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Inference for Ranks with Applications to Mobility across Neighborhoods and Academic Achievement across Countries

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Abstract

It is often desired to rank different populations according to the value of some feature of each population. For example, it may be desired to rank neighborhoods according to some measure of intergenerational mobility or countries according to some measure of academic achievement. These rankings are invariably computed using estimates rather than the true values of these features. As a result, there may be considerable uncertainty concerning the rank of each population. In this paper, we consider the problem of accounting for such uncertainty by constructing confidence sets for the rank of each population. We consider both the problem of constructing marginal confidence sets for the rank of a particular population as well as simultaneous confidence sets for the ranks of all populations. We show how to construct such confidence sets under weak assumptions. An important feature of all of our constructions is that they remain computationally feasible even when the number of populations is very large. We apply our theoretical results to re-examine the rankings of both neighborhoods in the United States in terms of intergenerational mobility and developed countries in terms of academic achievement. The conclusions about which countries do best and worst at reading, math, and science are fairly robust to accounting for uncertainty. By comparison, several celebrated findings about intergenerational mobility in the United States are not robust to taking uncertainty into account.

KEYWORDS: Confidence sets, Directional errors, Familywise error rate, Intergenerational mobility, Multiple testing, PISA, Ranks

JEL classification codes: C12, C14, D31, I20, J62

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1 Introduction

Rankings of different populations according to the value of some feature of each population are ubiquitous. Interest in such rankings stem from their ability to convey succinct answers to various questions, such as whether a particular population is “good” or “bad” in terms of the value of this feature relative to other populations, or which populations are “best” or “worst” in terms of the value of this feature. A prominent example from the recent economics literature is provided by [Chetty et al. \(2014, 2018\)](#) and [Chetty and Hendren \(2018\)](#), in which different populations correspond to different neighborhoods in the United States and the feature by which it is desired to rank them is some measure of intergenerational mobility. A further example of contemporary interest is provided by the Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA), in which different populations correspond to different countries and the feature by which it is desired to rank them is some measure of academic achievement. These rankings are invariably computed using estimates rather than the true values of these features. As a result, there may be considerable uncertainty concerning the rank of each population.

In this paper, we consider the problem of accounting for such uncertainty by constructing confidence sets for the rank of each population. We consider both marginal confidence sets for the rank of a particular population, i.e., random sets that contain the rank of the particular population of interest with probability approximately no less than some pre-specified level, as well as simultaneous confidence sets for the ranks of all populations, i.e., random sets that contain the ranks of all populations with probability approximately no less than some pre-specified level. The former confidence sets provide a way of accounting for uncertainty when answering questions pertaining to the rank of a particular population, whereas the latter confidence sets provide a way of accounting for uncertainty when answering questions pertaining to the ranks of all populations. We show how to construct both types of confidence sets under weak assumptions. An important feature of all of our constructions is that they remain computationally feasible even when the number of populations is very large. We apply our inference procedures to re-examine the rankings of both neighborhoods in the United States in terms of intergenerational mobility and developed countries in terms of academic achievement.

For each of the preceding confidence sets, we first show how they can be constructed using simultaneous confidence sets for differences across the populations in the values of the features. The main requirement underlying our analysis is only that these latter confidence sets for the differences are suitably valid. We show, however, that it is possible to improve upon this construction using a suitable multiple hypothesis testing problem without imposing any further assumptions. In this sense, the assumptions involved in establishing our formal results are weak. A novel feature of the multiple hypothesis testing problem we consider is that it requires control of the mixed-directional familywise error rate rather than simply the familywise error rate. As the terminology suggests, the distinction between these two error rates is that the former penalizes not only false rejections, like the latter, but also false directional assertions. For further discussion, see [Bauer et al. \(1986\)](#) as well as Sections [3.2.2](#) and [3.3.2](#) below.

As a specific example of the way in which the aforementioned confidence sets may be used by researchers, we examine in more depth the question of identifying which populations are among the top (or the bottom). For concreteness, we define a population to be among the top if its rank is less than or equal to a pre-specified value τ . In order to account for uncertainty when answering this question, it may be desired to construct what we refer to subsequently as a confidence set for the τ -best populations, i.e., a random set that

contains the identities of these populations with probability approximately no less than some pre-specified level. While it is possible to use simultaneous confidence sets for the ranks of all populations to construct such confidence sets, we show that it is possible to improve upon this construction without imposing any further assumptions.

