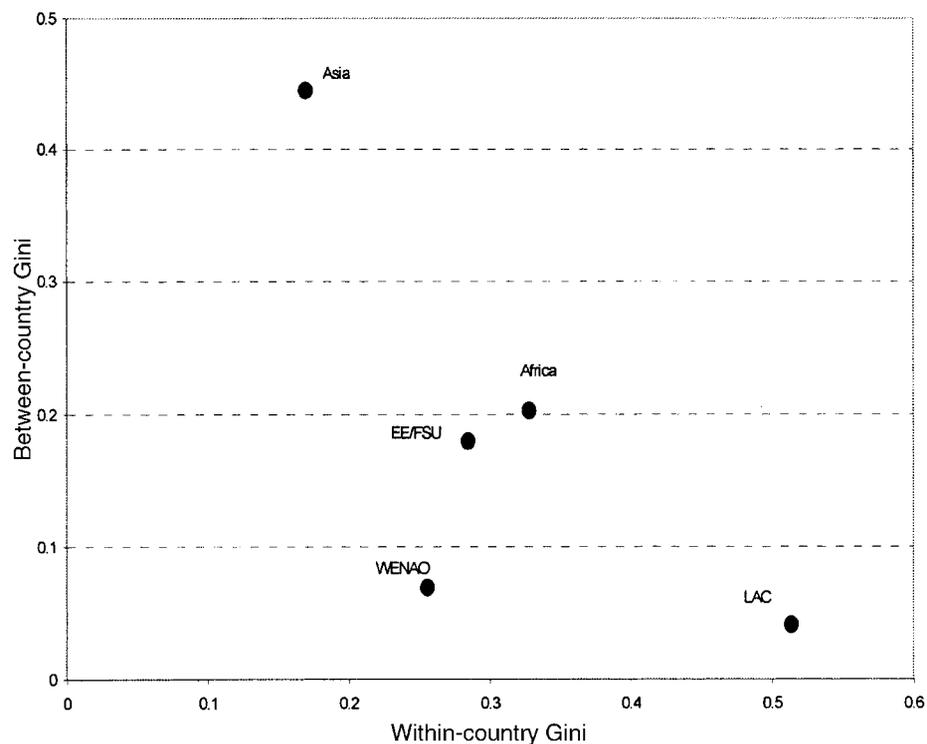


Figure 1. Between and Within Inequality by Continents (in Gini Points)

6. THE “OLD FASHIONED” DISTRIBUTION OF THE WORLD: FIRST, SECOND, AND THIRD WORLDS

In this section, we abandon the division of the world into continents and divide it instead in five groups: (1) the G7 group (U.S., Germany, U.K., Japan, France, Canada and Italy); (2) the G7 income-equivalent which implies an income at least as high as the income of the poorest G7 country (Italy: \$PPP 8000 per capita); (3) China and India as Poor Giants; (4) poor countries, that is those with per capita income less than, or equal to, Brazil (\$PPP 3470 per capita); and (5) the “middle-income countries” composed of countries with income levels between Brazil and Italy. The Brazilian mean income threshold which divides poor from middle-income countries is also convenient because that income level (about \$PPP 10 per capita per day) is about the same as the official poverty lines used in rich countries (e.g. U.S., and Germany).

The rich world (G7 and G7 equivalents) covers about 16 percent of world population (see Table 14). (The definition of rich is based, of course, on *mean*

TABLE 14
THE DECOMPOSITION OF INEQUALITY IN THE WORLD (NEW GROUPINGS)

