



International Journal
for research in Economics

International Journal for Research in Economics

Income Inequality and Poverty Reduction Across Global Economies: Evidence from Long-Term Distributional Indicators

Published By:

Green Publications Services Private LTD.

Volume 01 Issue 03 September 2026

ISSN: XXXX-XXXX

DOI: xyzzzz

Article History:

Article Type: Research

Received Date: 25/04/2026

Revised Date: 12/08/2026

Acceptance Date: 08/09/2026

Published Date: 22/09/2026

Dr Shruti Bhuttani

Assistant Professor, Maharaja Surajmal
Institute, GGSIPU, Email:
shrutibhuttani@msijanakupuri.com,
ORCID: 0009-0005-7697-5685

Corresponding Author :

shrutibhuttani@msijanakupuri.com

Abstract

Income inequality and poverty alleviation are still the focus of the global economic development discussions, especially in terms of distribution of economic benefits between countries. We explored the long-term linkages between income inequality and poverty based on historical distributional indicators for the period 1974–2018. A quantitative longitudinal design was used, using 1,486 country-year observations in 164 countries. Assessment of inequality–poverty association was done using descriptive statistics, Pearson correlation analysis, pooled ordinary least-squares regression and two-way fixed-effects models. The results showed that the mean Gini index decreased from 44.13 in the period 1990–1999 to 36.80 in 2010–2018, and extreme poverty decreased from 22.56% to 6.12% during the study periods. Income inequality, measured by poverty headcount ratios at three international poverty levels, was found to be positively correlated with each other. The fixed-effects estimates showed that the associations were statistically significant, ranging from 0.335 to 0.602. Significant regional variation was observed, with negative relationships in East Asia and the Pacific, and more positive relationships in South Asia. The overall conclusions were confirmed by using alternative poverty measures in the robustness analysis. The study underscores the need to design policies and build development in a distribution-sensitive manner and to appreciate that correlation does not imply causation. Other longitudinal studies are required to better understand the economic mechanisms at work.

Keywords: Income Inequality, Poverty Reduction, Gini Index, Income Distribution, Panel Data Analysis

1.Introduction

Income inequality and poverty continue to be basic challenges to global economic development, affecting social welfare, economic opportunities, and resource distributions between countries. Although there have been significant advances in living standards over the past few decades, the gains from economic growth have not been equally shared amongst populations. Persistent differences between developed and developing economies have been caused by the difference in institutional structure, employment opportunities, productive capacities and incomes. Thus, poverty reduction is now seen more as a multidimensional economic problem, not just one of aggregate income growth, but also of the distribution of economic gains. History has shown that significant economic growth has been possible alongside significant inequalities, thus sparking a debate about the inclusiveness and sustainability of development paths. The systematic analysis of long-term economic indicators that reflect the evolution of income concentration and poverty incidence is needed to understand these relationships (Sumner, 2019).

Global poverty has been measured in many ways, and the measurement has changed significantly as a result of changes in household surveys, international poverty thresholds, and comparative economic statistics. The poverty gap indices give information on the depth of poverty, and the poverty headcount ratios on the proportion of people living in poverty. Such measures allow researchers to unpack the change in poverty from the change in the economic condition of the disadvantaged. But when making historical comparisons, it is important to keep in mind the effects of purchasing power adjustments, survey coverage, and methodological differences between countries. It is therefore important to interpret trends observed in long-term assessments, and to understand the limitations of international poverty measurement (Moatsos, 2025). In addition, income poverty measures do not measure all aspects of deprivation, such as education, health care, housing, and other aspects of human welfare. The multi-dimensional nature of poverty illuminates the need to look at distributional outcomes in a wider development context (Burchi et al., 2019).

Income inequality is another key aspect of economic development, as increased overall national income doesn't mean that lower income households are benefiting proportionately. Beyond the Gini index, income shares occupy a position between the Gini index and the standard deviation and can provide more information about the concentration of economic resources. Distribution sensitive analytical frameworks like growth incidence curves and Lorenz based measures allow for comparisons of economic gains between income groups and between historical periods

(Ferreira et al., 2019). These approaches are especially applicable when assessing the proportional and disproportional impacts of economic growth on disadvantaged groups. The second aspect of the concept of pro-poor growth is the distributional impact of economic development, which calls for evaluating poverty outcomes over several periods as opposed to only focusing on aggregate growth measures (Bresson et al., 2019).