In order to illustrate the widespread applicability of our inference procedure, we use it to re-examine the rankings of both neighborhoods in the United States in terms of intergenerational mobility and developed countries in terms of academic achievement. The former application uses data from [Chetty et al. \(2014, 2018\)](#), while the latter application uses data from the 2018 PISA test. In each application, we apply our methodology to compute (i) the marginal confidence sets for the rank of a given place, (ii) the simultaneous confidence sets for the ranks of all places, and (iii) the confidence sets for the τ -best (or the τ -worst) places.

Before describing our empirical results, we emphasize that (i)–(iii) answer distinct economic questions. Consider, for example, the application to intergenerational mobility and neighborhoods. Marginal confidence sets answer the question of whether a given place has relatively high or low income mobility compared to other places. Thus, (i) is relevant if one is interested in whether a particular place is among the worst or the best places to grow up in terms of income mobility. Simultaneous confidence sets allow such inferences to be drawn simultaneously across all places. Thus, (ii) is relevant if one is interested in broader geographic patterns of income mobility across the United States. By comparison, confidence sets for the τ -best (or τ -worst) answer the more specific question of which places cannot be ruled out as being among the areas with the most (least) income mobility. In other words, (iii) is relevant if one is interested in only the top (or bottom) of a league table of neighborhoods by income mobility.

In our analysis of data from the 2018 PISA test, we find that the conclusions about which developed countries do best and worst at reading, math, and science are fairly robust to accounting for uncertainty. Both the marginal and simultaneous confidence sets are relatively narrow, especially for the countries at the top and the bottom of the PISA league tables. Indeed, only a small set of countries cannot be ruled out as being among the top or bottom three in terms of scholastic performance.

In our analysis of data from [Chetty et al. \(2014, 2018\)](#), we find that several celebrated findings about intergenerational mobility in the United States are not robust to taking uncertainty into account. The most robust findings are obtained if we restrict attention to the 50 most populous commuting zones or counties. In that case, both the marginal and joint confidence sets are relatively narrow, and few places cannot be ruled out as being among the top or bottom five. By comparison, conclusions about the geographic patterns of income mobility become less robust to uncertainty when we consider all commuting zones. While upward mobility appears to be low in the Southeast and high in the Great Plains, it is not clear that the West Coast and the Northeast have particularly high income mobility. Nor is it possible to make a strong case for a lot of within-region variation in income mobility. Furthermore, rankings of places by upward mobility become largely uninformative if one defines neighborhoods with even more granularity by considering all counties or if one uses movers across areas to address concerns about selection.

In order to highlight the importance and policy relevance of these findings, we revisit the recent Creating Moves to Opportunity Experiment (CMTO) of [Bergman et al. \(2019\)](#). With the aim of helping families move to neighborhoods with higher mobility rates, the authors conduct a randomized controlled trial with housing voucher recipients in Seattle and King County. A treatment group of low-income families were offered assistance and financial support to find and lease units in areas that were classified as high upward-mobility

neighborhoods within the county. The authors define high upward-mobility neighborhoods as Census tracts with point estimates of upward mobility among the top third of the tracts in the county. We show that the areas defined as high upward-mobility neighborhoods do not have statistically higher mobility rates as compared to the other tracts. The classification of some areas as high upward-mobility neighborhood may therefore simply reflect statistical uncertainty, not actual differences in upward mobility. In this sense, one cannot be confident the experiment actually helped low-income families to move to neighborhoods with higher upward mobility.

Our paper is most closely related to a recent paper by [Klein et al. \(2018\)](#), who consider the problem of constructing confidence sets analogous to ours. The main difference between their constructions and ours is that they rely upon simultaneous confidence sets for the values of the features for all populations, whereas, as mentioned previously, we exploit simultaneous confidence sets for differences in the values of the features for certain pairs of populations. In [Remark 3.10](#) and [Appendix B](#), we show that their confidence sets are always at least as large as ours when there are only two populations or in the homogeneous case with common variances and sample sizes when there are more than two populations. More importantly, we show that their method cannot in general produce smaller confidence sets with positive probability uniformly across populations. While it is unknown if even one component may be smaller with positive probability, we find in our simulations that their approach generally leads to confidence sets that are much larger than ours for all populations.