	Population Share (p_i)	Mean Income (μ_i)	Mean rank (\bar{F}_{iw})	Gini (G_i)	Overlapping Index (O_i)
G7	0.133	11,137.7	0.892	0.347	0.25
G7 equivalents	0.03	9,941.0	0.884	0.323	0.247
China and India	0.418	864.8	0.345	0.413	0.799
LDCs	0.335	1,403.6	0.445	0.488	0.841
Middle income countries	0.084	5,072.3	0.735	0.478	0.544
<i>World</i>	<i>1</i>	<i>3,031.8</i>	<i>0.5</i>	<i>0.659</i>	—
Between group Gini				0.469 (71%)	
Within group Gini $\sum_i s_i G_i O_i$				0.190 (29%)	

country per capita income, not on actual income of the people in a country.) The middle-income countries contain relatively few people: only a little over 8 percent of world population. All the rest of the world lives in poor countries: a third of world population in LDCs, and additional 40 percent in the two poor giants, India and China. With this decomposition of the world, more than 70 percent of inequality is explained by between-group differences, only 29 percent by within-group inequalities. This shows first, that with a relatively crude decomposition (based on countries' per capita incomes and only five groups), we can account for more than 70 percent of world inequality, and second, that the number of people who live in middle-income countries is rather small.

Notice also that only LDCs and the middle-income countries have relatively high within-group Ginis (0.48); for the other three groups, Ginis are much less. Finally, the overlap index shows that G7 and G7 equivalents represent a stratum.

The overlapping matrix between the five regions (Table 15) tells a more problematic story. If we use G7 and G7-equivalents as the base, less than 10 percent

TABLE 15
OVERLAPPING MATRIX BETWEEN THE REGIONS

	LDCs	China and India	Middle class	G7 equiv.	G7
LDCs	1	0.905	0.854	0.354	0.337
China and India	0.975	1	0.495	0.067	0.081
Middle class	0.478	0.301	1	1.125	1.06
G7 equivalents	0.099	0.036	0.492	1	0.966
G7	0.097	0.029	0.502	1.021	1

Note: The base group is given in row.

of people from LDCs, China and India fall in the income range of the rich countries. G7 and G7-equivalents, however, are very similar. If we use LDCs, or India and China as the base, we see that they are very similar among themselves (overlap indexes over 0.9), and, of course, quite different from the rich countries. This, in turn, implies that an even more meaningful and parsimonious grouping could be a tripartite one: the poor countries (LDCs, China and India; called in the past “The Third World”), the middle-income group, and the rich (“The First World”).

The results of the tripartite grouping are shown in Table 16. The first column shows that the Third World accounts for 76 percent of the population but only 29 percent of income, the middle income group accounts for 8 percent of population and 12 percent of income, while the developed world accounts for 16 percent of population and 58 percent of income. Simple partition of the world in these three groups would explain 68 percent of world inequality. Now, this is only marginally less than if the world is divided into countries: as Appendix 1 shows, with such a decomposition, between-country inequality accounts for 75.6 percent of world inequality. This illustrates the meaningfulness of the tripartite old-fashioned partition of the world. By moving from 110 countries to only three country groups, we “lose” explanation for less than 8 percent of world Gini.

The Gini coefficients of inequality is negatively correlated with income, while the overlapping indices are low, particularly the one for the Rich World (Table

TABLE 16
WORLD DIVIDED INTO THREE GROUPS: THE FIRST WORLD, THE MIDDLE CLASS, AND THE THIRD WORLD

	Population Share (p_i)	Mean Income (μ_i)	Mean Rank (\bar{F}_{iv})	Gini (G_i)	Overlapping Index (O_i)
Third World (poorer than, or equal to, Brazil)	0.76	1,171	0.392	0.494	0.89
Middle class	0.08	4,609	0.725	0.462	0.54
First World (equal or richer than Italy)	0.16	10,919	0.891	0.344	0.25
<i>World</i>	<i>1</i>	<i>3,031.8</i>	<i>0.5</i>	<i>0.659</i>	—
Between group Gini				0.449 (68%)	
Within group Gini $\sum_i s_i G_i O_i$				0.210 (32%)	

16). Note that the overlapping index for the Third World cannot be lower than 0.76 and the one for the Rich World cannot be less than 0.16 (their respective population shares). Pyatt's between-group inequality is 0.491, which means that this very crude old-fashioned decomposition into three groups does not suffer from much overlapping because more than 90 percent of between group inequality (0.449 divided by 0.491) is captured by this grouping. In other words, this means that if the world was perfectly stratified into those three groups, than the Gini of the world would have been 0.61 which is not much less than the actual world inequality.