A longitudinal approach is an important way of understanding the dynamics of inequality and poverty in economies. There are, however, methodological issues arising from imperfect household observations, the non-periodicity of the surveys and variations in statistical reporting. Synthetic panel methods have been designed to address the issue of repeated observations of the same individuals not being available, but they rely on the assumptions and characteristics of the data (Hérault & Jenkins, 2019). Routine cross-sectional data has been enhanced by related methodological advances that allow for the study of income mobility and distributional shifts (Moreno et al., 2021). These contributions highlight the need to take account of data constraints when reading economic long-term relationships.

Poverty reduction is determined by both the size and distribution of economic growth and income inequality. Increases in average incomes can help to alleviate poverty, but the degree of poverty alleviation will depend on the distribution of resources among households. Distributional effects can lead to lower poverty reduction effects than growth that is more favourable for disadvantaged groups (Lo Bue & Palmisano, 2020). Additionally, the link between poverty alleviation, inequity, and environmental sustainability presents other development trade-offs, especially when growth comes at the expense of the environment (Malerba, 2020). Similarly, quantitative analyses of pathways for poverty eradication show that the distribution of economic growth can affect the overall required economic growth for absolute poverty eradication (Min & Rao, 2023).

The international evidence of the past years has further confirmed worries about income concentration in an economy and about distinct distributional trends. The results show variation in inequality patterns, which is likely driven by country-level economic structures, institutions and socioeconomic changes, and that global averages can mask significant country variation (Chrisendo et al., 2025). There are studies that have discussed the issue of poverty measurement, distributional growth, and dynamics of inequality, but longitudinal measures that combine several poverty levels and income distribution measures are still key in understanding the differences across countries. Especially, being able to tell the difference between intra- and inter-country

differences, can enhance empirical interpretation. Accordingly, the present study examines long-term relationships between income inequality and poverty reduction across global economies using historical distributional indicators. Its objectives are:

- 1.To examine long-term trends in income inequality and poverty across global economies.
- 2.To assess statistical relationships between income distribution and poverty indicators.
- 3.To evaluate cross-country variations in inequality–poverty associations through quantitative econometric analysis.

2. Materials and Methods

2.1. Study Design and Data Sources

The research design of the study was quantitative, longitudinal and cross country research design to examine the relationship between income inequality and poverty reduction in the global economy. Secondary economic data spanning 1974-2018 were analysed to assess past changes in income distribution and poverty measures. The first data structure contained 8,140 country-indicator records for 44 economic indicators. The country-level analysis was not performed for regional and economic aggregates to avoid double counting and to ensure that geographical units were comparable. After data screening, 169 country entries were retained, and 1,486 country-year observations from 164 countries (World Bank, 2019) were a part of the final matched analytical sample. An unbalanced panel structure was used due to the fact that the number of available economic indicators varied by country and year. The analysis used descriptive statistics, longitudinal comparisons, correlation analysis, and panel-data econometric modelling to explore the patterns of distribution and its links with poverty outcomes. The observational design was designed to uncover statistical relationships, but not causal effects.

2.2. Variables and Measurements

The Gini index, which measures income equality on a scale from 0 (perfect equality) to 100 (maximum inequality), was the most frequently used measure of income inequality. The distribution of income was explored in terms of percentage shares of total household income or consumption at the bottom and top 25th percentile. International poverty headcount ratios were used to calculate poverty based on thresholds set at \$1.90, \$3.20 and \$5.50 (in 2011 purchasing power parity dollars) per day. These indicators were the percentage of people living in poverty at

the level of each indicator. Poverty gap indices were added as additional indicators to reflect the average gap from the poverty lines as a percentage of each poverty line (Table 1). The longitudinal panel was built using country and year identifiers and geographical comparisons were made with regional classifications. The poverty headcount ratios were considered as dependent variables in different econometric specifications, and the Gini index was used as the main explanatory variable.

