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Concentration of income inequality on the basis of Palma ratio and income deciles of Turkey on national and regional level

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1. Introduction

This paper aims to focus on income inequality concentration based on the Palma ratio as an income inequality metrics and in this regard the change in relevant income deciles of Turkey, both on a national (for the period 2002-2017) and NUTS (Nomenclature of Territorial Units for Statistics) level for the period 2006-2017.

Based on economist José Gabriel Palma’s empirical observation (2006, 2011, 2013, 2014a, 2014b, 2016), the Palma ratio is calculated as the ratio of the income share of the top 10% (D10, as the richest) compared to that of the bottom 40% (total, D1-D4, as the poorest). It suggests that the difference in the income distribution of different countries (or over time) is largely the result of changes in the ‘tails’ of the distribution (the richest versus the poorest) as there tends to be relative stability in the share of income that goes to the ‘middle’ groups (total D5-D9) (Cobham and Sumner, 2015). Since then, the Palma ratio is also used in OECD's income distribution database (Cingano, 2014, OECD, 2014), in the UNDP Human Development Report (2015, since 2015), in the World Bank Global Monitoring report (2015) and in some national statistics (e.g. the UK, ONS, 2015), as an indicator of development goals and income inequality metrics (Cobham and Sumner, 2015, 1).

The choice of analyzing inter-decile income changes with respect to the Palma ratio and more generally income deciles figures is related to empirical evidence of recent studies regarding income distribution and inequality. Simultaneously, developments in the collection of more homogenous household income and consumption data covering more countries has also increased the quality of the inequality measurement that also contributes to the empirical investigation of inequality.

While Deininger and Squire (1996) used one set of preliminary data to empirically investigate on a global scale suggested that the Gini coefficient data does not fully reflect the change between the middle, lower and upper income groups and focused on 20 percent income groups (quintiles) (Deininger and Squire, 1996: 567). Following these, Bourgingon and Morrison (2002), Stucfile (2003), Milanovic (2005) also empirically investigated and outlined the importance of changes in income deciles. Moreover, Milanovic (2016) compares the share of the deciles for the period between 1998 and 2008, and shows that the globalization process has not provided an equally profitable gain for each decile by pointing out the “elephant curve” (Milanovic, 2016: 11) has replaced Kuznets inverse U relation.

Furthermore, based on the World Top Income Project and the works of Atkinson, Piketty and Saez (2011), the income-wealth relation and inequalities among income deciles have been accepted to be more decisive in defining inequalities. According to the World Inequality Report (WIR, 2018: 9), the income of the top 1% has reached twice as high as the income of the lowest 50% since 1980, as a consequence of this, the report states that significant growth in the income of the bottom deciles has not been achieved. However, the top 10% has increased its share both on a national and global level with different variants (between 20-25% and 60-65%) (WID, 2018: 44).

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1. TR (Turkey), Istanbul Region (TR1), West Marmara Region (TR2), Aegean Region (TR3), East Marmara Region (TR4), West Anatolia Region (TR5), Mediterranean Region (TR6), Central Anatolia Region (TR7), West Black Sea Region (TR8), East Black Sea Region (TR9), Northeast Anatolia Region (TRA), Central East Anatolia Region (TRB), Southeast Anatolia Region (TRC)
The mentioned preliminary studies have also triggered the question of what should be the criterion of income inequality and raises the question of how the bottom-and top deciles benefit from the gains in economic growth. Atkinson (2003:23) emphasizes that the Gini coefficient has the most common use and also reduces the whole distribution to a simple number only. At the same time the Gini coefficient is defined as a metric that is more sensitive to changes in the middle groups. It is expected that the change in the Gini coefficient is more likely to be due to the fact that the top 10 percent is growing faster than the median or the first 50 percent income group is growing faster than the bottom 10 percent (D1). This prediction also does not allow us to test the effects of economic growth on income inequality and may lack answers to the question of how the bottom and top deciles have been affected by distribution (Voitchovsky 2005, 2009).

Within the framework of the paper, the Palma ratio is examined as an income inequality metric that covers changes in income deciles at opposite “tails”. In doing so, it should be underlined that the concept of inequality is itself a proposition that involves differentiating it from a certain level of equality. In fact, income inequality that is a distribution of total product (output/income) among individuals (or households) is related to how far the income of individuals in society is from each other (Şenesen, 1998: 245). Thus the choice of income inequality metrics requires understanding the strengths and weaknesses of each metric that is preferred over others. This comparison includes descriptive facts, and requires the use of proportional and ranking income statistics. However, the criterion used for comparison includes normative preferences as well (Atkinson, 2003 Cowell, 2000). Besides, it should not be neglected that income inequality measures have a complementary function and provide a general framework (UNDESA, 2015).

In this context the pros and cons of metrics will be considered hence this study does not suggest that the Palma ratio is the best inequality metric to explain inequalities. However, the analytical framework of the Palma ratio will be taken into consideration in order to focus on the concentration of income inequality in the case of Turkey. As Tahsin (2013) has already investigated the Palma ratio for the period between 2002-2013, the task of this paper is to go further and investigate asymmetries in income distribution based on components of the Palma ratio; the percentage share and mean values of income deciles both at a national and regional (NUTS-1) level. In doing so, this paper primarily reveals the robustness of the Palma ratio in respect to the Gini coefficient. In addition it contributes to the sub-regional decomposition of inequalities based on the features of the Palma ratio by using the Mahalanobis distance, $R_{between}$ (Between group inequality) and $G_{within}$ (within group inequality) calculations.

In the following chapters, primarily empirical evidence and debates on the Palma ratio will be summarized. The data and methodology of the paper will be outlined and by using descriptive statistics, the Mahalanobis distance and sub-regional decomposition concentration of income inequality in the case of Turkey will be investigated.

2. Empirical Evidence and Debates on Palma ratio

Primarily, the Palma ratio (2006) examines global inequality in a cross-sectional country analysis framework, and argues that the Gini coefficient is insufficient in explaining the dynamics of income inequality under 21st-century conditions and that new criteria should be developed instead.

