

# Apples to Oranges: Imputing Household Income Using Survey Data

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## Abstract

Accurate and consistent estimation of household income is a crucial aspect of socioeconomic research, policy formulation, and decision-making. However, survey data often suffer from missing or incomplete income information, posing challenges to the validity and reliability of derived conclusions. Typically, researchers resort to Small Area Estimations (SAE) to impute household income (HHI) from survey to survey. SAE can be broadly divided into two groups: 1) Model-based approaches, and 2) Design-based approaches. In this paper, we propose combining both methods, resorting to Machine Learning Algorithms for the model-based part and correcting our estimates through empirical estimates of the survey containing information on household income. We show our results by doing 2 exercises: imputing HHI from the ENIGH 2016 into the ENIGH 2018 and then the other way around. We test the robustness of our procedure by looking at performance in different scenarios. Our method can reproduce inequality measures very similar to the empirical ones and approximate empirical distributions even when these are highly uneven.

**JEL classification:** C40, C53, D63.

**Keywords:** Machine Learning, Small Area Estimation, Mexico.

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# Introduction

A key challenge to distributional analyses in developing countries is that information on income or consumption is either completely unavailable or not present in surveys that include other relevant variables for such analyses, such as the conditions of origin of the respondent. In the first case, that of the complete lack of information about income or consumption, alternatives such as household asset indexes have been developed to fill that gap (Filmer & Pritchett, 2001; Filmer & Scott, 2012; Poirier et al., 2020). For the second case, several imputation methods have been developed to use auxiliary information to reconstruct the distribution of income or consumption implicit in surveys that lack information about such variables (Dang, 2021).

Our contribution is to this second branch of the literature. We provide an alternative survey-to-survey method that, combining statistical modelling with survey design-based bias estimations, allows us to reconstruct the distribution of income present in a survey dedicated to recovering that type of information using information available in a survey with detailed socio-demographic information about the same population.

Among the imputation methods that have been developed, a substantial part of the literature has focused on developing regression-based imputation methods, known as small area estimations (SAE). These methods have their origin in the seminal contribution by (Elbers et al., 2003). SAE combines survey data with auxiliary information, such as census or administrative records, to generate more precise estimates for small geographic areas or subpopulations.

SAE methods can be broadly categorised into two groups (Corral et al., 2022):

1. **Design-based methods** rely on the sampling design and survey weights to produce direct or indirect estimates for small areas without making assumptions about the underlying population distribution (Lehtonen & Veijanen, 2009; Pfeffermann, 2013).
2. **Model-based methods** assume a statistical model that relates the variable of interest to auxiliary variables and accounts for the random variation between and within small areas. A commonly used approach is the Random Effects Linear Model (Elbers et al.,

2003; Pfeffermann, 2013).

The applications of SAE methods, especially model-based ones, have been driven by the increasing demand for more detailed and timely information for countries where we lack precise income or consumption data. As new data sources and computational tools arise, SAE methods have been applied to a wider range of domains and contexts, including the evolution of poverty in India (Sinha Roy & van der Weide, 2023), health (Viljanen et al., 2022), wealth (Suss et al., 2023), digital inequalities (Singleton et al., 2020) and poverty mapping (Corral et al., 2022). From a methodological aspect, researchers are looking into incorporating bootstrap estimation (Rodas et al., 2021) and machine learning to enhance the estimation process in model-based settings (Corral et al., 2022; Singleton et al., 2020; Viljanen et al., 2022).

When looking at model-based estimations Newhouse et al. (2014) show that three key assumptions have to be met for the imputations to be reliable: *i*) The two surveys have the same set of questions that explain HHI. *ii*) The functional form, specifically the coefficients, must be stable and consistent across surveys (or over time). *iii*) The auxiliary variables are sufficiently correlated with HHI. According to Newhouse's findings, a consistent downward bias emerges in estimating poverty measures when employing the traditional Small Area Estimation (SAE) approach when any of the three assumptions is not met.

Building upon this, we assert that *i* and *ii* require strong adherence for imputations to yield reliable estimates. However, *iii* can be met with a lower threshold, supplemented by design-based estimations. Even if assumption *iii* is weakly met, incorporating design-based estimations can enhance the robustness of model-based imputations, ensuring reliability in estimating HHI and related measures. This nuanced approach addresses the challenges posed by imperfect correlation between auxiliary variables and our variable of interest, strengthening the validity of survey-to-survey imputations.

In Mexico, two surveys are suitable for this study. The ESRU EMOVI Survey for Social Mobility, conducted every five years by the Centre for Studies Espinosa Yglesias (CEEY), captures information on parental background. However, it falls short in providing a measure of household income or consumption, making it challenging to analyse social mobility and inequality of opportunity in economic well-being. On the other hand, the National Survey

on Household Income and Spending (ENIGH), conducted every two years by the National Institute for Geography and Information (INEGI), offers valuable income and consumption data but lacks information on parental background.

To address this gap, Vélez-Grajales et al. (2019) employed the Small Area Estimation approach proposed by Elbers et al. (2003). They imputed household income from the ENIGH 2010 into the EMOVI 2011. Notably, their findings revealed a Gini coefficient 10 basis points below the estimated Gini for Mexico in 2010 when using the ENIGH 2010, aligning with the downward estimation bias observed by Newhouse et al. (2014).

We impute HHI from ENIGH 2016 into ENIGH 2018 and vice versa to test the validity of the three assumptions. we confirm that assumptions *i* and *ii* are met. However, a relatively modest correlation between auxiliary variables and HHI results in a 10-point reduction in the Gini coefficient, in line with the imputation in Vélez-Grajales et al. (2019) and the results of Newhouse et al. (2014).