Table 1. Study Variables and Operational Definitions

Variable	Measurement	Unit	Analytical role
Gini index	Income inequality	Index (0–100)	Independent
Poverty headcount	Population below poverty line	%	Dependent
Poverty gap	Average normalized poverty shortfall	%	Robustness outcome
Lowest quintile share	Income held by bottom 20%	%	Distributional
Highest quintile share	Income held by top 20%	%	Distributional
Country and year	Geographical and temporal identifiers	Categorical	Panel effects

2.3. Data Processing and Descriptive Analysis

The data was prepared in Python, using Pandas for data manipulation and NumPy for numerical analysis. The indicator-year framework was replaced with a country-year framework and the economic indicators were divided into individual analytical variables. The variables were transformed to common country identifiers, observation years and indicator measurements to create a panel of common variables. Regional aggregates were not calculated, duplicate country-year combinations were considered, and missing observations were kept as missing and not imputed with estimated observations. Available observations were used for each indicator to calculate descriptive statistics, such as the arithmetic mean, the standard deviation, the minimum and the maximum. Historical trends were examined across three periods: 1990–1999, 2000–2009, and 2010–2018. The values for means were calculated for the time periods for which data was

available to test for changes over time in inequality and poverty. Regional classification was used for cross country comparisons; and differences in observation coverage were taken into account in the interpretation of the longitudinal patterns.

2.4. Correlation and Econometric Analysis

Pearson correlation coefficients were calculated to evaluate linear associations among the Gini index, poverty headcount ratios, and income distribution shares. Econometric analysis was subsequently conducted using pooled ordinary least squares regression and two-way fixed-effects panel models. Separate regression specifications were estimated for poverty headcount ratios at \$1.90, \$3.20, and \$5.50 per day. The pooled models provided baseline associations, whereas fixed-effects specifications accounted for time-invariant country characteristics and common year-specific influences. The principal econometric model was expressed as:

$$P_{it} = \alpha + \beta G_{it} + \mu_i + \lambda_t + \varepsilon_{it}$$

where P_{it} represented the poverty headcount ratio for country i in year t , G_{it} denoted the Gini index, α represented the intercept, β indicated the estimated inequality coefficient, μ_i captured country fixed effects, λ_t represented year fixed effects, and ε_{it} denoted the error term. Regression models were estimated using Python's Statsmodels package, with country-clustered robust standard errors applied to account for heteroskedasticity and within-country error dependence. Statistical significance was evaluated at the 5% level. Regression coefficients were interpreted as percentage-point differences in poverty associated with a one-point difference in the Gini index, conditional on the included fixed effects.

2.5. Robustness and Sensitivity Analysis

A robustness analysis was conducted to assess the robustness of the estimated inequality–poverty relationship in various alternative model specifications and geographical samples. Robustness analysis was done to check the robustness of the estimated inequality–poverty relationship between different alternative model specifications and geographical samples. These main regressions were re-estimated with poverty headcount ratios at three international poverty thresholds in order to check if the direction and size of the estimated associations were sensitive to the poverty thresholds. Further fixed-effects specifications used poverty gap measures as alternative dependent variables to allow for an evaluation of poverty intensity as well as poverty

incidence. The regional heterogeneity was examined by fitting separate country and year fixed-effects models in East Asia and the Pacific, Europe and Central Asia, Latin America and the Caribbean, the Middle East and North Africa, South Asia, and Sub-Saharan Africa. Standard errors were computed by country cluster and p-values were computed for each specification and computed as significant when $p\text{-value} < 0.05$. The coefficient estimates were interpreted with due regard for differences in the size of samples and availability of observations across the region. Pooled and fixed-effects results were compared to gauge sensitivity to unobserved country time-invariant characteristics. The robustness assessment was conducted on the stability of statistical associations with the different types of poverty indicators and geographical subsamples, but not to interpret the estimated coefficients as causal effects.