In the first study that Gabriel Palma outlined “the Palma ratio”, he suggested (2006) that data sets with a 20 percent (quintiles) share of income do not have satisfactory results for income inequality; he uses income deciles

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2 The use of different income inequality metrics instead of the Gini coefficient, that is most traditionally and commonly used, undoubtedly is not a new phenomenon. While Sen, Atkinson and Theil indexes constitute the most basic example of this, comparing income deciles as a criterion of concentration of income inequality has been commonly accepted.

3 Empirical evidence on this topic is out of the scope of this paper. For recent debates see(Gastwith, 2017).

4 This is confirmed for Turkey’s case as well.

5 On regional level Bayar (2016) already have used decomposition analysis of Jenkins(1995) besides previous studies have used Atkinson index (Dayioglu and Başlevent, 2016) and Theil index for analyzing regional disparities(Sefil Tansever and Kent, 2018). Although this paper investigates between and within group inequality based on income deciles and Mahalanobis distance calculations, different from the relevant previos studies , for period of 2006-2017.
data in order to compare dynamics of income inequality at national, regional and global level. Palma (2013), for
the first time, uses the WDI (World Development Indicators) data of 2012, from 131 countries as a starting point
for the “Palma ratio” ranking. According to this, the Palma ratio, with the lowest value, is found to be 0.8 in
Sweden and it is calculated as 8.5 in South Africa which is the highest value.
In the analysis conducted using WDI data (2004), the Gini coefficient ranking of 109 countries, the regional
median value of the Gini coefficient, D10 and D9 rankings are compared. While the Gini coefficient values
reveal regional income inequality differences, high values of range and standard deviation for D10 is found to
be striking. On the other hand, the gap between D9 and D10 also shows the size of the difference between the
two income groups, while D10 has a range value that is six times greater than D9’s range value. Another
important finding is that the D9 median values for countries are similar, while the D10 median values are quite
different. These results indicate the need to understand the impact of D10 on national income distribution as a
consequence of globalization (Palma, 2006, p:3-4). Additionally, D10 / D1 range values apparently receive
greater values differently from the other metrics (D9/ D2, Q4 / Q2 and Q3 / Q2) (Palma, 2006).
An analysis of the descriptive statistics for income decile groups (range, mean, harmonic mean, median,
variance, standard deviation, coefficient of variance) of the countries in the WDI data set, indicate heterogeneity
in the share of D1-D4 and D10, and homogeneity in the share of middle deciles which is defined as a striking
contrast. (Palma, 2006: 9) The coefficient of variation of D10 to D1-D4 is approximately 4 times larger than the
coefficient of the variation of D5-D9 which introduces the differences among income deciles groups more
concretely.
According to these results, Palma emphasizes the necessity of looking “into the Gini” as well as the Kuznets
inverse U hypothesis by also examining and using the decile income groups instead of the Gini coefficient.
Accordingly, the similarity of the relationship between the Gini coefficient and the per capita income (In
GDPPC 1997, 1995 US dollar) and between the per capita income and the D10 per capita income is observed,
while the relationship between D1-D4 and per capita income is found to be a mirror image of the relationship
between D10 and per capita income (Palma, 2006.: 9, 2011:p.11,p.15). Furthermore, the relationship between
D5-D9 and per capita income indicates more homogenous trends for the regions. This similarity is also observed
for the upper middle income (D7-D9) and is considered to be a surprising result (Palma, 2006: 19, 2011).
On the basis of these results, Palma argues that while income inequality varies among countries, in the
population of the countries that are composed of 4 layered segments; half of the population represents D10
and D1-D4 and the other half represents homogeneity in income distribution (D5-D9, D7-D9). Palma (2006: 12)
puts forward a thesis of homogeneity of middle income deciles in the neoliberal era, and in countries with high
inequality, he suggests that D10 is subsidized by income share of D1-D4 even though it is observed that D10
also determines the share of the middle deciles (Palma, 2018:7,13).
Palma explains the dynamics of income inequality by pointing out the existence of two opposing forces, that is
“centrifugal” (D10, D1-D4) and “centripetal” (D5-D9) forces. While “centrifugal” forces cause divergence in
the share of D10 and D1-D4, “centripetal” forces represent convergence in income. Palma (2013), stylizes the
fact that the most important phenomenon is related to the share of the rich and furthermore he underlines that
the income distribution is determined by the struggle in the tails. On the basis of this proposal, he supports that
the main policies determining the share of tails would be efficient to eliminate inequalities.
Following Palma’s studies, Cobham and Sumner (2013a, 2013b, 2015) empirically investigated the propositions
of the Palma ratio. Based on Povcal data (1990, 2010, 2012) Cobham and Sumner point out the strong
correlation between the ratio of the Palma ratio and the Gini coefficient even though it is revealed that the Gini
coefficient is over sensitive to the Palma ratio (2013b: 143).
When the relationship between the initial values of Gini coefficient and Palma ratio ; and the absolute
proportional change of both coefficients between 1990-2010 is empirically tested for 76 countries, stickiness of
inequality has been confirmed, and that the initial level of Palma has had a strong impact on the absolute and
proportional change level, despite the 20-year period (Cobham and Sumner, 2013: 9). Additionally, when the
question of to what extent components of the Palma ratio explain the change in the Gini coefficient is examined,
it is extrapolated that the change in the Gini coefficient explains the Palma ratio components by 98 percent. (Cobham and Sumner, 2013a, 2013b).

In the light of the empirical results, the Gini coefficient is found to be over sensitive to the Palma ratio even when the Palma ratio is found to be more sensitive to the changes in income deciles. From this point of view, it is predicted that the Palma proposition provides sufficient evidence to overcome the bias of the Gini coefficient, (Cobham and Sumner, 2013b:143).

Summing up, the Gini coefficient is thought to be inadequate in its attempts to concentrate on where the income inequality exists and so the need for a transparent and policy-based data set should be considered (Cobham and Sumner, 2013a: 8). However, it is emphasized that the Palma ratio should be seen as a group inequality analysis. It is stated that the Palma ratio does not have decomposition features and does not permit change within the groups (Cobham and Sumner, 2015: 9), and might not explain what is happening to middle income deciles. With regards to this, Hazledine (2014) questions the rigidity of the middle income deciles. The given answer to this critic, Palma (2014) underlines that he refers to the relative stability of middle deciles compared to other income deciles. Milanovic (2015) points out that the measurement of inequalities in this ratio may be problematic for later periods, and states that time is needed to get excited about the Palma ratio. In his criticism of the Palma ratio, he underlines the fact that this ratio is based on an axiom which is insensitive to transfers between the income groups and neglect sub-grouping divisions.