To enhance the imputation process, we propose correcting the model-based estimations with a design-based approach. Our procedure integrates statistical modelling through machine learning (model-based) while adjusting estimations using parameters from the original survey (design-based). Our results demonstrate a notable improvement in the estimation of inequality measures compared to those presented by Vélez-Grajales et al. (2019).

We impute HHI on the EMOVI 2017 and compare estimations of Inequality of Opportunity using our imputed measure and an asset index. Both measures of economic well-being show a positive correlation of 0.4. Nevertheless, our estimation yields a Gini coefficient of 0.481, close to the 0.472 observed in the ENIGH 2016, showing a finer imputation than that of Vélez-Grajales et al. (2019). in contrast, our asset index shows a value of 0.175. Using the parametric approach, we find a more than 10 percentage points difference when estimating relative IOp. Thus underlyning the importance of accurately imputing HHI.

The remaining of the project is structured as follows: Section 1 presents the framework form where we build our imputation approach; Section 2 discusses the data and transformations that are done; Section 3 present our main findings followed by robustness checks in Section 4; Section 5 presents an illustration using the EMOVI 2017; Finally Section 6 cocnludes.

# 1 Methods

To impute household income from one survey to the other, our task is to approximate HHI through a model of the form:

$$y_h = f(X_h) + \varepsilon_h \quad (1)$$

where  $y$  represents per capita HHI for household  $h$  explained through a functional form  $f$  of some covariates  $X$  that have predictive power over HHI and are specific for each household. Traditionally, following the model proposed by Elbers et al. (2003) we estimate

$$\log y_{hc} = \alpha + X_{hc}\beta + \eta_c + \varepsilon_{hc} \quad (2)$$

where  $c$  denotes the cluster or area to which household  $h$  belongs.<sup>1</sup>  $X$  denotes a matrix of observable auxiliary variables common to both surveys.  $\beta$  represents a vector of coefficients, indicating the direction and marginal contribution of each observable variable in the household income estimation.  $\eta$  signifies the random effect term, capturing unobserved or constant characteristics specific to each location or region that may be related to our error term.  $\varepsilon$  represents the error term, accounting for the random variability or unexplained factors affecting household income, which the model does not capture.

It is essential to acknowledge that we lose information during the process. The variance of the predicted values will typically be less than the variance of the true values due to the inherent uncertainty and imprecision introduced during the prediction process:

$$Var(\hat{y}) < Var(y) \quad (3)$$

where the reduction in variance during the prediction process can be attributed to three primary factors (Corral et al., 2022):

1. Observable Factors  $f(X_{hc})$ : These are measurable and known factors contributing to the variation in household income, such as the assumed relation and interactions

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<sup>1</sup>Note that clusters or areas are not necessarily geographic areas. These can also represent population subgroups.

between variables.

2. Unobservable Factors  $\varepsilon_{hc}$ : These are unmeasured factors that influence household income but are not directly captured in the data. They represent the random variability or error in the prediction model and are assumed to be normally distributed around 0.
3. Location Specific Factors  $\eta_c$ : This factor arises due to the concentration of income, wealth or consumption in specific geographic areas. It could result from the location of industries, job opportunities, or other regional economic factors.

Note that  $\beta$  is not intended to capture the effect of  $x$  over  $y$  but rather to approximate (or predict)  $y$  as closely as possible through the observable factors.<sup>2</sup> When estimating income or consumption, it is advisable to include variables closely related to these, such as dummies that denote if a household bought a certain good or service (Elbers et al., 2003; Sinha Roy & van der Weide, 2023) which will decrease the loss of variance due to the observed factors. However, these variables may not always be available, as for the two surveys in Mexico. This translates to a greater loss in variance due to unobserved factors. Another possible source of bias in our imputation may arise from the fact that the model proposed in Elbers et al. (2003) is the empirical best linear unbiased predictor (EBLUP) for the logarithm of HHI but not for actual HHI. When assessing poverty or inequality measures, we look at the untransformed value of HHI, which may introduce some bias (note that although we may introduce some bias, this would still produce the EBLP (Pfeffermann, 2013)).

To overcome this, we propose a comprehensive method to impute data from one survey (source) to another (target) by leveraging a statistical model and employing adjustment ratios. Our imputation process involves the following steps:<sup>3</sup>

1. **Training the model:** We train a statistical model over the source survey to approximate Equation 1. For our source survey, we use a 5-fold cross-validation procedure

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<sup>2</sup>One could then opt for more flexible algorithms to approximate HHI such as Random Forest or a Lasso regression as shown in Appendix A.

<sup>3</sup>Here we describe the general process of the methodology, specifics of the model and data used are discussed in a latter section of the paper.

to evaluate the out-of-sample prediction. We assess accuracy using the  $R^2$  metric to ensure we lose the least variance possible.<sup>4</sup>

We showcase our methodology using a linear regression and following the model in Elbers et al. (2003). However, the goal in this setting is not to interpret the direct effect of the covariates  $x$  over  $y$  but rather to approximate  $f(X)$  as closely as possible. This allows for the use of any regression-based algorithm, such as linear regression, a penalised version of this, random forest, support vector machines, etc. We show the results of an XGBoost regressor and the ones from a K-Nearest-Neighbour regression in Appendix A.

2. **Evaluating the model:** We evaluate the performance of our model by looking at how closely our approximations are to the original data in the source survey. As we estimate  $y$  using its logarithm, we re-scale our variable and compute two types of bias. For each cluster or area  $c$ , we estimate how far our estimations are getting in what we call the between-cluster ratio

$$BC_{ratio} = \frac{\mu_c}{\hat{\mu}_c} \quad (4)$$

that quantifies how much our model over or underestimates the true value on average for each cluster.