3. Results

3.1. Dataset Characteristics

The study included 8,140 country-indicator records covering 44 economic indicators between 1974 and 2018. Following the exclusion of regional and economic aggregates, 169 country entries were retained, while the matched analytical sample comprised 1,486 country-year observations from 164 countries. The descriptive statistics presented in Table 2 demonstrated substantial variation in income inequality and poverty across the observed economies. The mean Gini index was 39.16 ± 9.42 , with values ranging from 21.0 to 65.8. Average poverty headcount ratios were 11.63%, 22.18%, and 36.51% at the \$1.90, \$3.20, and \$5.50 daily thresholds, respectively. The lowest income quintile accounted for an average of 6.38% of total income or consumption, compared with 46.09% for the highest quintile. These findings indicated pronounced distributional disparities and considerable heterogeneity in poverty outcomes across the analytical sample.

Table 2. Descriptive Statistics of Income Inequality and Poverty Indicators

Indicator	N	Mean $\pm$ SD	Minimum	Maximum
Gini index	1,486	39.16 ± 9.42	21.0	65.8
Poverty at \$1.90/day (%)	1,493	11.63 ± 18.52	0.0	94.1
Poverty at \$3.20/day (%)	1,493	22.18 ± 26.74	0.0	98.5
Poverty at \$5.50/day (%)	1,493	36.51 ± 32.69	0.0	100.0

Poverty gap at \$1.90/day (%)	1,493	4.47 ± 8.31	0.0	63.6
Lowest 20% income share (%)	1,486	6.38 ± 2.18	0.8	11.4
Highest 20% income share (%)	1,486	46.09 ± 7.75	32.4	71.0

3.2. Inequality and Poverty Trends

Longitudinal analysis revealed declining average income inequality and extreme poverty across successive observation periods. The mean Gini index decreased from 44.13 during 1990–1999 to 38.69 during 2000–2009 and 36.80 during 2010–2018. Similarly, the average poverty headcount ratio at \$1.90 per day declined from 22.56% to 10.77% and subsequently to 6.12%. As illustrated in Figure 1, both indicators exhibited downward movements across the three periods, with the largest observed reductions occurring between the 1990s and 2000s. The decline in extreme poverty was particularly pronounced, corresponding to a 16.44-percentage-point difference between the earliest and latest periods. However, variations in country coverage and observation availability influenced the composition of the analytical sample. Consequently, these findings represented changes across available country-year observations rather than population-weighted global estimates.

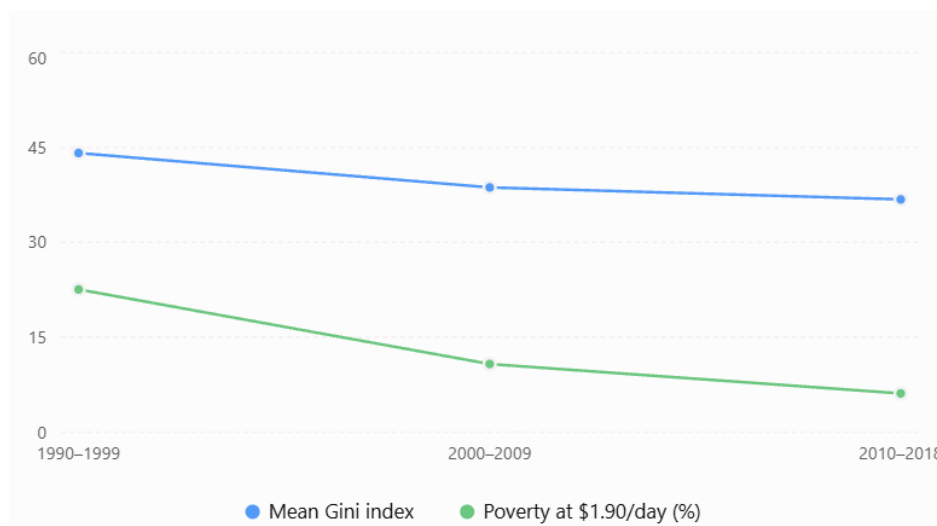


Figure 1. Long-Term Trends in Income Inequality and Extreme Poverty

3.3. Correlation Analysis

Pearson correlation analysis identified positive associations between income inequality and poverty across all three international poverty thresholds. As presented in Figure 2, the Gini index

exhibited correlations of 0.318, 0.324, and 0.367 with poverty headcount ratios at \$1.90, \$3.20, and \$5.50 per day, respectively. The strongest inequality–poverty association was observed at the highest poverty threshold. The poverty indicators were strongly interrelated, with correlation coefficients ranging from 0.816 to 0.946. Additional distributional analysis revealed a strong positive correlation between the Gini index and the highest-quintile income share ($r = 0.995$), whereas the lowest-quintile share demonstrated a strong inverse relationship ($r = -0.963$). These results indicated that greater income concentration was generally associated with higher poverty incidence, although the moderate inequality–poverty correlations suggested that additional economic factors contributed to observed poverty differences.