Other main critical points of the Palma ratio are about the limited potential of showing progress among the bottom 5%, 10%, and 20% while it is more sensitive to changes in D10 (Lenhard and Shepard, 2016). As Ravallion argues (2015, cited by Murawski, 2016) the Palma ratio will continue to increase if an increase in the bottom share and an even greater increase at the top would raise the index rating, even though the recovery in share of the poor’s income may not be noticed. Cobham and Sumner respond to this approach and point out that except Burundi there is no other country that fits this sampling (2013c).

Furthermore, the Palma ratio has triggered a question of measurement of inequality metrics as a political tool in order to decrease inequality. Krozer (2015) raises an additional ratio based on the findings of the Palma ratio, suggesting that this may be complementary to the Palma ratio. Accordingly, when the ratio of the first 5% to bottom 40% (Palma V.2) and the ratio of the first 1% to bottom 40% (Palma V.1) is calculated, the dimensions of the divergence within the first 10% become apparent. Lars-Enberg Pedesen (2016) is of the opinion that the Palma ratio can be functional in determining the content of development policies, especially taxation, social services and so on. In the World Bank’s shared Prosperity study (2016:53), the Palma premium (p) is defined as the difference between the growth in the mean of the bottom 40% and the growth in the mean of the top decile (p = g40 – g10). Hereby, a positive Palma premium suggests that a given country has experienced narrowing income inequality. Doyle and Stiglitz (2016) suggested a 1% Palma ratio by the year 2030; that would mean that the data can be used in poverty reduction strategies as part of the post-2015 development goals. Based on this proposition, Palma (2018) took anchor in countries with a ratio of 1 to 1, and calculates how much countries should have a share of D10 for the Palma 1 target, while part of the D10, above the Palma 1 target, receives data (D10+) as the degree of concentration of inequality.

Summing up the logic of the Palma Ratio is defined as emphasizing the importance of “tails” in accounting for the diversity of income inequality in the world, and is expressed as a result of the need to draw attention to the artificial foundations of inequality. Thus, this metric suggested that we focus on the dynamics that determine asymmetries in income distribution dynamics.

3. On Data and Methodology of the paper

The post-2001 period of the Turkish economy refers to higher GDP growth rates that comprise of theoretical and institutional policy shifts, both in distribution and redistribution policies, that would not be discussed in detail within the framework of the paper. However, it must be known that the main findings of the income distribution studies covering the post-2001 period reveal the necessity of considering the economic growth tendency within sub-periods as subordinated to interest, exchange rate and inflation policies. Considering the GDP growth rate figures of Turkey, a significant increase (average 8.1%) was realized between 2002 and 2007.
As a result, during that period, GDP per capita had doubled. In the aftermath of this period, the world economic crisis in 2008 affected growth rates negatively. For the period between 2002-2012, the average growth rate is calculated as 5.1 percent, although, after 2014, more moderate growth rates have been achieved (2014-2017 average 3.9 percent)(Turkstat,2018).

Apparently, increasing rates in GDP per capita rates were observed during this period, meanwhile, on NUTS-1 and province level, it is possible to suggest that a stable convergence had been realized (Oz, 2017, Karaca, 2018). Prominent factor incomes are found to be one of the main determinants of income inequality for both national and regional levels (BSB, 2015, Selim, Günçavdı, Bayar, 2014). Especially property rents, interest incomes and entrepreneur shares are found to have more inequality both on a national and regional level (TUSİAD, 2014).

Besides, studies focusing on regional inequalities underline that the main source of income inequality in Turkey is not because of regional income differences, but within regional inequalities (SELİM, GÜNÇAVDİ, BAYAR, 2014, Bayar, 2016). When it is focused on regional income dynamics, roots of disparities could be explained depending on economy policies, migration and other factors related to income generation (Selim, Günçavdı, Bayar, 2014, UNDP, 2016, Bayar,2016).

In addition, it is seen that institutional changes in redistribution policies differentiate the dynamics of income distribution but the level of recovery in income inequality is still questionable. It is possible to mention that the new social assistance regime that accompanies the growth regime of Turkey has consequences in favor of the poor (Başlevent, 2014, Tekguç, 2018), but at limited levels both on a national and NUTS-1 level. On the other hand, the accumulation of wealth (BSB, 2015, WID, 2018, Başlevent, 2018) has also increased during this period which has triggered the question of dimensions of inequality among income groups.

Summing up, based on previous studies it is clear that two opposite tendencies on the basis of income inequality concentration have been mostly challenged. The main findings of these previous studies lead us to investigate opposite tendencies in income distribution dynamics, hence it is thought that income deciles and the Palma ratio would be valuable to focus on.

Considering the income inequality data based on the Gini coefficient, it can be seen that the trend of inequality decreased considerably in the period 2002-2007 (Selim, Günçavdı, Bayar, 2014), but this trend reverted again after the 2008-2009 crisis and it has increased in the period after 2014 (see also figure 1). From this perspective, the Gini data may be investigated on the basis of the Palma ratio to ascertain whether recovery can be found in the income distribution data. Related to the data relevant to the Gini coefficients, there are some specific facts that should be underlined for Turkey’s case. The Gini coefficient data is derived from TurkStat, which has announced figures “regularly” only since 2002, and the absence of regular data prior to 2002 means that a comparison for a longer time period is not possible. Given the methodological problems of household income data sets, in this paper, continuity, homogenity and universal acceptance of data sets will be taken into consideration. For this purpose the Povcal data set for the period 2002-2016 will be included in the analysis, although mainly the equivalized household data of the Income and Living conditions survey conducted by Turkstat since 2006 will be used both for the national and NUTS-1 level.

