

Dynamics of the Gini coefficient of the life table

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Abstract

Lifespan variation or lifespan inequality has increasingly received attention as health indicator because it represents the uncertainty about the eventual death an individual experiences. In this paper we take a closer look at the Gini coefficient of the life table (G) and provide additional insights to understand how it relates to improvements in mortality. We focus on how changes over time of the Gini coefficient relate to changes in e_o and a new measure called ϑ that relates to perturbation theory. We provide a mathematical foundation of how the Gini coefficient evolves over time and give analytical formulas to find the threshold age that define premature deaths for this indicator in the sense that mortality improvements below this age decreases lifespan variation and increase e_o . These results provide important implications for understanding trends of lifespan variation over time and age.

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1. Introduction

The life table is an essential tool in mortality studies. It summarizes the current mortality experience of a population and it is usually represented by life expectancy at birth (e_o): the average years a new born individual is expected to survive given the current mortality conditions (Preston et al., 2001). However, life expectancy, as an average, masks variation in lifespans. Lifespan variation or lifespan inequality has increasingly received attention as health indicator because it represents the uncertainty about the eventual death an individual experiences (van Raalte et al., 2018). There exist several indicators to measure lifespan variation, such as the entropy of the life table (Keyfitz, 1977; Demetrius, 1978; Fernández and Beltrán-Sánchez, 2015), the standard deviation or variance of the age-at-death distribution (Tuljapurkar and Edwards, 2011), the coefficient of variation (Aburto et al., 2018), years of life lost (Vaupel et al., 2011), or the Gini coefficient (Shkolnikov et al., 2003).

In this paper we take a closer look at the Gini coefficient of the life table (G) and provide additional insights to understand how it relates to improvements in mortality. We focus on how changes over time of the Gini coefficient relate to changes in e_o and a new measure called ϑ that relates to perturbation theory. We provide a mathematical foundation of how the Gini coefficient evolves over time and give analytical formulas to find the threshold age that define premature deaths for this indicator in the sense that mortality improvements below this age decreases lifespan variation and increase e_o . These results provide important implications for understanding trends of lifespan variation over time and age.

26 **2. The Gini coefficient**

27 The Gini coefficient is one of the most popular indices employed in social
28 science to measure concentration in the distribution of a non-negative random
29 variable (Gini, 1912, 1914). Originally proposed by economists to measure
30 income or wealth inequality, this coefficient has been recently employed in
31 demography and survival analysis to investigate within-group inequality in
32 terms of ages at death (see, for instance, Hanada, 1983; Shkolnikov et al.,
33 2003; Bonetti et al., 2009; Gigliarano et al., 2017).

34 *2.1. Definition*

As thoroughly discussed by Yitzhaki and Schechtman (2013), there are several equivalent ways to define the Gini coefficient. Let X be a non-negative random variable with probability density function $f(x)$ and expected value $\mathbb{E}[X]$, one common definition is

$$G = \frac{1}{2\mathbb{E}[X]} \int_0^\infty \int_0^\infty |x_1 - x_2| f(x_1) f(x_2) dx_1 dx_2 .$$

35 Accordingly, if X is a random variable of the ages at death in a population,
36 the Gini coefficient expresses the average of absolute differences in individual
37 lifespans relative to the mean length of life $\mathbb{E}[X]$.

38 Michetti and Dall’Aglia (1957), and later Hanada (1983), suggested a re-
39 formulation of the Gini coefficient in terms of the life table functions, given
40 by

$$G = 1 - \frac{\int_0^\infty \ell(x, t)^2 dx}{\int_0^\infty \ell(x, t) dx} = 1 - \frac{\vartheta}{e_o} , \tag{1}$$

41 where $\ell(x, t)$ is the life table survival function at time t , $e_o = \int_0^\infty \ell(x, t) dx$
42 the life expectancy at birth at time t , and $\vartheta = \int_0^\infty \ell(x, t)^2 dx$ is the resulting

43 life expectancy of doubling the hazard at all ages. Barthold Jones et al.
44 (2018) interpret ϑ as a measure of *shared life expectancy*, that is, the average
45 time that two newborns at time t are expected to survive together. For the
46 purposes of this article, the definition of the Gini coefficient in (1) will be
47 used in in the following.