Figure 2. Correlation Matrix of Income Inequality and Poverty Indicators

3.4. Econometric Results

Econometric analysis demonstrated positive associations between income inequality and poverty headcount ratios across all three thresholds. The pooled ordinary least squares models produced Gini coefficients of 0.621, 0.914, and 1.268 for poverty at \$1.90, \$3.20, and \$5.50 per day, respectively. After accounting for country-specific characteristics and common year effects, the corresponding fixed-effects coefficients decreased to 0.335, 0.407, and 0.602. As reported in Table 3, all three fixed-effects estimates remained statistically significant at the 5% level. The strongest association occurred at the \$5.50 poverty threshold ($\beta = 0.602$, $p = 0.002$), indicating that a one-

point increase in the Gini index was associated with a 0.602-percentage-point increase in the corresponding poverty headcount ratio. Figure 3 illustrates the consistently smaller fixed-effects coefficients relative to pooled estimates, indicating that unobserved country heterogeneity and common temporal effects accounted for part of the observed associations.

Table 3. Panel Regression Estimates of Income Inequality and Poverty

Poverty threshold	Pooled β	Fixed-effects β	SE	p-value
\$1.90/day	0.621	0.335	0.165	0.0427
\$3.20/day	0.914	0.407	0.195	0.0371
\$5.50/day	1.268	0.602	0.195	0.0020

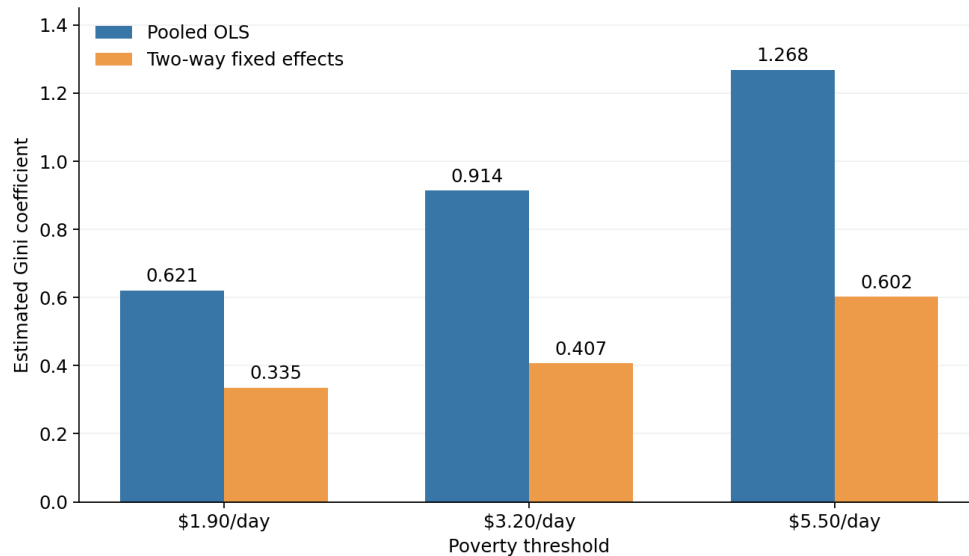


Figure 3. Regression Coefficients Across Poverty Thresholds

3.5. Regional and Robustness Results

Regional fixed-effects analysis revealed substantial heterogeneity in the relationship between income inequality and extreme poverty. Positive coefficients were observed in Europe and Central Asia ($\beta = 0.428$), Latin America and the Caribbean ($\beta = 0.598$), the Middle East and North Africa ($\beta = 0.426$), South Asia ($\beta = 4.083$), and Sub-Saharan Africa ($\beta = 0.580$). Conversely, East Asia and the Pacific exhibited a negative coefficient ($\beta = -1.595$). All reported regional estimates were statistically significant at the 5% level (Table 4). South Asia demonstrated the largest positive coefficient, although its comparatively small sample of 44 observations from seven countries

restricted the generalizability of this estimate. Alternative specifications using poverty gap indices produced positive fixed-effects coefficients of 0.318, 0.331, and 0.418 at the \$1.90, \$3.20, and \$5.50 thresholds, respectively (Figure 4). These findings indicated that the overall positive inequality–poverty association remained consistent across alternative poverty measures, while regional estimates demonstrated considerable differences in magnitude and direction.