First of all, to analyze changes in inter-income deciles, descriptive and explanatory statistics will be utilised for percentage shares, the Gini coefficient and the Palma ratio. Additionally, the mean values of the relevant deciles (total mean income and mean income of D10, D1-D4, D5-D9) will also be included in the analysis. In this context, rather than analyzing absolute improvement, proportional change in mean values of income deciles, with respect to total mean income and GDP per capita income (Turkstat, 2006-2017) will be examined both on a national and NUTS-1 level. In this retrospect, the Palma premium (p) will be taken into consideration.

In doing so, the robustness of the Palma ratio with reference to the Gini coefficient will be investigated. While analysing descriptive statistics for both income deciles and mean income data, the existence of “outliers” will be examined. For this purpose, in order to examine regional disparities on the basis of income deciles, the

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6 Reel mean values adjusted according to 2003 Consumer Price Index of Turkey.
Mahalanobis distance calculation will be estimated for the percentage share values of the deciles. Given that the Mahalanobis distance allows computing the distance between two points (here the distance between TR and other given NUTS-1 level region) in a p-dimensional space, while taking into account the covariance structure across the p dimensions (XTLAS, 2014). Briefly, the Mahalanobis distance is calculated for a two-dimensional vector with no covariance.

The square of the Mahalanobis distance (dM²) is written as:

\[ dM² = (x_1 - x_2) \sum \sigma^{-1} (x_1 - x_2) \]  

(Equation, 1)

Here the first part of the equation 1 is the vector xi and in the second part \( \sum \) is the covariance matrix. In doing so, x1 would be equal to TR values and x2 would be equal to relevant NUTS-1 level values. So that proximity of regions to TR that is to say to what extent regions either diverge or converge to TR’s level would be evaluated. As a further step, a regions’ contribution to total inequality would be investigated in order to give answers on dimensions of income inequality concentration, based on income deciles. In this case, sub-population decomposition for ‘between inequality’ \( (R_B) \) (Bhattacharya and Mahalanobis, 1967 cited by Giorgi, 2011:10-11,) and ‘within inequality’ \( (G_{within}) \) would be utilised (Bellu and Liberati, 2006). While \( (R_B) \) captures the inequality due to the variability of income across different groups, the \( (G_{within}) \) element would explore the inequality due to the variability of income within each group (Bellu and Liberati, 2006).

For the \( R_B \) analysis, the total mean of income recipients in income class (i) within group (j) (i.e income deciles within NUTS-1 level) would be compared according to the mean income of recipients in TR. Both for \( R_B \) and \( G_{within} \) estimations, mean values of relevant income deciles would be weighted according to their population share. In this case, in order to examine the overall trend, mean values of \( R_B \) and \( G_{within} \) calculations would be considered for the period 2006-2017. Hence, classification of income deciles on the basis of contribution to income inequality would be outlined.

The formula for the \( R_B \) analysis is written as:

\[ R_B = \sum_{i=1}^{k} \sum_{j=1}^{g} pij \left( \frac{|\mu_i - \mu_j|}{\mu_i + \mu_j} \right) \]  

(Equation, 2)

\( j = \text{group } j \) with and \( j = 1, 2, ..., k \);
\( i = \text{income class with } i \text{ in group } j = 1, 2, ..., h \);
\( n = \text{Population size of TR} \);

\( nj: \text{Population share of group } j(\text{NUTS-1 level}); \)

\( pij = nj / n \text{ share of recipients in group } j \);

\( \mu_j = \text{mean income of group } j \);

\( \mu_i = \text{mean income of income class } i \text{ in group } j \);

\( q_j = pij(\mu_j / \mu), \text{total income share of group } j \);

The formula for \( G_{within} \) analysis is written as:

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\(^7\) XTLS(2014) has been used for this analysis and rejected Ho hypothesis ;“the means vectors of the 13 classes are equal”, for all samples.

\(^8\) Given that number of households for Income and Living Conditions surveys is weighted according to population share of regions’ for percentage share of income deciles(Eq.1) weighting according to population is omitted although for( Equation,2) and (Equation, 3) samples are weighted according to population share. For weighting mean income values, population share of NUTS-1 level regions address-based population registration system data has been used(Turkstat, 2018).
Given that;
\( G_{\text{NUTS-1}} \) = Gini value for NUTS-1 region;
\( n_i \) = population share of each income class in group j.
\( y_i \) =the income share of each income class in group j.

Summing up, investigation of the data sets comprise of three main features, which are interpretations of descriptive statistics, whilst considering proportional change in income deciles, defining outliers by means of the Mahalanobis distance and \( R_B \) and \( G_{\text{within}} \) analysis for mapping regional disparities that is suggested to contribute towards income inequality concentration both on a national and regional level in Turkey.

4.1 Comparison of the Gini coefficient and the Palma ratio for Turkey

Taking into account both data sets (Povcal data, Turkstat) for Turkey, it is seen that the Palma ratio ranges from 2.17 to 1.68 in the period from 2002 to 2017. According to the 2016 figures of the Povcal data, the Palma ratio for Turkey is 1.91, that is, the second highest value (after Chile) among OECD members. On a global scale, based on figures of the Palma ratio (Palma, 2018), Turkey could be classified among the “medium-level inequality” group.

For the 2002-2016 period (Povcal data) only the Palma ratio is found to be left (negative) skewed and for the years between 2006-2017 (TurkStat data) both metrics are positively skewed with negligible outliers.\(^9\)

Based on the TurkStat and Povcal data set, a comparison of the Gini coefficient and the Palma ratio for Turkey is shown (see figure 1.1, 1.2). As seen from figure 1.1, both metrics have a tendency to decrease after the 2003 period especially in the period 2003-2006. In the Aftermath of 2013, a tendency to increase has been observed. Briefly, it is possible to classify different tendencies in inequalities depending on sub-period of economic growth tendencies of the Turkish economy. More importantly, it is striking that this trend of the Palma ratio is overlapping with changes in the Gini coefficient.

As it is shown from figure 1.1 and 1.2, changing trends both in the Palma ratio and Gini coefficient are completely the same. Both the Gini coefficient and Palma ratio receive the maximum and the minimum values, in the same years. Moreover, the correlation among two variables is found to be very strong (as it is seen in figure 2.1 and 2.2). For the Povcal data set, this correlation is calculated as (0.9887) and the TurkStat data set as (0.9984) at a 95% confidence level.