48 2.2. Main properties

49 The Gini coefficient takes values between 0 and 1, and can be interpreted
50 as a *measure of inequality*. A value of 0 denotes equality in ages at death,
51 i.e. when every individual in the population has the same length of life. The
52 index increases approaching 1 as lifespans become more spread and unequal
53 in the population. This makes the interpretation easy and intuitive: higher
54 values correspond to greater within-group inequality in ages at death.

55 An additional attractive feature of the Gini coefficient is that it fulfills
56 three important properties for inequality indices (Sen, 1973; Anand, 1983):
57 (i) it does not change if the number of individuals at each age at death is
58 changed by the same proportion (*population-size independence*); (ii) it does
59 not change if each individual lifespan is changed by the same proportion
60 (*scale independence*): (iii) it decreases if years of life are transferred from
61 a longer to a shorter lived individual (*Pigou-Dalton condition*). Note that
62 property (i) allows straightforward comparison between populations, includ-
63 ing comparisons between different species (Wrycza et al., 2015). Further-
64 more, the coefficient is not too sensitive to redistributions at early ages of
65 life, and it reflects well changes at adult ages (Shkolnikov et al., 2003). As
66 such, several authors have chosen the Gini coefficient over other measures to
67 study lifespan inequality, such as... ??

68 Finally, by being bounded between 0 and 1, the Gini coefficient easily
 69 allows switching from a *measure of inequality* to a *measure of equality* of
 70 lifespans. In particular, from (1) it is immediate to derive “Drewnowski’s
 71 index”, as coined by Hanada (1983) and defined as

$$\mathcal{D} = 1 - G = \frac{\vartheta}{e_o} = \frac{\int_0^\infty \ell(x, t)^2 dx}{\int_0^\infty \ell(x, t) dx} . \quad (2)$$

72 This index can be interpreted as a measure of lifespan equality, and shares
 73 the same important properties of G . According to Hanada (1983), it was
 74 first proposed on a working group on health indicators of the World Health
 75 Organization in the early 1980s.

76 3. Changes over time in Drewnowski’s index

77 In order to analyze changes over time in the Gini coefficient or its equiv-
 78 alent Drewnowski’s index, we aim to find an analytical expression for the
 79 time derivative of \mathcal{D} . In the following, a dot over a function will denote the
 80 partial derivative with respect to time, although variable t will be omitted
 81 for simplicity.

82 3.1. Relative derivative of \mathcal{D}

83 **Proposition 1.** *Let $\mathcal{D} = \vartheta / e_o$ be Drewnowski’s index, where $\vartheta = \int_0^\infty \ell(x)^2 dx$,*
 84 *$e_o = \int_0^\infty \ell(x) dx$ is the life expectancy at birth, and $\ell(x)$ the probability of sur-*
 85 *viving from birth to age x . Then, relative changes over time in \mathcal{D} are given*
 86 *by*

$$\frac{\dot{\mathcal{D}}}{\mathcal{D}} = \frac{\dot{\vartheta}}{\vartheta} - \frac{\dot{e}_o}{e_o} . \quad (3)$$

87 *Proof.* Note that $\mathcal{D} = \vartheta / e_o$ implies that $\mathcal{D} e_o - \vartheta = 0$. Differentiating with
 88 respect to time yields

$$\dot{\mathcal{D}} e_o + \mathcal{D} \dot{e}_o - \dot{\vartheta} = 0 .$$

89 Solving for $\dot{\mathcal{D}}$ and dividing both sides by \mathcal{D} , we get (3). □

90 Equation (3) decomposes relative changes in \mathcal{D} into relative changes of
 91 the shared life expectancy between two individuals ϑ , and relative changes
 92 in the life expectancy at birth e_o .

93 3.2. Time derivatives of e_o and ϑ

94 Vaupel and Canudas-Romo (2003) showed that changes over time in life
 95 expectancy at birth are a weighted average of the total rates of mortality
 96 improvements, expressed as

$$\dot{e}_o = \int_0^\infty \rho(x) w(x) dx . \tag{4}$$

97 Function $\rho(x) = -\dot{\mu}(x) / \mu(x)$ stands for the age-specific rates of mortality
 98 improvement, where $\mu(x)$ is the force of mortality (hazard rate) at age x .
 99 The weights $w(x) = \mu(x) \ell(x) e(x)$ are a measure of the importance of death
 100 at age x , where $e(x) = \int_x^\infty \ell(a) da / \ell(x)$ is the remaining life expectancy at
 101 age x . Following a similar approach, we aim to express the time derivative
 102 of ϑ as a weighted average of mortality improvements, but with different
 103 weights.