Within each cluster, we sort individuals into percentile ranks and estimate how far off our predictions are within each rank  $r$  of a specific cluster, estimating what we call the within-cluster ratio

$$WC_{ratio} = \frac{\mu_c^r}{\hat{\mu}_c^r} \quad (5)$$

that measures how much our model over or underestimates the target variable on average for each rank within each cluster.

In contrast to Elbers et al. (2003), Newhouse et al. (2014), and Sinha Roy and van der Weide (2023), we choose our clusters depending on the representativeness of our two surveys. We do this to assume that the cluster mean and variance are the true values, which is essential for design-based methods as discussed in Pfeffermann (2013). Since

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<sup>4</sup>This procedure can be extended to using any metric such as MSE or RMSE.

the ENIGH is representative at the state level, we define our clusters at the state level. The distribution of the ratios can be found in Appendix B.

3. **Predicting over the target:** We then apply our trained model to predict HHI on the target survey using the same set of covariates used for the training procedure. We rank individuals within each cluster based on their predicted outcomes.

Our setting allows us to see how far off our estimations are on completely unseen data because the prediction is made over a labelled set. Hence, we have a measure of how far off our original predictions are outside of the training sample.

4. **Adjusting predictions:** Finally, we adjust our prediction on the target survey using the bias ratios computed in step 2. We employ a weighted average of both ratios.

$$AR = \alpha BC_{ratio} + (1 - \alpha) WC_{ratio} \quad (6)$$

our final prediction is thus  $\exp(\hat{y}_h) * AR$ . Since our test data set is labelled, we are able to compute if our corrections are properly adjusting the data outside of the training sample.

The weight  $\alpha$  is chosen to minimise the MSE and deviation of our preferred inequality or poverty measure on the source survey (Pfeffermann, 2013).<sup>5</sup> We use a cross-validation procedure over the source survey and select  $\alpha$  at one standard deviation from the one that minimises both MSE and our measure to avoid overfitting (Chen & Yang, 2021; Hastie et al., 2009).

The  $\alpha$  that minimises MSE and deviations from the Gini coefficient is set at 0.41 for the forward imputation. In the backward imputation process, it is set to 0.42.

We opt for the weighted mean of both ratios as a better solution because it balances out some of the advantages and disadvantages of each ratio. The between-cluster ratio corrects for the difference in the mean of the target variable between each cluster in the prediction. Suppose the prediction has a higher mean than the original survey for a certain cluster. In

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<sup>5</sup>We focus on the Gini coefficient in this example, but the procedure can be extended to any other accuracy and inequality/poverty measure.

that case, the cluster adjustment ratio will be less than one, reducing the predictions for that cluster in the second survey.

However, the between-cluster adjustment does not correct for the difference in the shape or the variance of the distribution of the target variable within each cluster. The within-cluster ratio adjusts for the difference in the value of the target variable between each rank within each cluster in the prediction and the source survey. Suppose the prediction has a higher value than the second survey for a certain rank within a certain cluster. In that case, the rank adjustment ratio will be less than one, reducing the prediction for that rank in that cluster.

However, the within-cluster adjustment does not account for individuals that are miss-classified in a different rank than where they should originally be; thus, any systematic biases introduced by the model will be exacerbated, overestimating our inequality measure. The mean of the two adjustment ratios is a compromise between these two methods. It corrects for the difference in the mean and the distribution of the target variable between each cluster. However, it does not match the mean of either cluster or rank.

Following Elbers et al. (2003), Newhouse et al. (2014), Pfeffermann (2013), and Sinha Roy and van der Weide (2023), we assume that the set of covariates shared across surveys is the same and is measuring the same concept. Second, we assume there is stability between surveys, meaning that  $f(X)$  holds between the two surveys. In contrast, we only assume that  $X$  correlates with  $y$ , but it does not have to be strong. Additionally, we assume that both surveys represent the same population at least at a similar cluster level.<sup>6</sup> In our setting, assumptions *i*, *ii* and *iv* are necessary to ensure that the adjustment ratios will yield reliable predictions. Assumption *iii* can be met loosely and enhanced using the estimated parameters of the source survey.

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<sup>6</sup>When this does not hold, Sinha Roy and van der Weide (2023) propose a re-weighting procedure to ensure representability, this is out of the scope of this paper.

## 2 Data & Setting

To exemplify our methodology, we take advantage of the periodicity of the National Survey on Household Income and Spending (ENIGH), which is conducted every two years by the National Institute for Statistics Geography and Information (INEGI). We impute HHI from the ENIGH 2016 into the ENIGH 2018 and vice versa. This setting allows us to examine the performance of our methodology in an environment over which the model was not trained.

Furthermore, we acknowledge that both ENIGHs are constructed under a similar sampling design, and the results may be data-driven. As a robustness check, we carefully subset the ENIGH under different scenarios. By predicting this subset of the ENIGH, we ensure that our methodology extends beyond a similar sampling design.

### 2.1 Data

The ENIGH is a national survey representative of men and women at the national and state levels for urban and rural areas. It collects information about the composition, income and spending at the household level. It is conducted biennially, and comparability between waves from 2016 onwards is ensured.