Other related work includes [Goldstein and Spiegelhalter \(1996\)](#), who propose the use of resampling methods such as the bootstrap to account for the type of uncertainty with which we are concerned. In the context of the PISA study, for instance, such a bootstrap procedure has been used to report “range of ranks” (see [OECD \(2019, Annex A3\)](#)). As explained by [Hall and Miller \(2009\)](#) and [Xie et al. \(2009\)](#), however, such methods perform poorly when some populations have features whose values are “close” to one another. In [Remark 3.7](#) and [Appendix A](#), we show that the bootstrap does not satisfy the coverage requirement when there are more than two populations. Motivated by these observations, [Xie et al. \(2009\)](#) propose an alternative method for accounting for uncertainty based on combining resampling with a smooth estimator of the rank which requires, among other things, delicate choices of user-specified “bandwidths”. Our constructions, by contrast, require no such tuning parameters.

The remainder of our paper is organized as follows. In [Section 2](#), we illustrate the logic underlying our inference procedures in a stylized example using a subset of the data from one of our empirical applications. [Section 3](#) then introduces our general setup, including a formal description of the confidence sets we consider. We first discuss the construction of a marginal confidence set for the rank of a particular population and then turn our attention to the construction of simultaneous confidence sets for the ranks of all populations. As mentioned previously, in each case, we begin by describing a simple construction that relies on simultaneous confidence sets for certain pairs of populations before showing how to improve upon this construction using an appropriately chosen multiple hypothesis testing problem. In [Section 4](#), we examine the finite-sample behavior of our inference procedure via a simulation study, including a comparison with the method proposed by [Klein et al. \(2018\)](#). Finally, in [Section 5](#), we apply our inference procedures to re-examine the rankings of both developed countries in terms of academic achievement and neighborhoods in the United States in terms of intergenerational mobility.

Rank	τ	CZ	$\hat{\theta}_j$	SE	95% CS		τ -best
					marg.	simul.	
1	1	Linton	0.608	0.014	[1, 1]	[1, 1]	1
2	2	Gordon	0.443	0.010	[2, 4]	[2, 4]	4
3	3	Trenton	0.433	0.010	[2, 4]	[2, 4]	4
4	4	Jordan	0.413	0.050	[2, 5]	[2, 5]	5
5	5	Albany	0.331	0.002	[4, 5]	[4, 5]	5

Table 1: Commuting zones (CZs) ranked by the estimated intergenerational mobility measure $\hat{\theta}_j$. “SE” refers to the standard error of $\hat{\theta}_j$. “95% CS (marg.)” refers to the 95% marginal confidence set for the rank, “95% CS (simul.)” to the 95% simultaneous confidence set for all ranks, and “ τ -best” refers to the size of the 95% confidence set for the “ τ -best” CZs.

2 Inference for Ranks in a Stylized Example

Suppose it is desired to rank five commuting zones (CZs) in the United States by a measure of upward intergenerational mobility. Denote by r_j the rank of CZ j based on the mobility measure θ_j . Panel A of Figure 1 shows estimated mobility measures $\hat{\theta}_j$ with 95% marginal confidence intervals (estimates plus or minus twice the standard error) for five CZs from our dataset in Section 5.2. Linton and Albany have the highest and lowest mobility estimates among these five CZs and thus the smallest ($\hat{r}_j = 1$ for $j = \text{Linton}$) and highest ($\hat{r}_j = 5$ for $j = \text{Albany}$) estimated ranks, respectively. Since $\hat{\theta}_j$ is an estimate of θ_j , the estimated rank \hat{r}_j may not equal the true rank r_j . In particular, Linton need not have the highest mobility and Albany need not have the lowest mobility.

Table 1 summarizes the results of accounting for uncertainty in the ranks of these five CZs using (i) marginal confidence sets for the rank of a single CZ, (ii) simultaneous confidence sets for the ranks of all CZs (i.e., for the entire ranking), and (iii) confidence sets containing the τ -best CZs. We first report the estimated ranks as well as the point estimates and their standard errors. As explained further below, these data are all that is required to compute (i)–(iii). The sixth column reports the first set of results, marginal confidence sets for the rank of each CZ. The second set of results is reported in the seventh column, which displays simultaneous confidence sets for the ranks of all CZs. In general, the simultaneous confidence sets are at least as large as the marginal ones, but in this example they are identical. The last set of results is reported in the final column, showing the number of CZs contained in the confidence set for the τ -best, where τ varies from one to five across the rows. For instance, with at least 95% confidence, there is only one CZ that can be the best and there are four CZs that can be among the top two.