\(^9\) Regarding the sample size graph box analysis has been considered but not included
In addition to these, the rate of change (either increase or decrease for different periods) is more stationary for the Gini coefficient rather than the Palma ratio\(^{10}\). When proportional change for both the Palma ratio and the Gini coefficient with respect to the total mean income and GDP per capita were examined between the 2006-2017 period; the Palma ratio is found to be more sensitive to changes (negative values for both metrics has been calculated).\(^{11}\) Nevertheless the period covered by the Povcal data proportional change with respect to mean income is found to be positive\(^{12}\), indicating temporary recovery in inequalities for a longer time period. As an overall result it could be suggested that after the post 2001 period in spite of increase in total mean and GDP per capita, recovery in inequality has been stationary. Moreover, when proportional change is examined annually, both metrics have negative and positive values for the same period and during the crises period of 2008-2009, sensitivity to changes in GDP per capita income is found to be higher for both coefficients.\(^{13}\)

An evaluation of descriptive statistics also reveals that the Palma ratio has got 2 times higher standard deviation and coefficient of variation values than the Gini coefficient that lead us to explore relevant income deciles (see appendix). Hence, in the light of descriptive statistics and strong correlations between two variables, the explanatory power of the Palma ratio, with respect to changes in income deciles, will be investigated in the following sections.

4.2. Centripetal and Centrifugal deciles of Turkey

In this chapter, given the basic features and propositions of the Palma ratio, questions of whether the income inequality is concentrated in “tails” and on the other hand, the proposition of the relative stability of the D5-D9 income deciles, will be examined for the TR level.

For the periods covered by TurkStat and the Povcal data set, the results are consistent with the proposition of the Palma ratio, that is; half of the income is shared by middle deciles and the other half of the income is shared among the tails. For both data sets, it is seen that D5-D9 shares do not fall below 50 percent. Moreover, this tendency indicates that the share of middle deciles is the reverse mirror image of the tails (see Figure 3.1 and 3.2). When the sum of the tails (D1-D4 and D10) has the lower ratio, the middle deciles take higher ratios, hence, it could be suggested that the tails and the middle deciles are substitutes of each other. For the period covered by Povcal data, it is seen that D5-D9 deciles share increased between 2005 and 2008 (maximum value

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\(^{10}\) Rate of change for Gini coefficient is only (0.02) and for Palma ratio is (0.14) for Povcal data set period. For period 2006-2017 rate of change for Gini coefficient is calculated as (-0.057) and for Palma ratio it is (-0.06).

\(^{11}\) Change in Palma ratio with respect to mean income is (-0.027) and GDP per capita income is (-0.02). Change in Gini coefficient with respect to mean income is (-0.022) and GDP per capita income is (-0.027). Once more, correlation with proportional change with Palma and Gini coefficient is found to be strong.

\(^{12}\) For Palma ratio (0.02) and Gini coefficient (0.01).

\(^{13}\) For 2002-2016 period relation between GDP per capita and Gini coefficient and Palma ratio is expected to have - U - relationship.
in 2008) and later on this trend had been reversed. In the period covered by TurkStat data, the share of D5-D9 deciles have the highest ratio in 2007, although this ratio has decreased in the following periods.

Focusing on tails for both of the data sets’ periods, it is seen that the lowest D10 share also means the highest D1-D4 share. When D10 has maximum value (2002, 2006), both D1-D4 and D5-D9 has a reverse trend. In the period when D10 reaches the maximum level, the Palma rate is also the maximum.

For the Palma ratio covered by the TurkStat data period, the correlation between D1-D4 is found to be stronger (-0.95) than the correlation with D10 income deciles (0.85). On the other hand, the Povcal data set correlation between the Palma ratio and D1-D4 is (-0.9492) and the correlation with the Palma ratio and D10 is stronger (0.9766).

However, one differing result for both data sets is with regards to the correlation between D5-D9 and D1-D4. Relatively, a lower correlation for D5-D9 and D1-D4 income deciles is noteworthy and the correlation between D5-D9 and D10 is found to be stronger and negative. Moreover, components of the Palma ratio have a stronger tendency to change against the Gini coefficient compared to middle income deciles and the correlation between the middle deciles and the Gini coefficient is found to be weaker.\textsuperscript{14} Including the fact that the D10 income decile has a negative and high correlation value with middle deciles, it could be suggested that trends in D10 squeeze the middle deciles as well.

According to the descriptive statistics, when the standard deviation and coefficient of variation values are taken into consideration, one of the specific features that stands out (for both data sets) is the higher standard deviation and range values for the D10 decile compared to the others. According to the Povcal data descriptive statistics, values for D10 are approximately 2 times higher than the period covered by the TurkStat data set. It is observed that D10 showed more variation in the period between 2002-2016.

As one of components of “tails”, D1-D4 income deciles trend of change differs according to the covered period in both data sets whereas D5-D9 income deciles have relative stability. The Standard deviations of both income groups is closer to each other between the years 2006 and 2017 (TurkStat data period). When the Povcal data set period is taken into account, the standard deviation for middle deciles is found to be higher than the bottom deciles. However, the coefficient of variation has the lowest values for D5-D9 in both data sets.

According to the data sets, after the aftermath of the 2008 crisis period, it is observed that the share of D10 has increased its share compared to the others. Furthermore, for the last years covered by data sets, the trend to increase in D10’s share has been observed. Moreover, when we look at the ventile income groups for the period 2006-2017 (Turkstat,2018), the differentiation “within the D10 income group” is notable. Consequently, V20 values are double those of V19 values. Furthermore, this figure has a 3 times higher standard deviation than

\textsuperscript{14} Correlation is also examined for each income deciles and this prediction is confirmed.
V19, that leads us to recall the importance of the Palma ratio V.2 to analyze the degree of concentration of the inequalities as mentioned in Krozer's (2015).

Clearly, the different trend of income deciles could be interrupted with answers given to the question of who has benefited from the increase in GDP per capita and the total mean income. In this case, due to the period covered by the data sets, the results indicate that two different trends could be extrapolated (as mentioned in the previous chapter).