The fact that we do not lose much information by dividing the world in the "old-fashioned" way is illustrated also if we divide all the *people* in the world into three groups using the same income per capita thresholds as for the allocation of countries, namely, that poor people in the world are all those (regardless of where they live) with income level equal or less than Brazil's mean per capita income (\$PPP 3470), the world middle class are all those with income levels higher than Brazil's and lower than Italy's (\$PPP 8000) mean income, and the rich are all those with annual income above \$PPP 8000. Then it turns out that 78 percent of the world is poor, 11 percent belongs to the middle class, and 11 percent are rich. Any way we slice it, world middle class is very small.

One possible explanation to this result is the one offered by Kopczuk, Slemrod, and Yitzhaki (2000), who derived the optimal income tax from a point of view of a world planner, and compared it to an optimal income tax from a decentralized (country-level) point of view. They argue that countries tend to attach much higher welfare weights to their own citizens, relative to citizens of other countries. This policy implies that rich countries care much more about their own poor, and not whether the "middle class" of the world shrinks or not. Largely, this could be due to the physical distance which, despite globalization, separates the poor from the rich. As was recently observed by Bill Gates, if people were randomly assigned their neighbors and the rich thus found themselves living close to the poor, both the awareness of vast inequalities and the threat that poverty and inequality represent for stability would be heightened.¹⁰ Greater efforts to alleviate both would then be likely.

7. CONCLUSIONS

When we partition the world into five continents (Africa; Asia; Western Europe, North America and Oceania; Eastern Europe/FSU; and Latin America and the Caribbean), we find that less than one-half of world inequality is explained by differences in incomes between the continents. Therefore, if we look for a more meaningful partition—defined as being fairly parsimonious (that is, involving only a few units) and yet being able to explain most of world inequality—we find that the "old fashioned" division of the Earth into three worlds (first, middle income countries, and the Third World) "works" much better. The between-group inequality between the "three worlds" explains almost 70

¹⁰Point made at the Davos Forum held in New York in February 2002 (as quoted by Agence France Presse, February 3, 2002).

percent of total world inequality. According to this “old fashioned” partition, 76 percent of world population lives in poor countries, 8 percent lives in middle income countries (defined as countries with per capita income levels between Brazil and Italy), and 16 percent lives in rich countries. Now, if we keep the same income thresholds as implied in the previous division, and look at “true” distribution of *people* according to their income (regardless of where they live), we find a very similar result: 78 percent of world population is poor, 11 percent belongs to the middle class, and 11 percent are rich.

Thus, world seems—any way we consider it—to lack middle class. It looks like a proverbial hourglass: thick on the bottom, and very thin in the middle. Why does the world not have a middle class? First—an obvious answer—is that it is because world inequality is extremely high. When the Gini coefficient is 66, higher than the Gini coefficient of South Africa and Brazil, it is simply numerically impossible to have a middle class. But what may be a substantive cause for the absence of the middle class? We conjecture that this is because there is no agency whose mandate would be to care about it, and which would be elected by world citizens (in other words, there is no world government as distinct from inter-national agencies), and because national authorities understandably care about their own first and foremost. They heavily discount, or do not care, about the poverty of others, perhaps because foreigners are not their voters, or because of both psychological and physical distance between people in different countries. Poor Dutch are unlikely to be poor at the world level; their government will make sure that they remain relatively well-off; rich Indians may reach the level of world middle class but climbing further will be difficult: both because of high national taxes, and potential political instability that such ostentatious wealth in the middle of poverty might bring about. Thus people can escape, but only a little bit, the curse or the blessing of their countries’ mean income. Migration might, in many cases, represent a better option for many people from the poor countries. Their incomes would, almost in a flash, increase. But that’s where impediments to migration come into the play. Today’s definition of citizenship is access to a number of welfare benefits that keep even the bottom of income distribution in the rich countries well off. Thus the poor people from the poor countries will either have to be absorbed and their incomes increased, or they have to be kept out.