The remainder of this section describes how we arrive at the three set of results in Table 1 in the context of this example.

Inference on the rank of a particular CZ

Suppose we are interested in the rank of Trenton. From Panel A of Figure 1, we see that its estimated rank is three, but the mobility estimate is close to that of Gordon and Jordan’s mobility estimate has a large standard error, so one might be uncertain whether Trenton’s rank is in fact larger or smaller than three. In order to move beyond this conjecture, we use the following two-step procedure to construct a confidence set

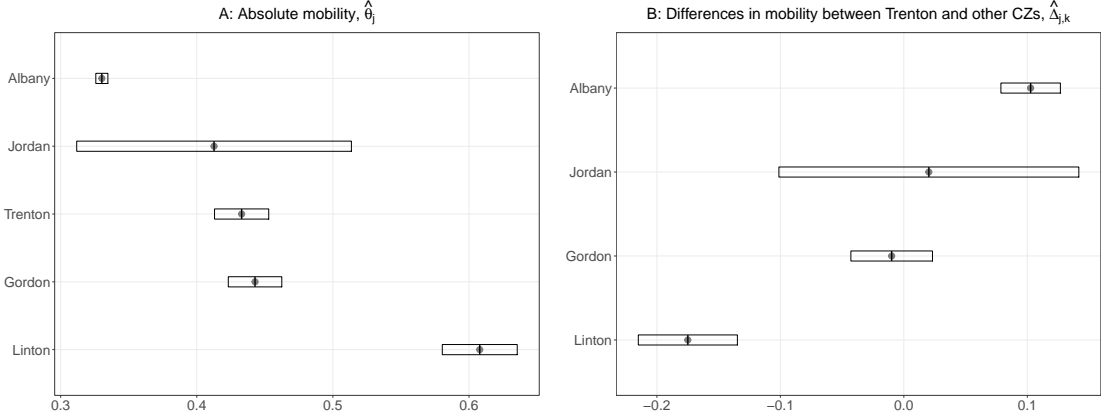


Figure 1: Panel A shows the estimated mobility with 95% (marginal) confidence sets (estimates plus or minus twice the standard error) for five CZs. Panel B shows the estimated differences in mobility between Trenton and all other CZs, together with 95% (simultaneous) confidence sets. Each marginal confidence set covers a single mobility measure with probability 95% whereas the simultaneous confidence sets simultaneously cover all differences in mobility measures with probability 95%.

for Trenton's rank.

First, we consider the differences in mobility estimates between Trenton and all other CZs. It is clear that only the signs of the differences in mobility estimates between Trenton and all other CZs being positive or negative determine Trenton's rank. These differences are displayed in Panel B of Figure 1 together with 95% simultaneous confidence sets. Simultaneous coverage of this confidence set is important. In order to explain the simultaneous coverage property, it is useful to introduce some further notation. To this end, let $\hat{\Delta}_{j,k}$ be the estimator of the difference in mobility $\Delta_{j,k} \equiv \theta_j - \theta_k$ for $j = \text{Trenton}$ and $k \in \{\text{Linton}, \text{Gordon}, \text{Jordan}, \text{Albany}\}$. The confidence set in Panel B of Figure 1 is the product of four confidence sets so the probability of it simultaneously covering all four differences $\Delta_{j,k}$ for $j = \text{Trenton}$ and $k \in \{\text{Linton}, \text{Gordon}, \text{Jordan}, \text{Albany}\}$ is at least 95%. The bounds for the simultaneous confidence sets depend on quantiles from the distribution of the maximum (over k) of the differences $\hat{\Delta}_{j,k} - \Delta_{j,k}$. In Section 3.1, we explain how such quantiles may be approximated using the bootstrap, but other constructions are also possible.