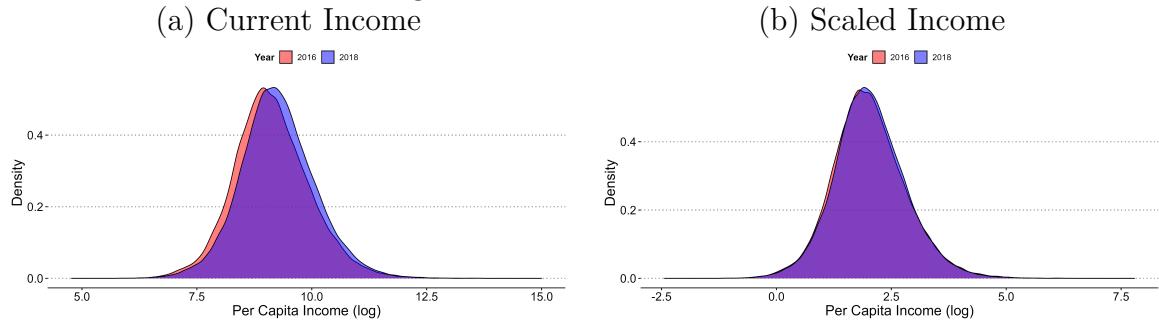
We focus on disposable income at the household level and divide it by the number of individuals in the household to measure per-capita household income. We account for economic growth and inflation by re-scaling household income by the poverty line in July each year, as published by [COVENAL](#). We use variables present in ENIGH 2016, ENIGH 2018 and EMOVI 2017 as covariates to ensure that assumption  $i$  holds. Specifically, we use household assets, composition, social security status, household head characteristics, and regional variables. Appendix ?? contains a comprehensive list of variables.

Table 1 shows some summary statistics of the three surveys.

### 2.2 Setting

We test to see if assumption  $i$  holds by accounting for different scenarios as done by Newhouse et al. (2014). These are summarised in Table 2. We do the exercise of imputing forwards

Figure 1: Distribution of HHI



*Notes:* The Figure shows the densities of the log of HHI for both ENIGH 2016 and 2018. HHI is rescaled by the poverty line and divided by the number of individuals in a household to represent real per capita terms.

Table 1: Summary Statistics

	ENIGH 2016	ENIGH 2018	EMOVI 2017
HHI	13,555.53	15,283.84	-
HHI*	10.85	10.90	-
log HHI*	2.02	2.04	-
PL Urban	1,348.81	1,521.44	1,471.60
PL Rural	1,015.44	1,145.50	1,120.08

*Notes:* The Table shows the HHI mean, its log, and the rural and urban poverty lines used in each survey. HHI represents per capita household income. \* Denotes HHI rescaled by the poverty line to represent real per capita terms.

(from 2016 to 2018) and backwards (from 2018 to 2016).

Table 2: Imputation Scenarios

	Source	Target
Forward	ENIGH 2016	ENIGH 2018
Backward	ENIGH 2018	ENIGH 2016

*Notes:* The Table shows the scenarios we account for.

In each scenario, we train our model over 80% of the source survey and validate its result using the remaining 20%. We estimate our adjustment ratios over the whole sample of the source survey using the bootstrap procedure. Once this is done, we test how well our methodology is doing by looking at the imputation in the target survey.

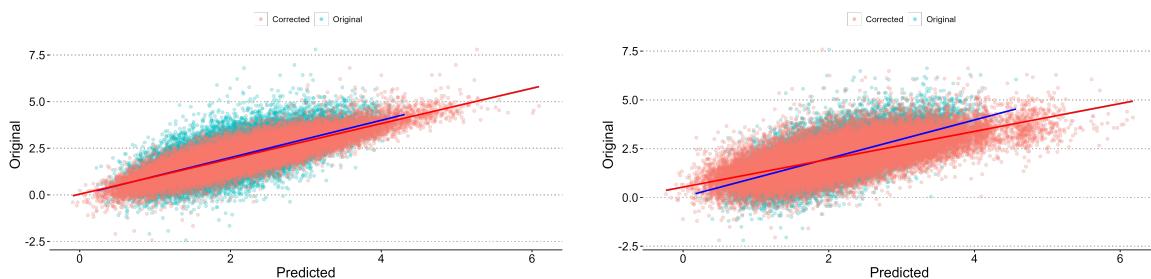
### 3 Results

We test our methodology by applying it to the ENIGH 2016 and 2018. We first present results for the forward imputation, training a model over the ENIGH 2016 and imputing on the ENIGH 2018. We then present the results for the backward imputation. All results in this section are estimated using linear regression as proposed in Elbers et al. (2003). The results for more flexible algorithms can be found in the Appendix of this paper.

### 3.1 Forward Imputation

In the forward imputation setting, we employ the ENIGH 2016 as our source survey and the ENIGH 2018 as the target survey. Over the source survey, our original model exhibits an  $R^2$  of 0.50, which reflects a modest correlation between the predicted and observed values. Our correction procedure increases  $R^2$  to 0.71, a substantial increase. The two can be compared in panel (a) of Figure 2. Appendix D shows the distribution of the error terms, reflecting that our original prediction and the correction respect the normality of the error distribution that is assumed in Equation 2.

Figure 2: Correlation Between Predicted and Original Values  
 (a) Source-2016 (b) Target-2018



*Notes:* The Figure shows the correlation of the predicted and observed values for the source survey (2016) and the target survey (2018) in panels (a) and (b), respectively. The values are shown in logarithms.

Regarding the target survey, the ENIGH 2018 exhibits a Gini coefficient of 0.464 when considering HHI. With respect to the correlation between the predicted and original values, we find a similar pattern as for the source survey; our correction process improves upon the correlation in the corrections. However, the improvement is milder, which is expected since

the model was trained over the source survey, as seen in panel (b) of Figure 2. The results of our predictions over the target survey and the corresponding corrections are summarised in Table 3. Our original prediction is 12.2 gini points below the real one, consistent with Newhouse et al. (2014) findings.