Given that the Povcal data set covers the post 2001 period of Turkey, between the years 2002 and 2016 the proportional change in the share of D1-D4 is found to be negative which is an opposite trend when compared to other income groups and even for middle deciles this change is found to be the highest. Although for the period between 2006-2017 the Palma premium indicates a different trend in income deciles. Even proportional change in the D1-D4 total mean with respect to the total mean income is found to be higher than the others. Meanwhile, the proportional change in the middle deciles with respect to the total mean income and GDP per capita, income is found to be weaker compared to the others even considering the proportional change in the percentage share it is found to be negative and different from the others. Clearly, it could be suggested that considering the sub-periods of GDP growth, the middle deciles share increased in the previous years but in the aftermath this has decreased whereas the share of D10 has increased continuously and the recovery in the bottom deciles has been temporary.

As a result, the centrifugal forces have been more volatile and relative stagnation of the centripetal forces has been justified. On the other hand, among centrifugal forces, it could be suggested that evidently D10 income group has the potential of squeezing other deciles. While focusing on the Palma ratio components and relevant income groups, these facts could become more pronounced.

5.1 Palma ratio and Gini coefficient comparison on NUTS-1 level
For the post-2001 period, acceleration of the rate of GDP per capita has also lead to a limited level of convergence among regions (Oz, 2017). For the period 2006-2017, regions real GDP per capita has increased to above 2 percent. Even proportional change in GDP per capita income has been above Turkey’s average for regions TRC, TRB, TR4 and TR1 (that is above 3 percent) compared to other regions and a lower increase has been realized for TR9. TR1 apparently has the highest GDP per capita (approximately one third of TR’s GDP per capita) income, whereas regions above the intra-regional mean of GDP per capita income are TR2, TR3, TR4, TR5, TR6 and the others are below the intra-regional mean of GDP per capita income; TRA with lowest GDP per capita mean.

Primarily when the total mean income of regions for the period of 2006-2017 is examined, heterogeneity of the regions becomes apparent. Additionally, diversification of mean income levels for the regions is more explicit compared with GDP per capita levels. Apparently, total mean income has doubled for all regions during that period (only for TRC it is 3 percent) and TR9 region has achieved the lowest proportional change in total mean income (this is relevant for proportional change in GDP per capita income).

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15 Palma premium for 2006-2017 is (0.46). For Povcal data period it is negative. Average D10+ target for Turkey is about 8 percent.
16 Due to limited space GDP per capita table has not been included.
Within this context, regions could be classified according to total mean values that are either above or below TR’s mean income level (see fig.4). When the average of the mean income levels are taken into account, it is found that, TR1 (highest mean income) and TRC (lowest mean income) regions indicate two opposite trends. TR5, TR3, TR2 and TR4 regions own higher average mean income levels than the intra-regional average. Besides, proximity of the average mean income level among TRA, TRB and TRC regions is more clear, having said that these regions own the lowest average mean income levels compared to others.

Given that, according to ‘between’ group analysis for total mean income, ranking in descending order, TRC, TR1, TRB, TR5, TR6, TR3 and TRA regions are found to have a higher contribution(above 0.5) to total mean income inequality in Turkey\(^{17}\). (Equation, 2, Figure 4.2).

Given these facts, considering intra-regional distribution for the Gini coefficient and the Palma ratio, no outlier figure has been detected. In addition to this, the skewness test for both metrics indicates normal distribution.\(^{18}\) However while inter-regional figures have been examined, varieties in skewness have been observed.\(^{19}\)

As can be seen from figure 5 and figure 6, the mean and range values taken by the Palma ratio over time reveal the existence of intra-regional heterogeneity. For the period of 2006-2017, Turkey’s mean of the Palma ratio is calculated as (1.92), while the intra-regional mean of the Palma ratio is (1.61). For the Gini coefficient, whilst the mean of Turkey is (0.40), the intra-regional mean for the Gini coefficient has a lower value (0.37). While TR6 region has the highest mean value (1.84) of the Palma ratio, TR2 region has the lowest mean value (1.42). This tendency is observed to be similar with mean values of the Gini coefficient. As seen in figure 6, for both the Palma ratio and the Gini coefficient, the regions that are above and below the intra-regional mean value are completely overlapping, indicating the same trend relevantly for both ratios.

\(^{17}\) For TR1(2.82), TR(0.001), TR3(0.68), TR4(0.44), TR5(0.85), TR6(0.733), TR7(0.37), TR8(0.45), TRA(0.58), TRB(1.32), TRC(3.43).

\(^{18}\) Based on graph box analysis on regional level within regions, TR1, TR3, TR4 and TR7 have outlier figure for Palma ratio but intra-regional values have no outliers. For Gini coefficient also, outlier figures has been observed for TR1, TR3, TR4, TR6, TR7, TRA regions.

\(^{19}\) Only for Palma ratio, TR1 TR3 and TR7 have kurtosis values above 4.
Accordingly, when the Palma ratio’s mean values are taken into consideration, it is possible to mention three main trends on NUTS-1 regional level (see fig 6.1 and 6.2). Regions could be divided into sub-groups (almost the same for the Gini coefficient’s mean value); a) regions relatively close to the TR mean and above the intra-regional mean value (1.61), TR6 (1.84), TRB (1.80), TRA (1.76). b) regions above and proportionally closer to the intra-regional mean, TRC (1.73), TR5 (1.73), TR1 (1.72), TR3 (1.67) c) regions below the intra-regional mean value, TR9 (1.35), TR2 (1.41), TR4 (1.43) TR8 (1.43) TR7 (1.44).

As a result of chart outlying mean values (fig. 6) and Mahalanobis distance calculation (Eq.1, fig. 7), overlapping trends between the Palma ratio and the Gini coefficient is clearly observed. Beyond that, the regions away from TR are found to be the regions where the Palma ratio is lower, while the regions close to TR are found to be the regions where this ratio is higher. Furthermore as seen in figure 7, regions that are closer to TR’s values also contribute more to the total mean income inequality (see figure 5) and their Palma ratio mean is found to be above the intra-regional mean.