APPENDIX 1

All countries included in the sample are listed in Table A1.

TABLE A1

ALL THE COUNTRIES INCLUDED IN THE SAMPLE (RANKED BY SPPP INCOME LEVEL)

	Population	Mean Income/ Expenditures	Mean Rank	Gini	Overlap
Georgia	0.001	264	0.08	0.243	0.37
Zambia	0.002	316	0.12	0.513	0.73
Uzbekistan	0.004	344	0.13	0.331	0.53
Madagascar	0.003	362	0.13	0.445	0.74
Armenia	0.001	367	0.13	0.431	0.72
Kyrgyz Republic	0.001	397	0.16	0.428	0.70
Mali	0.002	453	0.17	0.488	0.87
Burkina	0.002	469	0.17	0.466	0.88
Senegal	0.002	510	0.19	0.519	0.91
Central African Republic	0.001	512	0.18	0.595	1.00
Gambia	0.000	522	0.20	0.463	0.84
India	0.180	524	0.23	0.328	0.69
Mongolia	0.000	610	0.28	0.312	0.63
Niger	0.002	612	0.27	0.354	0.73
Uganda	0.004	622	0.26	0.380	0.76
Kazakhstan	0.003	637	0.29	0.318	0.66
Nepal	0.004	643	0.25	0.438	0.87
Bangladesh	0.023	706	0.33	0.281	0.61
Ethiopia	0.011	738	0.30	0.385	0.79
Nigeria	0.021	752	0.30	0.441	0.84
Pakistan	0.024	798	0.37	0.299	0.62
Vietnam	0.014	806	0.36	0.328	0.67
Ivory Coast	0.003	878	0.37	0.360	0.71
Indonesia	0.037	884	0.39	0.319	0.64
Lesotho	0.000	901	0.29	0.565	1.03
Laos	0.001	945	0.42	0.295	0.59
Tanzania	0.006	1,037	0.42	0.363	0.71
Turkmenistan	0.001	1,095	0.45	0.351	0.65
China	0.238	1,122	0.44	0.381	0.71
Kenya	0.006	1,147	0.34	0.572	1.03
Philippines	0.013	1,236	0.44	0.426	0.75
Albania	0.001	1,293	0.52	0.286	0.51
El Salvador	0.000	1,294	0.41	0.504	0.89
Moldova	0.001	1,333	0.49	0.372	0.67
Honduras	0.001	1,366	0.40	0.546	0.96
Mauritania	0.000	1,506	0.51	0.380	0.66
Guinea	0.001	1,508	0.51	0.395	0.66
Guinea-Bissau	0.000	1,531	0.42	0.545	0.95
Peru	0.005	1,618	0.48	0.483	0.84
Romania	0.005	1,641	0.57	0.321	0.53
Ghana	0.003	1,664	0.57	0.330	0.52
Jamaica	0.000	1,674	0.55	0.372	0.60
Papua New Guinea	0.001	1,743	0.58	0.326	0.52
Egypt	0.011	1,897	0.63	0.265	0.37
Djibouti	0.000	1,964	0.58	0.390	0.60
Thailand	0.012	2,001	0.56	0.456	0.67
Belarus	0.002	2,045	0.64	0.282	0.40
Ukraine	0.010	2,053	0.57	0.428	0.66
Tunisia	0.002	2,177	0.64	0.325	0.45
Bolivia	0.002	2,183	0.55	0.502	0.77
Morocco	0.005	2,276	0.63	0.362	0.52
Latvia	0.001	2,312	0.67	0.279	0.38
Yemen Republic	0.002	2,361	0.64	0.355	0.51
Poland	0.008	2,378	0.67	0.282	0.40
Algeria	0.005	2,455	0.66	0.346	0.46
Venezuela	0.004	2,502	0.63	0.418	0.57
Turkey	0.012	2,578	0.62	0.448	0.63
FRYugoslavia	0.002	2,634	0.63	0.438	0.61