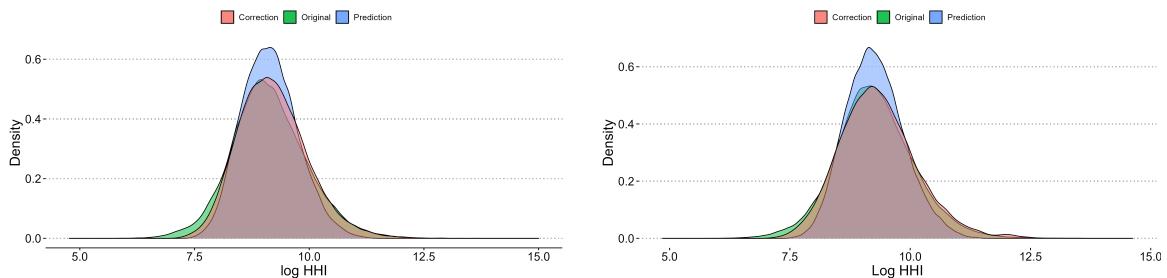
Table 3: Forward Imputation Results

	Gini	RMSE
ENIGH 2018	0.464	
Original Prediction	0.342	19,945
Between Clusters	0.344	19,624
Within Clusters	0.556	30,736
Weighted Average	0.472	23,923

*Notes:* The Table shows the results of the forward imputation. It shows what each adjustment ratio implies for the Gini coefficient and the RMSE of the real values.

As expected, the  $BC_{ratio}$  improves the prediction by correcting for the mean of the clusters. However, the increase in the Gini coefficient is only marginal. The  $WC_{ratio}$  exacerbates the systematic errors of the model and increases the Gini to 0.556, overestimating the true coefficient. The weighted average yields a Gini of 0.472, closest to the true value. Furthermore, Figure 3 shows the distribution of the logarithm of HHI. The original prediction is highly concentrated around the mean. The correction improves and is closer to the observed distribution.

Figure 3: Distribution of Predicted and Original Values  
 (a) Source-2016 (b) Target-2018



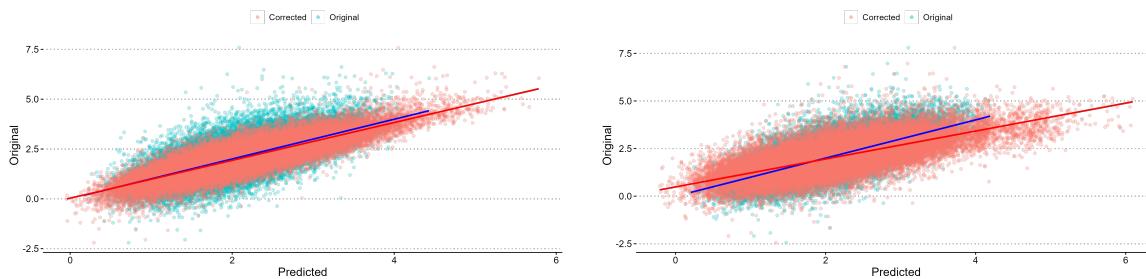
*Notes:* The Figure shows the distribution of HHI, the predicted and corrected values. Values are shown in the logarithm.

The similarity in the observed and corrected distributions suggests that the model is stable between 2016 and 2018; thus, assumption *ii* holds.

### 3.2 Backward Imputation

We impute HHI from the ENIGH 2018 to the ENIGH 2016 for the backwards imputation. The results are similar to the ones in the forward process. Over the source survey, our original model exhibits an  $R^2$  of 0.49, which reflects a modest correlation between the predicted and observed values. Our correction procedure increases  $R^2$  to 0.71, similar to what we observe in the forward process. The two can be compared in panel (a) of Figure 4.

Figure 4: Correlation Between Predicted and Original Values  
 (a) Source-2018 (b) Target-2016



*Notes:* The Figure shows the correlation of the predicted and observed values for the source survey (2018) and the target survey (2016) in panels (a) and (b), respectively. The values are shown in logarithms.

The results of our predictions over the target survey and the corresponding corrections are summarised in Table 4. The sample of the ENIGH 2016 has a Gini coefficient of 0.472. Our original prediction is 13.3 gini points below the real one.

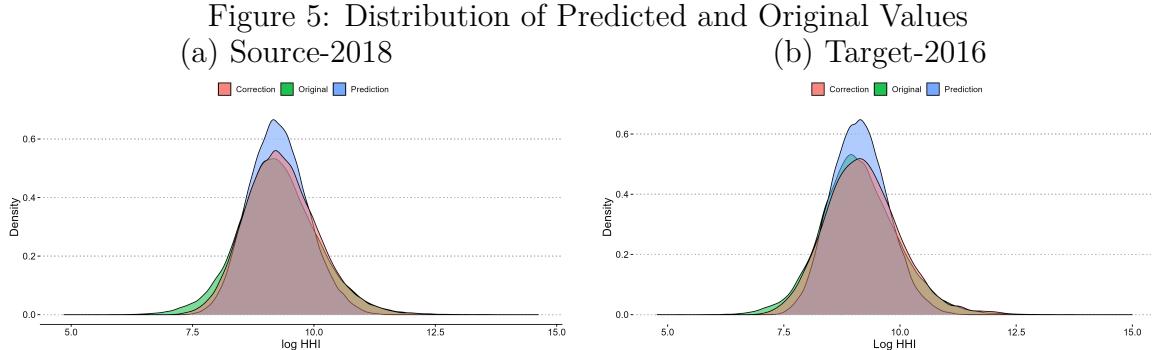
Table 4: Backward Imputation Results

	Gini	RMSE
ENIGH 2016	0.472	
Original Prediction	0.339	21,221
Between Clusters	0.342	20,929
Within Clusters	0.553	29,172
Weighted Average	0.469	23,786

*Notes:* The Table shows the results of the forward imputation. It shows what each adjustment ratio implies for the Gini coefficient and the RMSE of the real values.