Table 4. Regional Heterogeneity in Inequality–Poverty Relationships

Region	N	Countries	β	p-value
East Asia and Pacific	144	22	−1.595	0.0001
Europe and Central Asia	635	49	0.428	0.0033
Latin America and Caribbean	378	25	0.598	0.0017
Middle East and North Africa	82	14	0.426	0.0031
South Asia	44	7	4.083	<0.0001
Sub-Saharan Africa	181	45	0.580	0.0310

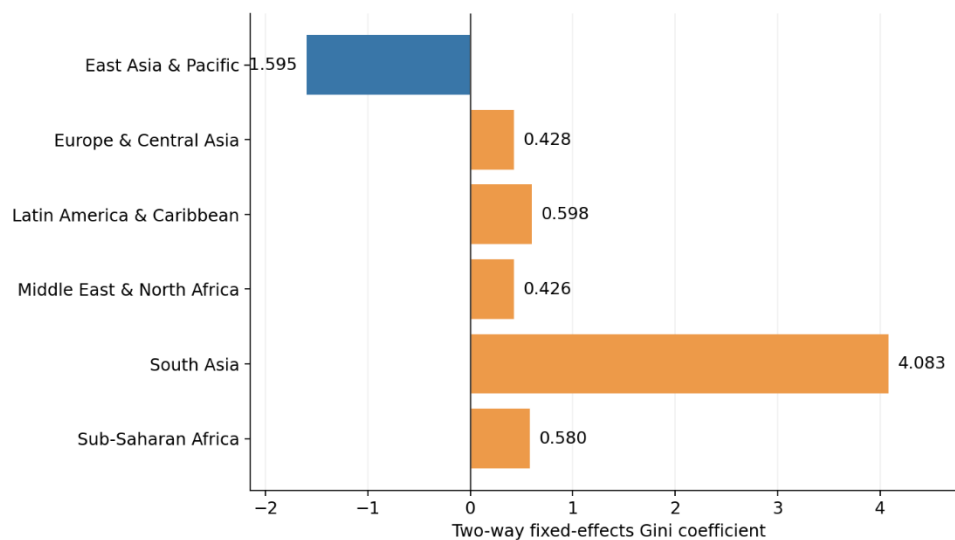


Figure 4. Regional Variation in Inequality–Poverty Associations

4. Discussion

The present study analyzed the long-term relationship between income inequality and poverty reduction in global economies, finding significant inequality gaps, falling observed poverty and

strong linkages between inequality and poverty measures. The results showed that the mean Gini index decreased from 44.13 in 1990-1999 to 36.80 in 2010-2018 and the percentage of people living in extreme poverty dropped from 22.56% to 6.12% between 1990-1999 and 2010-2018 respectively. The patterns indicate some improvement in the distributional features of the sampled economies, but are not directly comparable as country coverage is not exactly the same. It also shows that there are positive relationships between the Gini index and poverty headcount ratios, which further suggests that the income concentration of an economy is related to the poverty incidence in the economy. This relation is in line with evidence that can show how a reduction in inequality can significantly impact global poverty outcomes, especially when economic benefits are captured by lower income groups (Lakner et al., 2022).

The descriptive results also indicated that there was a significant difference between the lowest income quintile with 6.38% average income share and the highest income quintile with 46.09% average income share. Such disparities reflect the fact that the economic resources are concentrated and that overall economic development does not necessarily lead to a fair redistribution of economic benefits among social and demographic groups. The narrowing of poverty and inequality observed is consistent with a distributionally inclusive growth process, but the underlying processes are not established by the available indicators. The importance of the linkages between economic growth, structural transformation, employment and income distribution for pro-poor growth has been highlighted in the literature. These mechanisms could account for the differing poverty reduction results in similar economies. Distribution indicators are therefore a valuable complement to the traditional macro-economic indicators for measuring development performance (Klasen et al., 2025).