	Population	Mean Income/ Expenditures	Mean Rank	Gini	Overlap
Estonia	0.000	2,634	0.66	0.383	0.49
Lithuania	0.001	2,818	0.68	0.369	0.47
Guyana	0.000	2,889	0.63	0.490	0.67
Hungary	0.002	2,971	0.73	0.225	0.25
South Africa	0.008	3,036	0.57	0.577	0.84
Bulgaria	0.002	3,161	0.71	0.334	0.40
Jordan	0.001	3,222	0.71	0.352	0.40
Namibia	0.000	3,254	0.45	0.707	1.15
Ecuador	0.002	3,256	0.69	0.407	0.48
Costa Rica	0.001	3,306	0.67	0.444	0.60
Dominican Republic	0.002	3,335	0.66	0.468	0.61
Brazil	0.031	3,473	0.59	0.590	0.84
Argentina (urb)	0.006	3,568	0.64	0.496	0.74
Panama	0.000	3,669	0.61	0.559	0.83
Slovak Rep.	0.001	3,712	0.78	0.178	0.16
Swaziland	0.000	3,877	0.63	0.580	0.77
Paraguay	0.001	3,886	0.62	0.569	0.80
Russia	0.030	4,114	0.73	0.393	0.48
Mexico	0.018	4,208	0.69	0.519	0.63
Nicaragua	0.001	4,338	0.71	0.501	0.56
Uruguay (urb)	0.001	4,505	0.74	0.425	0.48
Slovenia	0.000	4,616	0.80	0.239	0.22
Czech Rep.	0.002	4,678	0.81	0.216	0.20
Colombia	0.007	4,911	0.73	0.488	0.56
Malaysia	0.004	5,583	0.77	0.463	0.46
Ireland	0.001	5,662	0.81	0.284	0.31
Austria	0.002	6,314	0.75	0.472	0.62
Israel	0.001	6,438	0.83	0.347	0.30
Chile	0.003	6,476	0.75	0.564	0.53
Singapore	0.001	7,431	0.83	0.417	0.34
Portugal	0.002	7,470	0.85	0.348	0.28
Greece	0.002	7,837	0.86	0.320	0.26
Italy	0.011	8,019	0.86	0.306	0.25
Belgium	0.002	8,401	0.88	0.246	0.20
Taiwan	0.004	8,867	0.88	0.293	0.22
Australia	0.004	9,087	0.86	0.345	0.32
U.K.	0.012	9,440	0.87	0.354	0.27
Sweden	0.002	9,451	0.89	0.249	0.20
Netherlands	0.003	9,625	0.88	0.311	0.24
South Korea	0.009	9,666	0.89	0.310	0.23
Finland	0.001	10,075	0.90	0.226	0.17
Cyprus	0.000	10,288	0.90	0.297	0.22
Germany	0.016	10,340	0.90	0.294	0.21
France	0.011	10,349	0.89	0.326	0.23
Norway	0.001	10,651	0.91	0.247	0.17
Japan	0.025	11,668	0.92	0.243	0.16
Canada	0.006	11,674	0.91	0.310	0.21
U.S.	0.051	12,321	0.89	0.394	0.29
Denmark	0.001	12,371	0.92	0.246	0.17
New Zealand	0.001	12,648	0.83	0.430	0.60
Hong Kong	0.001	12,935	0.88	0.497	0.29
Switzerland	0.001	14,068	0.92	0.324	0.21
Between-country Gini				0.498 (75.6%)	
Within-country Gini				0.161 (24.4%)	
World Gini				0.659	
Mean world income		3030.8			

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