Second, given the simultaneous confidence set for the differences in mobility, we count how many of the individual confidence sets lie entirely above and below zero. The first confidence set, which is for the difference in mobility between Trenton and Linton, lies entirely below zero. Therefore, we can conclude that Linton has significantly higher mobility than Trenton and thus must be ranked strictly better than Trenton. The differences in mobility between Trenton and either Gordon and Jordan are not significantly different from zero, so these three CZs cannot be ranked relative to each other. The confidence set for the difference in mobility between Trenton and Albany lies entirely above zero, so that Albany must be ranked strictly worse than Trenton. Using the notation of the subsequent sections, there is one CZ that must be ranked strictly better, $|N_j^-| = 1$, and one CZ that must be ranked strictly worse, $|N_j^+| = 1$. The confidence set for the rank of Trenton among the $p = 5$ CZs is therefore

$$R_{n,j} = \{|N_j^-| + 1, \dots, p - |N_j^+|\} = \{2, 3, 4\} .$$

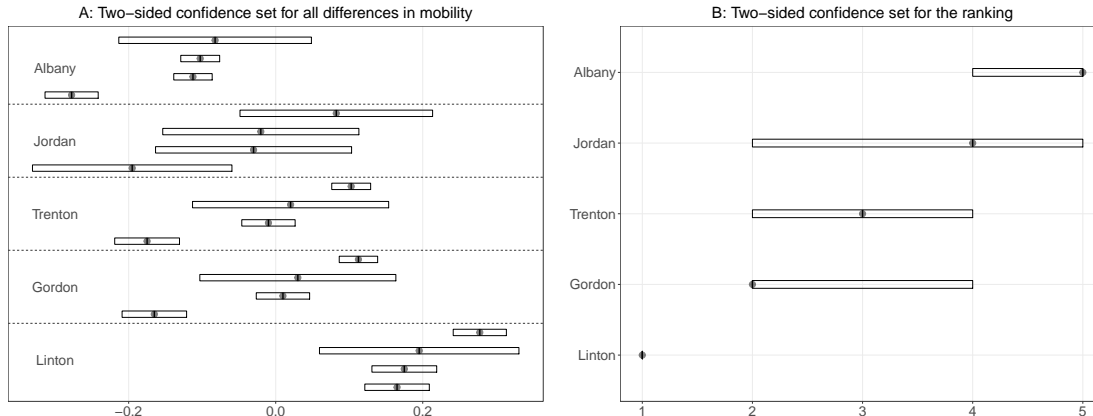


Figure 2: Panel A shows all estimated differences in mobility, together with 95% (simultaneous) two-sided confidence sets. Panel B shows estimated ranks together with 95% (simultaneous) two-sided confidence sets.

By virtue of the simultaneous coverage property for the differences described above, this set contains the rank r_j of Trenton with probability at least 95%.

While simple in nature, the preceding procedure illustrates the logic underlying all of our constructions. In Section 3.2.2, we show that the confidence set $R_{n,j}$ can be improved through the use of a suitable stepwise multiple testing procedure. In the first step of the procedure, some CZs are determined to be ranked higher or lower than the CZ of interest in exactly the manner described above; in subsequent steps, further CZs are possibly determined to be ranked higher or lower than the CZ of interest by appropriately accounting for those that were determined to be ranked higher or lower in previous steps. This process continues until no further CZs can be determined to be ranked higher or lower than the CZ of interest.

Inference on the entire ranking

In order to construct a simultaneous confidence set for the entire ranking of all five CZs, rather than only for Trenton, the approach is modified in the following fashion. We begin by computing every possible difference in mobility estimates between all CZs, not only those involving Trenton. These differences are shown in Panel A of Figure 2 together with simultaneous confidence sets. In this case, the confidence sets simultaneously cover all differences $\Delta_{j,k}$, for all $j, k \in \{\text{Linton, Gordon, Trenton, Jordan, Albany}\}$ with $j \neq k$. For each CZ j , we then count how many confidence sets k lie above and below zero. For instance, for $j = \text{Trenton}$, we obtain the same result as above, namely that one confidence set lies entirely below and one lies entirely above zero, so $|N_j^-| = 1$ and $|N_j^+| = 1$. For $j = \text{Linton}$, all confidence sets lie above zero, so $|N_j^-| = 0$ and $|N_j^+| = 4$. The confidence sets for each CZ are then constructed using these counts just as above.

The result of this procedure is shown in Panel B of Figure 2. The confidence set for Linton contains only rank one, but the confidence sets for the other CZs contain two to four values. By virtue of the simultaneous coverage property for the differences, the product of the five CZ-specific confidence sets for the ranks simultaneously covers the ranks of all CZs, i.e., r_j for all $j \in \{\text{Linton, Gordon, Trenton, Jordan, Albany}\}$, with probability at least 95%.