The econometric results supported the descriptive evidence by showing positive relationships between inequality and poverty for three international poverty lines. The fixed-effects coefficients were 0.335, 0.407 and 0.602 for country, year and time-invariant country characteristics, respectively, suggesting that the Gini index increase within countries was significantly related to the corresponding change in the poverty headcount ratio following the controls for time-invariant country characteristics and common year effects. The trend of increasingly larger coefficients at the higher poverty levels indicate that inequality may be related to deprivation that goes beyond extreme poverty to economically vulnerable groups. However, coefficient differences across thresholds should not be construed as a causal impact or directly comparable poverty elasticities.

These findings are consistent with economic modelling stressing the significance of income distribution for defining the growth trajectory for poverty eradication. This can be achieved by enhancing distributional equity to ensure that the share of economic growth that goes to disadvantaged households rises, alongside economic growth (Min et al., 2024).

There was significant variation in inequality–poverty relationships at the regional level. The positive associations were seen in most geographical regions while East Asia and the Pacific showed a negative association. South Asia showed the highest positive coefficient, but the comparatively small sample size made it less reliable to make generalizations across the region. Variations indicate that the inequality and poverty relationships take place in different institutional, demographic, and economic contexts. The relationship between distributional change and poverty outcomes could vary due to variations in the labour-market structure, in fiscal redistribution, in access to credit, and in the effectiveness of the public sector. Institutional arrangements have been the focus of research on the topic of central bank independence and inequality and poverty, which may be relevant to understanding distributional performance. The current models, however, did not directly include the features of monetary institutions or governance features, and were therefore hypotheses to be tested empirically.

The observed regional differences also demonstrate the need to pay attention to monetary and financial conditions when interpreting inequality. Household economic vulnerability could be influenced by having access to financial services, credit, inflation exposure, and asset ownership. The institutional environment that determines monetary policy can have differential income group impacts on economic conditions. There have been earlier studies of the link between central bank independence and income inequality, indicating that the monetary institutions deserve to be included in larger distributional research (Aklin et al. 2021). The present results, however, do not permit a claim to be made that the regional coefficients can be attributed to monetary arrangements. Such institutional and macroeconomic controls would need to be added to future specifications to assess these potential channels.

Results from the robustness analysis showed that the positive relationships between inequality and poverty remained, even when the poverty gap indices were used instead of the poverty headcount ratios, suggesting consistency across poverty measures of incidence and intensity. But there are a number of methodological points to keep in mind. Estimated relationships may be affected by unequal historical observations, unequal income and consumption measurement and partial

country coverage. Furthermore, bias due to country and year fixed effects is not ruled out by unobserved factors of time variation or by reverse causality. Climate vulnerability is another possible relevant factor, as climate change can have an impact on household income, farm productivity, job availability and poverty exposure. So far, there is evidence that climate change could have a multi-socio-economic pathway impact on economic inequality and poverty (Dang et al., 2024). In conclusion, the results strengthen the case for integrating distributional aspects into poverty reduction policies and for using context-specific policies, as well as for the need to have context-specific longitudinal data and more effective causal identification in future economic research.

6. Conclusion

The present study examined the long-term relationship between income inequality and poverty reduction in global economies based on longitudinal distributional indicators. The results showed that substantial differences in income concentration and poverty incidence exist between countries, and average inequality and extreme poverty have decreased in the sample of countries observed over time. The mean Gini index fell by 7.33 points between 1990-1999 and 2010-2018, dropping from 44.13 to 36.80, while the extreme poverty headcount ratio dropped from 22.56% to 6.12%. These shifts indicate better outcomes in observed distributional trends but are not necessarily representative of a global trend due to differences in country coverage. The positive relationship between income inequality and poverty was found in all above mentioned poverty lines by using correlation and econometric analysis. The fixed-effects estimates were still statistically significant when controlling for country specific characteristics and common temporal influences, suggesting that in general, higher inequality was linked to higher poverty incidence. Regional comparisons showed a considerable heterogeneity and the importance of the economic structures and country-specific development conditions. The overall relationships were confirmed by robustness analyses with alternative poverty measures. The findings are relevant to development economics because they emphasize the need to incorporate income distribution measures in long-term poverty measures. Thus, policy choices need to also account for distributional outcomes as well as economic growth (in the form of economic opportunities, inclusive development, and support for the disadvantaged). However, due to limitations in observation and the possibility of unknown confounders, it is not possible to draw causal inferences. New longitudinal data, more institutional

factors, and more robust identification techniques might help shed light on the causal pathways linking inequality and poverty alleviation in different economic settings.