20 For this case I prefer to include TR values as well to make a comparison, when TR values is omitted ranking of NUTS-1 regions do not change. Just red lines (intra-regional mean) level changes.
Given the mean, range, standard deviation and coefficient of variance values for the Palma ratio, changes in TRC and TR2 region is found to be more stationary while TRA and TR1 regions indicate a higher level of volatility compared with other regions. Arranging the mean of standard deviation of regions also indicates an overlapping tendency with the Palma ratio and the Gini coefficient, whereas TRA and TR1 are the regions with the highest standard deviation for both metrics, and regions with the lowest standard deviation (TRC, TR2) for the Palma ratio also have a lower standard deviation.

When proportional change with respect to mean income and GDP per capita income is considered, the Palma ratio is found to be more sensitive compared to the Gini coefficient for NUTS-1 level as well. For the TR1 and TR2 regions, proportional change for both metrics is found to be positive, which is different from other regions.

21 See Appendix.
and TR. Additionally, sensitivity to changes in the Palma ratio, with respect to total mean income, reaches its highest value in TR1 and TR2. The negative trend with highest sensitivity compared to other regions is relevant for TR3. As a result it could be suggested that the increasing trend in GDP per capita and total mean income became a determinant in TR1 and TR2 regions and the opposite for TR3. This could be interpreted as amendatory. Hence, the Palma premium for TR1 and TR2 is found to be negative\(^{22}\) (different from other regions) and the highest Palma premium ratio belongs to TR3 region.\(^{23}\)

Briefly, the overlapping trend of the Palma ratio with respect to the Gini coefficient is found to be strong, meanwhile, regions with a higher Palma ratio are found to contribute to total inequality more. Regarding the evaluation of both of the metric’s estimations, outliers could be interrupted; so, for a deeper analysis of income inequality, concentration, centripetal and centrifugal forces will be investigated.

### 5.1 Centripetal and Centrifugal forces on NUTS-1 level

For the period 2006-2017, dispersion of the Palma ratio components and the middle-income deciles reveals a more complex picture in terms of inter and intra regional income inequality. Regarding this complex picture this chapter aims to clarify the basic facts with regards to the trend of dispersion in income groups and aims to set up linkages with trends of change in the Palma ratio and the Gini coefficient. Primarily, for all three income groups, on an intra-regional level, the existence of outlier figures are insignificant. Although on an inter-regional level, outliers for all income groups exist but only a few, so descriptive statistics would be utilized.

As seen in figure 10 (see appendix), the mean values for the centrifugal forces vary differently from TR’s mean values. Although the mean values for the centripetal forces indicate a more homogenous income distribution. Remarkably, due to the distribution of the centrifugal and centripetal forces “two separate segments” exist. The Mahalanobis distance calculations for income groups percentage shares also confirm this suggestion (see fig. 9, Eq.1). The proximity and homogeneity of the regions on the basis of D5-D9 share of TR’s is evident, although the values for the centrifugal deciles indicate a more diversified structure. Even for the bottom deciles, dispersion seems to be more diversified according to TR’s.

![Figure 9: Mahalanobis Distance for Income Deciles NUTS-1 level(\% shares,2006-2014)](image)

When the intra-regional mean values of the D1-D4 and the D10 income deciles are taken into consideration, it is seen that the regions below the intra-regional mean and the regions remaining above are displaced, but there is no one-to-one overlap. The intra-regional mean value for D10 is calculated to be below TR’s mean, while D1-D4 regional mean value is found to be above TR’s mean.

\(^{22}\) Palma premium; TR1(-1.17), TR2(-0.45)

\(^{23}\) Palma premium; TR3(1.04)/TR4(0.75)/TR5(0.69)/TR6(0.80)/TR7(0.094)/TR8(0.69)/TR9(0.78)/TRA(1.04)/TRB(0.69)/TRB(0.81)/TRC(0.81)
For D10, TR6(31.34) has the closest mean to TR, while the lowest mean value belongs to TR9 (26.79). The TR9 region with the lowest Palma ratio also has the lowest mean value for D10 and the highest mean value for D1-D4 (17.10). The regions with the lowest D10 mean are found to be the regions with the lowest Palma ratio and Gini coefficient mean. Adding that region (TR6), with the highest mean values of D10 has also the highest mean value for the Palma ratio.

In addition, considering the regional mean values of the Gini coefficient, the regions with the highest D10 are also found to be the regions with the highest Gini coefficient and Palma ratio. For regions other than TR1, it is possible to generalize that the Palma ratio is lower for the regions with the highest D1-D4 mean. In this context, the TR1 region stands at a more distinct point than other regions.

On the other hand, both on an interregional level, the correlation between the Palma ratio and D10 is higher (positive) than the correlation between the Palma ratio and D1-D4 (negative) for all regions (except TR3 and TRC). Similarity between the regional mean levels and the correlation coefficient results indicate a strong relationship between the Palma ratio and the D10 and even between the Gini coefficient and D10 deciles. The difference in the correlation coefficient for TR6 and TRC regions (as stated above) is mainly related to the correlation between the D10 and D1-D4 figures that stay out of the %95 confidence interval. In addition, the D5-D9 correlation with both metrics is found to be weaker (negative) than others income groups.

High range values for the three income deciles which are also higher than the TR’s range values indicate intra-regional inequalities. In particular, the D10 range value (13.72) is noticeable, while the middle deciles range value is (9.2) and the bottom deciles range value is calculated as (6.87). However, the ranking of the standard deviation and the coefficient of variation according to inter-regional income deciles, confirms relative instability of D10. The Higher standard deviation and coefficient of variation values of D10 within regions also indicates inter-regional inequalities.

The mapping of standard deviation for regions it could be suggested that regions with higher and lower standard deviation for the D10 income group also have higher and lower standard deviations for the Palma ratio and the Gini coefficient. Furthermore, considering the standard deviation ranking of regions overlapping with the Palma ratio and the Gini coefficients is apparent. The highest standard deviation of the D10 income deciles belongs to the TRA (2.41) and TR1 (2.40) regions, while the lowest standard deviation is calculated as the TRC (0.92) region.

The regions with the highest standard deviation for D1-D4 are TRA (1.37), and with the lowest standard deviation is TR6 (0.71), although lower standard deviation for bottom deciles indicates lower standard deviation values for both metrics, in this case the overlapping trend is as apparent as D10 income groups.