In Section 3.3.2, we show that this simple construction can also be improved through the use of a multiple

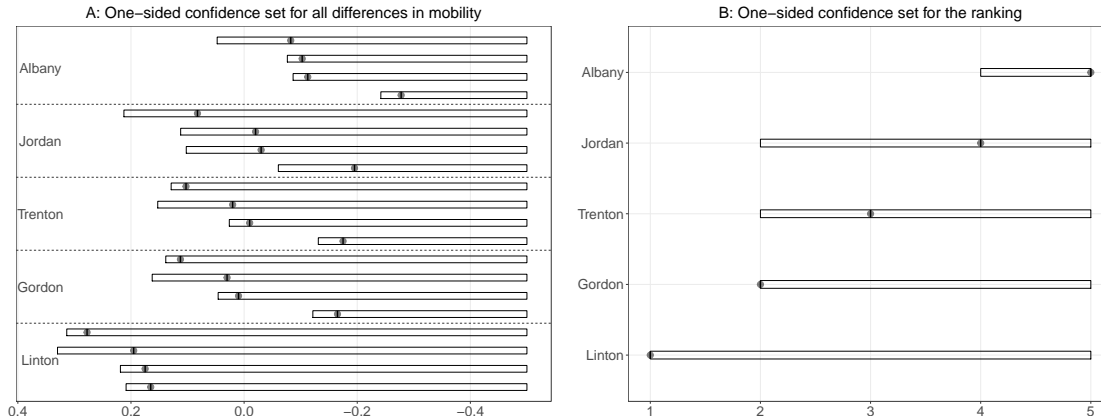


Figure 3: Panel A shows all estimated differences in mobility, together with 95% (simultaneous) one-sided confidence sets. Panel B shows estimated ranks together with 95% (simultaneous) one-sided confidence sets.

testing procedure that parallels the one that we use for the marginal confidence set.

Confidence sets containing the τ -best CZs

Suppose it is desired to determine which of the five CZs could be among the $\tau = 2$ best CZs. From Panel A of Figure 1, we see that Linton and Gordon have ranks one and two, but the mobility estimate of Trenton is close to that of Gordon and Jordan’s mobility estimate has large standard errors, so one might consider that Trenton or Jordan could also be among the top two CZs. The following procedure provides a means of accounting for this uncertainty formally.

Denote the set of CZs which are among the two best as $J_0(2) \equiv \{j: r_j \leq 2\}$. This set contains at least two CZs and strictly more than two when CZs are tied at rank one or two. We want to construct a set $J_n^{2-\text{best}}$ that contains the set $J_0(2)$ with probability at least 95%.

A simple approach is based on one-sided simultaneous confidence sets for all ranks. Figure 3 repeats the computations for Figure 2 except the simultaneous confidence sets for the differences are one-sided (upper bounds) and the resulting simultaneous confidence sets for the ranks are therefore also one-sided (lower bounds). Let $R_{n,j}^{\text{joint}}$ be the j th dimension of the one-sided confidence set for the ranking, i.e., the confidence set for r_j in Panel B of Figure 3. In order to construct a set with the desired coverage property, it suffices to collect all CZs j for which $R_{n,j}^{\text{joint}}$ contains the value two, i.e.,

$$J_n^{2-\text{best}} = \{j: 2 \in R_{n,j}^{\text{joint}}\} = \{\text{Linton, Gordon, Trenton, Jordan}\}.$$

By virtue of the coverage property of the simultaneous confidence set for the ranking, this set covers the set of the two best CZs, $J_0(2)$, with probability at least 95%. While this “projection” approach for constructing the confidence set is parsimonious and intuitive, improvements may be possible by realizing that a CZ can be among the top two if and only if at most one other CZ (without regard to its identity) has higher mobility. By comparison, the one-sided simultaneous confidence sets for all ranks R_n^{joint} encodes some information about which CZs have higher mobility than another. In Section 3.4, we propose a more “direct” procedure based on exploiting the insight and show through simulations that it leads to smaller confidence sets.

Key features of the inference approach

Section 3 formally shows that, under weak assumptions, the above three constructions of confidence sets asymptotically control the probability of covering the objects of interest at the desired level (95% in the example of this section) uniformly over a large class of possible distributions for the observed data. The following two aspects of the theoretical results are especially important in our empirical applications and can already be understood in the context of the example in Panel A of Figure 1.