The weighted average yields a Gini of 0.467, closest to the true value. Furthermore, Figure 5 shows the distribution of the logarithm of HHI. As in the forward prediction, the

original prediction shows a higher concentration around the mean. The correction improves and is closer to the observed distribution.



*Notes:* The Figure shows the distribution of HHI, the predicted and corrected values. Values are shown in the logarithm.

Looking closer at Tables 3 and 4, we see that our imputation matches the crossed Gini coefficient, meaning that the forward imputation correctly estimates the coefficient in the ENIGH 2016 and vice versa. We expect the distribution to match our source surveys in a context where we do not have data available. Additionally, Figure 5 shows that the stability of the model holds; however, stability seems to be stronger for the forward imputation process.

## 4 Robustness Checks

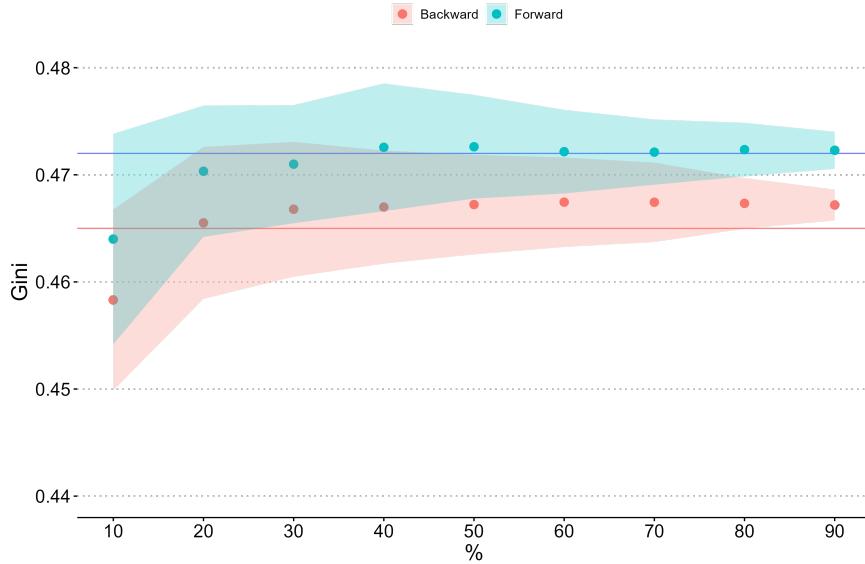
Since both ENIGHs are constructed under a similar sampling framework, we acknowledge that our results may be partially data-driven. We test our procedure by modifying our database to account for this fact.

We first account for sample size and impute over smaller sample sizes. We draw 100 bagged samples at each sample size. We randomly draw from the following specifications: *i*) Random sample, *ii*) higher probability of being drawn if an observation is at the bottom of the distribution, *iii*) higher probability of being drawn if an observation is at the top of the distribution, and *iv*) higher probability of being drawn if an observation is in the middle of the distribution.

By accounting for different specifications, we test if our framework can correctly impute

the Gini coefficient even when the sample is expected to be drawn from a different sampling procedure. Figure 6 shows the results.

Figure 6: Sample Size and Gini



*Notes:* The Figure shows the point estimate for the Gini at different sample sizes. The shadowed area represents the 95% confidence interval estimated using 100 bagged samples. The solid lines represent the expected value of the Gini.

Overall, the procedure is robust to different sample sizes and specifications. We see that the confidence interval gets smaller as the sample size increases, signalling a finer estimation. The estimation of the Gini is more precise when we do the forward imputation (from 2016 to 2018). For the backward imputation, we overestimate the true Gini. However, our estimations are less than 1 gini point apart from the true value. From the previous section, we know that we are approximating the Gini from the source survey; we take this value as our benchmark.

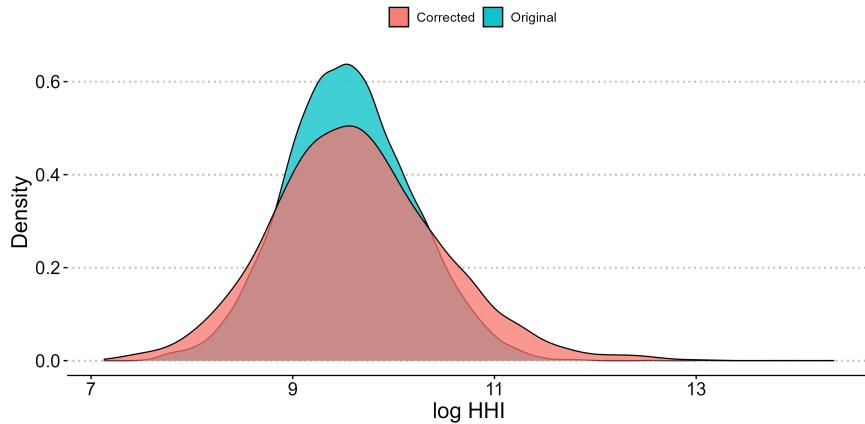
Following the discussion from the previous section, we find evidence for the stability of the model. This assumption holds even when changing the sample size and the distribution of the observations.