104 **Proposition 2.** *Let $\vartheta = \int_0^\infty \ell(x)^2 dx$, where $\ell(x)$ is the probability of surviv-*
 105 *ing from birth to age x . Then, its partial derivative with respect to time can*
 106 *be expressed as*

$$\dot{\vartheta} = \int_0^\infty \rho(x) w(x) 2 \mathcal{D}(x) dx , \tag{5}$$

where $\rho(x)$ are the age-specific rates of mortality improvement, $w(x)$ the same weights defined in (4), and

$$\mathcal{D}(x) = \frac{\int_x^\infty \ell(a)^2 da}{\int_x^\infty \ell(a) da} .$$

107

Proof. Applying the chain rule, the derivative of ϑ with respect to time is simply

$$\dot{\vartheta} = \int_0^\infty 2 \ell(x) \dot{\ell}(x) dx .$$

Using that $\dot{\ell}(x) = -\ell(x) \int_0^x \dot{\mu}(a) da$, and reversing the order of integration, we get

$$\begin{aligned} \dot{\vartheta} &= -2 \int_0^\infty \ell(x)^2 \int_0^x \dot{\mu}(a) da dx = -2 \int_0^\infty \dot{\mu}(a) \int_a^\infty \ell(x)^2 dx da \\ &= 2 \int_0^\infty \rho(x) \mu(x) \ell(x) e(x) \frac{\int_x^\infty \ell(a)^2 da}{\int_x^\infty \ell(a) da} dx \\ &= \int_0^\infty \rho(x) w(x) 2 \mathcal{D}(x) dx , \end{aligned}$$

108 where $w(x) = \mu(x) \ell(x) e(x)$, which proves (5). □

109 3.3. Changes over time in \mathcal{D} in terms of mortality improvements

Equations (4) and (5) allow expressing changes over time in \mathcal{D} in terms of mortality improvements. Replacing (4) and (5) in (3) yields

$$\begin{aligned} \dot{\mathcal{D}} &= \mathcal{D} \left(\frac{\dot{\vartheta}}{\vartheta} - \frac{\dot{e}_o}{e_o} \right) \\ &= \mathcal{D} \int_0^\infty \rho(x) w(x) \left[\frac{2 \mathcal{D}(x)}{\vartheta} - \frac{1}{e_o} \right] dx \\ &= \int_0^\infty \rho(x) w(x) \frac{2 \mathcal{D}(x) - \mathcal{D}}{e_o} dx \\ &= \int_0^\infty \rho(x) w(x) W(x) dx . \end{aligned} \tag{6}$$

This result shows that changes over time in \mathcal{D} (and analogously in G) are a total average of mortality improvements weighted by $w(x)W(x)$, where $w(x) = \mu(x)\ell(x)e(x)$ are the same weights as in (4) and

$$W(x) = \frac{2\mathcal{D}(x) - \mathcal{D}}{e_o}.$$

110 4. The threshold age

111 4.1. Positive and negative contributions to lifespan equality

112 Because Drewnowski's index is a measure of equality, $\dot{\mathcal{D}} > 0$ indicates
 113 that lifespan equality increases over time, whereas $\dot{\mathcal{D}} < 0$ implies that lifes-
 114 pan equality decreases over time, amplifying the variation of ages at death.
 115 Equation (6) can then be used to analyze the existence of a threshold age
 116 that separates *positive* from *negative* contributions to lifespan equality as a
 117 result of mortality improvements.

118 Note that in the assumption that mortality improvements occur at all
 119 ages, $\rho(x) = -\dot{\mu}(x)/\mu(x) > 0$ is a strictly positive function. Therefore,
 120 from (6),

- 121 1. Those ages x for which $w(x)W(x) > 0$ will contribute *positively* to
 122 Drewnowski's index \mathcal{D} and increase lifespan equality;
- 123 2. Those ages x for which $w(x)W(x) < 0$ will contribute *negatively* to
 124 Drewnowski's index \mathcal{D} and favor lifespan inequality;
- 125 3. Those ages x for which $w(x)W(x) = 0$ will have no effect on the vari-
 126 ation over time of \mathcal{D} .