Reference

1. Aklin, M., Kern, A., & Negre, M. (2021). Does central bank independence increase inequality?.
2. Bresson, F., Duclos, J. Y., & Palmisano, F. (2019). Intertemporal pro-pooriness: F. Bresson et al. *Social Choice and Welfare*, 52(1), 65-96.
3. Burchi, F., Malerba, D., Rippin, N., & Montenegro, C. E. (2019). Comparing global trends in multidimensional and income poverty and assessing horizontal inequalities (No. 2/2019). Discussion paper.
4. Chrisendo, D., Niva, V., Hoffmann, R., Masoumzadeh Sayyar, S., Rocha, J., Sandström, V., ... & Kumm, M. (2025). Rising income inequality across half of global population and socioecological implications. *Nature sustainability*, 8(12), 1601-1613.
5. Dang, H. A. H., Hallegatte, S., & Trinh, T. A. (2024). Does global warming worsen poverty and inequality? An updated review. *Journal of Economic Surveys*, 38(5), 1873-1905.
6. Ferreira, F. H., Firpo, S., & Galvao, A. F. (2019). Actual and counterfactual growth incidence and delta Lorenz curves: estimation and inference. *Journal of Applied Econometrics*, 34(3), 385-402.
7. Hérault, N., & Jenkins, S. P. (2019). How valid are synthetic panel estimates of poverty dynamics?. *The Journal of Economic Inequality*, 17(1), 51-76.
8. Klasen, S., Kneib, T., Lo Bue, M. C., & Prete, V. (2025). What's behind pro-poor growth? An investigation of its drivers and dynamics. *The Journal of Economic Inequality*, 23(1), 43-69.
9. Lakner, C., Mahler, D. G., Negre, M., & Prydz, E. B. (2022). How much does reducing inequality matter for global poverty? How much does reducing inequality matter for global poverty?. *The Journal of Economic Inequality*, 20(3), 559-585.

10. Lo Bue, M. C., & Palmisano, F. (2020). The individual poverty incidence of growth. *Oxford Bulletin of Economics and Statistics*, 82(6), 1295-1321.
11. Malerba, D. (2020). The Trade-off Between Poverty Reduction and Carbon Emissions, and the Role of Economic Growth and Inequality: An Empirical Cross-Country Analysis Using a Novel Indicator: D. Malerba. *Social Indicators Research*, 150(2), 587-615.
12. Min, J., & Rao, N. D. (2023). Growth and inequality trade-offs to eradicate absolute poverty. *Heliyon*, 9(11).
13. Min, J., Soergel, B., Kikstra, J. S., Koch, J., & van Ruijven, B. (2024). Income and inequality pathways consistent with eradicating poverty. *Environmental Research Letters*, 19(11), 114041.
14. Moatsos, M. (2025). Global poverty: a review of measurement, levels, and trends in a historical perspective. *Journal of Economic Surveys*, 39(2), 706-766.
15. Moreno, H., Bourguignon, F., & Dang, H. A. (2021). On synthetic income panels (No. 14236). IZA Discussion Papers.
16. Sturm, J. E., Bodea, C., De Haan, J., & Hicks, R. (2025). Central bank independence, income inequality and poverty: What do the data say?. *The Journal of Economic Inequality*, 23(1), 227-246.
17. Sumner, A. (2019). Global poverty and inequality: Change and continuity in late development. *Development and change*, 50(2), 410-425.
18. World Bank. (2019). Poverty and equity database [Data set]. Kaggle. <https://www.kaggle.com/datasets/theworldbank/poverty-and-equity-database>