## 5 IOp in Mexico: Assets vs. Income

Finally, we apply our methodology to the EMOVI 2017 and compare our results to those using the assets index approach (Filmer & Pritchett, 2001; Filmer & Scott, 2012). The EMOVI 2017 is a national survey representative of men and women aged 25 to 64 at the national and regional level and for urban and rural areas. The regions are divided into 5 big regions: North (Baja California, Coahuila, Chihuahua, Monterrey, Sonora, Tamaulipas), North-West (Baja California Sur, Sinaloa, Zacatecas, Nayarit, Durango), Center-West (Aguascalientes, Colima, Jalisco, Michoacán, San Luis Potosí), South (Campeche, Chiapas, Guerrero, Oaxaca, Quintana Roo, Tabasco, Veracruz, Yucatán), Center (Guanajuato, Hidalgo, Mexico, Morelos, Puebla, Queretaro, Tlaxcala), and Mexico City.

Since the EMOVI is only representative at the regional level, we modify the aforementioned procedure and set the clusters at the regional level. This modification results in an  $\alpha$  of 0.43 and an  $R^2$  of 0.68. The distribution of our ratios can be found in Appendix B. We use the forward approach and impute from the ENIGH 2016 into the EMOVI 2017. The distribution of our imputed income measure can be found in Figure 7.

Figure 7: Density of Imputed Income



*Notes:* The Figure shows the distribution of the imputed HHI on the EMOVI 2017 survey.

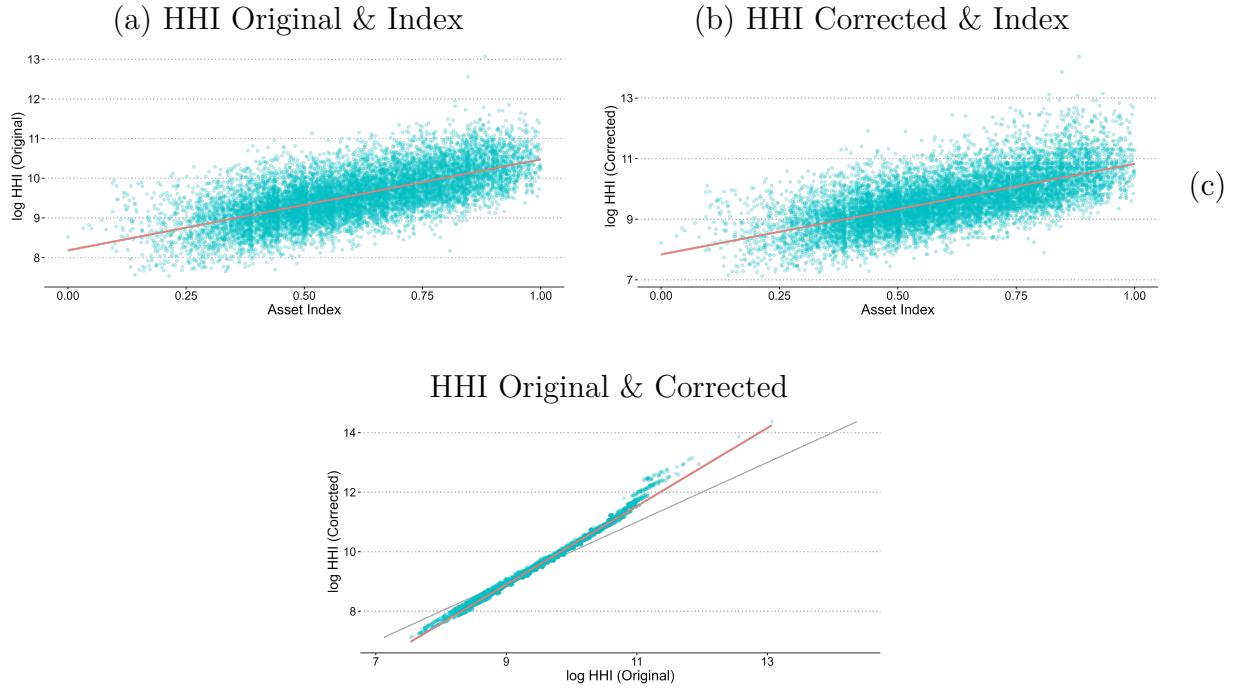
The original distribution is highly concentrated around the mean. This high concentration results in a Gini coefficient of 0.35, more than 10 pp below the expected value given the ENIGH 2016. After applying our correction, values have higher variance. This results in a Gini coefficient of 0.48, closer to the expected value.

## 5.1 Data

The survey collects information about the current household and that of the respondent when she was 14. The recollection of childhood information allows for intergenerational analysis. Respondents are asked about the education and occupation of their parents, as well as the availability of assets in both households.

Since no income data exists, researchers often approximate economic well-being through an asset index (eg. Delajara et al., 2022; Torche, 2015; Vélez-Grajales et al., 2019). The index is constructed separately for both households using Principal Component Analysis. We follow the same procedure. The specifics of the PCA can be found in Appendix E. Figure 8 shows the correlation between the asset index and our imputation of per capita HHI.

Figure 8: Correlation Between HHI and Asset Index



*Notes:* The Figure shows the correlation between our asset index and the imputed HHI value. HHI is presented in logarithmic scale. The asset index is normalised to take values between 0 and 1. In Panel (c), the grey line represents the  $45^\circ$  line.