127 Any existing threshold age that separates positive from negative contri-
 128 butions to lifespan equality will occur whenever $w(x)W(x) = 0$. Since $\mu(x)$,

129 $\ell(x)$, and $e(x)$ are all positive functions, so are $w(x)$ and e_o . Hence,

$$w(x)W(x) = 0 \iff 2\mathcal{D}(x) - \mathcal{D} = 0. \quad (7)$$

130 *4.2. Existence and uniqueness of the threshold age*

131 By means of the following two propositions and one theorem, we aim to
 132 prove that in a scenario in which mortality improvements occur at all ages
 133 and $\rho(x) > 0$ for all $x \geq 0$, there exists a unique threshold age $a^{\mathcal{D}}$ that
 134 separates positive from negative contributions to lifespan equality (measured
 135 by \mathcal{D}) as a result of those improvements.

136 **Remark.** *Following (2), Drewnowski's index \mathcal{D} is bounded between 0 and*
 137 *1, reaching a value of 1 when there is complete equality in the ages at death*
 138 *within a population. A score of 0 would express that there is complete inequal-*
 139 *ity in the ages at death, but by definition this value can never be reached:*

$$\mathcal{D} = 0 \iff \frac{\int_0^\infty \ell(x)^2 dx}{\int_0^\infty \ell(x) dx} = 0 \iff \int_0^\infty \ell(x)^2 dx = 0 \iff \ell(x) = 0 \quad (8)$$

140 *for all ages $x \geq 0$. But this implies that the denominator in (8) is also*
 141 *0 because $\ell(x) \geq 0$ is always positive, and therefore \mathcal{D} would be undefined.*
 142 *Hence, $0 < \mathcal{D} \leq 1$.*

143 **Proposition 3.** *Let $\ell(x)$ be the probability of surviving from birth to age x , \mathcal{D}*
 144 *Drewnowski's index as defined in (2), and $\mathcal{D}(x) = \int_x^\infty \ell(a)^2 da / \int_x^\infty \ell(a) da$.*
 145 *Define the function $g(x) := 2\mathcal{D}(x) - \mathcal{D}$. Then, there exists at least one age*
 146 *$a^{\mathcal{D}}$ such that $g(a^{\mathcal{D}}) = 0$.*

147 *Proof.* At age $x = 0$,

$$g(0) = 2\mathcal{D}(0) - \mathcal{D} = 2\mathcal{D} - \mathcal{D} = \mathcal{D} > 0 \quad (9)$$

148 by definition, since $0 < \mathcal{D} \leq 1$.

Besides, when ages become arbitrarily large,

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} g(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} (2 \mathcal{D}(x) - \mathcal{D}) = 2 \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \mathcal{D}(x) - \mathcal{D} ,$$

which only depends on the behavior of $\mathcal{D}(x)$. Because $\ell(x) \in [0, 1]$ for all ages $x \geq 0$, we have that $0 \leq \ell(x)^2 \leq \ell(x)$ and

$$0 \leq \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \int_x^\infty \ell(a)^2 da \leq \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \int_x^\infty \ell(a) da = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} e(x) \ell(x) = 0 ,$$

where $e(x)$ is the remaining life expectancy at age x , which proves that both integrals tend to 0 as x approaches ∞ . Consequently, the following limit

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \mathcal{D}(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\int_x^\infty \ell(a)^2 da}{\int_x^\infty \ell(a) da}$$

is indeterminate, but applying L'Hôpital's rule, we get

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \mathcal{D}(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\frac{\partial}{\partial x} \int_x^\infty \ell(a)^2 da}{\frac{\partial}{\partial x} \int_x^\infty \ell(a) da} = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{-\ell(x)^2}{-\ell(x)} = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \ell(x) = 0 .$$

149 As a result,

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} g(x) = 2 \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \mathcal{D}(x) - \mathcal{D} = -\mathcal{D} < 0 . \quad (10)$$

150 Finally, using (9) and (10), in a continuous framework the intermediate
 151 value theorem guarantees the existence of at least one positive age $a^{\mathcal{D}}$ at
 152 which $g(a^{\mathcal{D}}) = 0$. □

153 **Proposition 4.** *Let $\ell(x)$ be the probability of surviving from birth to age x , \mathcal{D}
 154 *Drewnowski's index as defined in (2), and $\mathcal{D}(x) = \int_x^\infty \ell(a)^2 da / \int_x^\infty \ell(a) da$.
 155 Then, $g(x) := 2 \mathcal{D}(x) - \mathcal{D}$ is a strictly decreasing function.**

Proof. In order to demonstrate that $g(x)$ is a strictly decreasing function, it suffices to show that its first derivative is negative for all ages $x \geq 0$. Note that since \mathcal{D} does not depend on age,