Another fact about dispersion in income groups is related to the standard deviation of middle income groups, where it is found to be higher than the standard deviation of the bottom deciles. TR1 has the highest (1.5) value.
of standard deviation for middle deciles whereas TR3 has the lowest (0.51). Briefly arranging standard deviation of middle deciles indicates another path different from the bottom and top income deciles.

When change with respect to mean income is investigated, the overall trend is found to be similar with TR’s especially with TR1 and TR2 as mentioned in the previous section. This is due to the highest proportional change in mean income of the region’s D10 deciles and contrary for lower values for D1-D4 and middle deciles. As an overall result, proportional change in the middle income groups mean with respect to total mean income is almost overlapping. Although, it is observed that proportional change in the bottom deciles has been higher in other regions compared to other income groups. Considering proportional change with GDP per capita and the percentage share of income groups, proportional change in share of D1-D4 is found to be more sensitive to changes in GDP per capita income, whereas a mirror image relation among D10 and D1-D4 has been observed. Another striking result is about proportional change in the middle income percentage share that is found to be least sensitive to changes, except from TR1 and TR2.

Under these given circumstances, regions with a higher Palma ratio and D10 mean income are found to be the regions that have a higher contribution to ‘between’ regional inequalities, indicating the deterministic process in explaining concentration of income inequality (Eq.2). Especially, the contribution to ‘between’ group inequality in the case of D10 has been higher for TR1 and TRC regions and also higher in the case of D1-D4 income groups. While regions with the lowest contribution to total inequality also have the lowest contribution to between group inequality by means of D10 (respectively TR2, TR9, TR4). In this case apart from TR4, TR2 and TR9 regions are found to have less contribution to between group inequality by means of D1-D4 income groups.

Apart from these, it should be underlined that (as it is seen from figure 11) regional income inequality exists not only of differences in total income but differences in ‘within’ group inequality. Regarding ‘within’ group inequality values (Eq.3), once more D10 is found to contribute more to inequality whereas the D1-D4 share has the lowest contribution for each region. Jointly, regions with the lowest total ‘within’ values (TR2, TR9, TRA) are found to have relatively lower ‘within’ values for D10. TR1, TR3, TR5, TR6 and TRC regions could be classified among the regions with the highest ‘within’ inequality values. Adding to that, these regions have a higher mean of the Gini coefficient and the Palma ratio, with D10 with a lower share of bottom deciles.

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24 For D10 TR1(0.028), TRC(0.035) and for D1-D4 TR1(0.015) and TRC(0.12).
25 For D10 TR2(0.002), TR4 (0.0001) TR9(0.003) and for D1-D4 TR2(0.0013) TR4(0.0051) TR9(0.007).
26 For maximum values: TR1; D10(0.2), D1-D4(0.05), D5-D9(0.17), Totalwithin(0.44), TR3 ;D10(0.148), D1-D4(0.035), D5-D9(0.128), Totalwithin(0.31), TR6; D10(0.16), D1-D4(0.035), D5-D9(0.13), Totalwithin(0.33) TRC; D10(0.12), D1-D4(0.028), D5-D9(0.10), Totalwithin(0.25).

For minimum values; TR9; D10(0.031), D1-D4(0.009), D5-D9(0.03), Totalwithin(0.07), TR2; D10(0.04), D1-D4(0.01), D5-D9(0.040), Totalwithin(0.09).
6. Conclusion

Within the context of this paper, the primary importance of income deciles rather than the Gini coefficient has been challenged and it aims to contribute to the demonstration of concentration of income inequality in the case of Turkey.

Basic findings of this paper confirm a consistency of axioms of the Palma ratio in the case of Turkey while deeper analysis of income deciles provide important clues on the dimension of asymmetries in income distribution, both at a national and regional level. Summing up the robustness of the Palma ratio is evaluated and it could be underlined that apart from an overlapping trend between the Palma ratio and the Gini coefficient, D10 income deciles and the Gini coefficient has a strong correlation that determines the concentration of income inequality. Even the robustness of the substitution effect of D10 deciles against D1–D4 deciles has been outlined. Although the relative stability of middle deciles has been confirmed, for the post 2001 period of Turkey, shifts in middle income deciles and the variation in overall change in middle deciles could not be ignored. Evidently these facts could be analyzed together with the dynamics of growth regime and the determinants of the income distribution structure of Turkey, both on a national and regional level that has not been investigated within the framework of this paper.

Besides, regarding regional disparities more diversified results could be realized. Asymmetries in income inequalities could be tracked by features of the Palma ratio on a regional level as well. Hence, regions that contribute more to income inequality have got strong links with changes in centrifugal forces. As it is pointed out, these regions also have characteristics of being “outliers” by means of dispersion in income deciles (TR1, TR3, TR6, TRA, TRB and TRC). Besides TR9 and TR2 regions are found to have a more equal distribution compared to the other regions. Given that the concentration of income inequality level could be outlined by the Palma ratio components.

These given results highlight inverse mirror images of inequalities; poorness and richness between and within regions could be evaluated more plainly. Additionally, when proportional change in GDP per capita has been included in the analysis it is seen that regions with a higher proportional increase in GDP per capita are also the regions with a higher income inequality concentration.

Another specific estimation of this paper is that TR1 regions have got outlier characteristics even different from others. It could be suggested that richness and poverty dynamics and even middle income groups for TR1 distinctly differ from others.

So, the possibility of exploring dimensions of hidden inequality could not be asserted by the Gini coefficient, the main task of the paper leads us to outline the income deciles of Turkey (and regions), hence, by following the path of the Palma ratio’s features, dispersion in richness and poorness has been challenged. Furthermore, it could be suggested that by eliminating inequalities evidence on income deciles, it could be used as part of policy targeting on distribution and redistribution policies.

References:


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Appendix:

Table 1: Descriptive Statistics for Turkey (Turkstat, 2006-2017)

<table>
<thead>
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<th>Stats</th>
<th>Gini</th>
<th>Palma</th>
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Table 2: Statistics for Turkey (Povcal data, 2002-2016)

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Table 3: Descriptive Statistics Intra-regional NUTS-1 Level (Turkstat, 2006-2017)

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Table 4: Maximum and Minimum Values for Descriptive Statistics on NUTS-1 Level (Turkstat, 2006-2017)

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