We find a positive correlation between the imputed Household Income value and the PCA-built asset index, with coefficients of 0.55 (uncorrected) and 0.39 (corrected). Additionally, the two income measures exhibit a strong correlation of 0.92. The correlation of our asset index with both income measures is stronger in the middle part of the distribution. The

lower and upper tails seem to be less correlated. When comparing them to the index, we find a similar pattern for our income measures at the lower tail. Our corrected measure is more dispersed at the upper tail than our original imputation. When looking at Panel (c), we see that our corrections are decreasing the predictions at the bottom and increasing them at the top. The middle part of the distribution stays relatively similar.

While income captures short-term flows, the PCA index provides a multidimensional view of household assets related to long-run consumption (Filmer & Scott, 2012). Consumption tends to be less volatile and to have lower variance, hence showing lower levels of inequality. Given that our original prediction has a stronger correlation to the index and is heavily correlated with our corrected measure, we can expect lower levels of absolute IOp in our original prediction. However, this would not necessarily result in lower levels of relative IOp due to a decrease in total inequality.

## 5.2 Conceptual Framework and Estimation Strategy

We follow Roemer (1998) and define our outcome to be expressed by an additively separable function of effort and circumstance

$$y_i = f(C_i, e_i) \quad (7)$$

the population can then be divided into  $k$  non-overlapping groups based on their circumstances and  $m$  tranches of effort that are assumed to be orthogonal to circumstances. We assume equality of opportunity (EOp) if there is no difference in the expected outcome between groups (ex-ante) or between tranches (ex-post). Note that the ex-ante approach requires no information about effort and can be estimated by looking only at the circumstances. When considering a weak ex-ante criterion, we look at the mean of each specific type

$$\hat{y}_j = \mu_j \quad \forall j \in [1, \dots, k] \quad (8)$$

where we define IOp as first-order stochastic dominance between types.

Using the parametric approach, we follow Ferreira and Gignoux (2011) and estimate

Euqation 7 through a linear regression. We use gender, ethnicity, region of birth, father and mother's education, and parental occupation as circumstances. To get a measure of IOp, we first predict our outcome and then estimate the share of total inequality that is explained by the circumstances as:

$$IOp = \frac{Gini(\hat{y})}{Gini(y)} \quad (9)$$

The circumstances chosen for this purpose are not exhaustive and will yield a lower bound estimation of ex-ante IOp.

### 5.3 Results and Comparisson

Table 5 shows the results of Equation 7 for both the asset index and our imputed HHI. We find a similar parent of associations regardless of our outcome variable. Females and indigenous tend to have lower index levels and household income. Parental education (both father and mother) is positively associated with all outcomes.

Table 5: Correlation Between Circumstances and Outcomes

	<i>Dependent variable:</i>		
	Asset Index	HHI (Original)	
		(1)	(2)
Female	-0.017*** (0.003)	-5,590.331*** (219.602)	-10,867.020*** (605.060)
Indigenous	-0.042*** (0.005)	-3,324.623*** (362.460)	-5,174.758*** (998.671)
Education Father	0.005*** (0.0004)	392.633*** (31.351)	831.247*** (86.379)
Education Mother	0.008*** (0.0005)	521.862*** (32.649)	941.169*** (89.956)
Constant	0.635*** (0.016)	21,116.550*** (1,159.065)	28,655.460*** (3,193.528)
<b>Other Circumstances:</b>			
Occupation Father	X	X	X
Region of Birth	X	X	X
Observations	12,015	12,015	12,015
R <sup>2</sup>	0.190	0.208	0.111
Adjusted R <sup>2</sup>	0.189	0.206	0.110
Residual Std. Error (df = 11996)	0.165	11,839.700	32,621.480
F Statistic (df = 18; 11996)	156.489***	174.599***	83.545***

\*p<0.1; \*\*p<0.05; \*\*\*p<0.01

*Notes:* The Table shows the results of an OLS of our normalised asset index and HHI over circumstances. Standard errors are presented in parentheses.

Interestingly, in accordance with the results of Ciaschi et al. (2023), mothers' education seems to have a stronger association with the economic well-being of their children than that of the father. All our point estimates take a higher value after the correction. However, this change is accompanied by higher variance, increasing the residual standard error.

Finally, we analyse differences in IOp between the two measures. Table 6 summarises our findings. Total inequality varies substantially between the three measures. We estimate a Gini coefficient of 0.175 for our asset index.<sup>7</sup> The predicted income has a coefficient of 0.351, an increase of almost 20 pp compared to the index. However, it is still 11 pp lower than the one estimated using the ENIGH 2016. After applying our corrections, we estimate a coefficient of 0.481, an increase of more than 30 pp compared to the index's and 13 pp compared to that of the original prediction and that estimated in the ENIGH.

Table 6: Inequality Of Opportunity

	Asset Index	HHI (Original)	HHI (Corrected)
Total Inequality	0.175	0.351	0.481
Absolute IOp	0.074 [0.073; 0.075]	0.195 [0.194, 0.196]	0.284 [0.282; 0.285]
Relative IOp	0.426 [0.424; 0.428]	0.557 [0.556, 0.559]	0.590 [0.588; 0.592]

*Notes:* The Table shows the estimation of different measures of inequality of opportunity for our three variables of interest.

When looking at the absolute values of IOp, we find an important increase between the asset index and our income imputation. As expected, we find the estimated absolute value of IOp to be different between our two income measures due to the lower variance of the original distribution. However, the estimated value of relative IOp is very close between the two due to the strong association. Nevertheless, it results in an underestimation of almost 3 pp.

## 6 Conclusions

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<sup>7</sup>The World Bank estimates a value of 0.232 for the Slovak Republic as the lowest Gini index.

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# Appendices

A Machine Learning Models

B Ratios

C Variables

D Errors

E Asset Index