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial x} g(x) < 0 \iff \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \mathcal{D}(x) < 0 .$$

Applying the quotient rule together with the fundamental theorem of calculus, we get

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \mathcal{D}(x) &= \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left(\frac{\int_x^\infty \ell(a)^2 da}{\int_x^\infty \ell(a) da} \right) \\ &= \frac{\int_x^\infty \ell(a) da \frac{\partial}{\partial x} (\int_x^\infty \ell(a)^2 da) - \int_x^\infty \ell(a)^2 da \frac{\partial}{\partial x} (\int_x^\infty \ell(a) da)}{(\int_x^\infty \ell(a) da)^2} \\ &= \frac{\int_x^\infty \ell(a) da (-\ell(x)^2) - \int_x^\infty \ell(a)^2 da (-\ell(x))}{(\int_x^\infty \ell(a) da)^2} . \end{aligned}$$

Hence,

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial}{\partial x} g(x) < 0 &\iff \ell(x) \int_x^\infty \ell(a)^2 da - \ell(x)^2 \int_x^\infty \ell(a) da < 0 \\ &\iff \frac{1}{\ell(x)^2} \int_x^\infty \ell(a)^2 da < \frac{1}{\ell(x)} \int_x^\infty \ell(a) da . \end{aligned}$$

Note that $\ell(x) = \exp[-\int_0^x \mu(a) da]$ for a given age-specific hazard function $\mu(x)$. As such, $\ell(x)^2 = \exp[-\int_0^x 2\mu(a) da]$ can be interpreted as the survival schedule with doubling hazard $2\mu(x)$ at all ages $x \geq 0$. We can then define

$$\tilde{e}(x) = \frac{1}{\ell(x)^2} \int_x^\infty \ell(a)^2 da$$

as the remaining life expectancy at age x of a population with survival schedule $\ell(x)^2$ and age-specific force of mortality $2\mu(x)$. Then,

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial x} g(x) < 0 \iff \frac{1}{\ell(x)^2} \int_x^\infty \ell(a)^2 da < \frac{1}{\ell(x)} \int_x^\infty \ell(a) da \iff \tilde{e}(x) < e(x)$$

156 for all $x \geq 0$, which holds true since doubling the hazard corresponds to a
 157 lower remaining life expectancy, in the reasonable assumption that $\mu(x) > 0$
 158 at all ages. \square

159 **Theorem.** *Let $\mathcal{D} = \vartheta / e_o$ be Drewnowski's index, where $\vartheta = \int_0^\infty \ell(x)^2 dx$,
 160 $e_o = \int_0^\infty \ell(x) dx$ is the life expectancy at birth, and $\ell(x)$ the probability of
 161 surviving from birth to age x . Assume mortality improvements over time
 162 occur at all ages. Then, there exists a unique threshold age $a^{\mathcal{D}}$ that separates
 163 positive from negative contributions to lifespan equality, measured by \mathcal{D} , as
 164 a result of those improvements.*

Proof. Following (6), changes over time in \mathcal{D} can be expressed as a weighted average of mortality improvements, given by

$$\dot{\mathcal{D}} = \int_0^\infty \rho(x) w(x) W(x) dx ,$$

where $\rho(x)$ are the age-specific rates of mortality improvement over time, and $w(x) W(x)$ the weights. By assumption, $\rho(x) > 0$ for all ages $x \geq 0$. Therefore, any threshold age that separates positive from negative contributions to lifespan equality as a result of mortality improvements will occur whenever $w(x) W(x) = 0$. From (7),

$$w(x) W(x) = 0 \iff 2 \mathcal{D}(x) - \mathcal{D} = 0 ,$$

165 where $\mathcal{D}(x) = \int_x^\infty \ell(a)^2 da / \int_x^\infty \ell(a) da$. Proposition 3 proves the existence
 166 of at least one positive age $a^{\mathcal{D}}$ at which $2 \mathcal{D}(a^{\mathcal{D}}) - \mathcal{D} = 0$. In addition,
 167 from Proposition 4 the function $g(x) := 2 \mathcal{D}(x) - \mathcal{D}$ is strictly decreasing.
 168 Hence, assuming continuity, $g(x) := 2 \mathcal{D}(x) - \mathcal{D}$ is a one-to-one function, and
 169 therefore the threshold age $a^{\mathcal{D}}$ is unique. \square

170 **5. Application**

171 The following steps consist on applying our framework to the best practice
172 lifespan variation.

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