First, in our applications, we see that many estimates $\hat{\theta}_j$ are close to one other, such as the mobility estimates of Gordon and Trenton in the preceding example. It is therefore important to develop inference methods that do not break down when some (or even all) measures θ_j are (close to) equal to one another. Formally, our confidence sets achieve this goal because we show that they guarantee coverage uniformly over a large family of distributions for the observed data, and hence uniformly over all configurations of measures $\theta_1, \dots, \theta_p$, irrespectively of whether some (or even all) of them are (close to) equal to each other.

Second, our confidence sets satisfy the uniform coverage requirement under weak conditions. In particular, the distributions of $\hat{\theta}_j - \theta_j$ are allowed to vary across j . Such heterogeneity is salient in our empirical applications and its importance can already be seen in Panel A of Figure 1: Trenton’s mobility estimate has much smaller standard error than that of Jordan, but much larger than that of Albany.

3 General Setup and Main Results

3.1 Setup and Notation

Let $j \in J \equiv \{1, \dots, p\}$ index populations of interest. Denote by P_j distributions characterizing the different populations and by $\theta(P_j)$ the associated features by which it is desired to rank them. In the example of Section 2, j denotes a county, $\theta(P_j)$ is a measure of intergenerational mobility in county j , and P_j is the distribution from which we observe data for estimation of the feature $\theta(P_j)$. The rank of population j is defined as

$$r_j(P) \equiv 1 + \sum_{k \in J} \mathbf{1}\{\theta(P_k) > \theta(P_j)\},$$

where P is a distribution with marginals P_j for $j \in J$, and $\mathbf{1}\{A\}$ is equal to one if the event A holds and equal to zero otherwise. Let $\theta(P) \equiv (\theta(P_1), \dots, \theta(P_p))'$ and $r(P) \equiv (r(P_1), \dots, r(P_p))'$. Before proceeding, a simple example illustrates the way in which ties are handled with this definition of ranks: if $\theta(P) = (4, 1, 1, 3, 3, 3, 6)'$, then $r(P) = (2, 6, 6, 3, 3, 3, 1)'$.

The primary goal is to construct confidence sets for the rank of a particular population or for the ranks of all populations simultaneously. More precisely, for a given value of $\alpha \in (0, 1)$, we use a sample of observations from P to construct (random) sets $R_{n,j}$ such that

$$\liminf_{n \rightarrow \infty} \inf_{P \in \mathbf{P}} P\{r_j(P) \in R_{n,j}\} \geq 1 - \alpha \tag{1}$$

for a pre-specified population $j \in J$, where \mathbf{P} denotes a “large” nonparametric family of distributions. Here, n denotes a measure of the size of the sample, typically the minimum sample size across populations. We

also construct (random) sets $R_n^{\text{joint}} \equiv \prod_{j \in J} R_{n,j}^{\text{joint}}$ such that

$$\liminf_{n \rightarrow \infty} \inf_{P \in \mathbf{P}} P \{r(P) \in R_n^{\text{joint}}\} \geq 1 - \alpha . \quad (2)$$

In all of our constructions, $R_{n,j}$ and $R_{n,j}^{\text{joint}}$ are subsets of J , allowing for the possibility that the lower endpoint is 1 or the upper endpoint is p to permit both one-sided and two-sided inference. Below, sets satisfying (1) are referred to as *marginal confidence sets for the rank of a single population* and sets satisfying (2) as *simultaneous confidence sets for the ranks of all populations*.

In addition, we consider the goal of constructing confidence sets for the identities of all populations whose rank is less than or equal to a pre-specified value $\tau \in J$, i.e, for a given value of $\alpha \in (0, 1)$, we construct (random) sets $J_n^{\tau\text{-best}}$ that are subsets of J and satisfy

$$\liminf_{n \rightarrow \infty} \inf_{P \in \mathbf{P}} P \{J_0^{\tau\text{-best}}(P) \subseteq J_n^{\tau\text{-best}}\} \geq 1 - \alpha , \quad (3)$$

where

$$J_0^{\tau\text{-best}}(P) \equiv \{j \in J : r_j(P) \leq \tau\} .$$

Sets satisfying (3) are referred to as *confidence sets for the τ -best populations*.

Much of the analysis relies upon confidence sets $C_n(1 - \alpha, S)$ for sets of pairwise differences,

$$\Delta_S(P) \equiv (\Delta_{j,k}(P) : (j, k) \in S) ,$$

where $\Delta_{j,k}(P) \equiv \theta(P_j) - \theta(P_k)$ and $S \subseteq \{(j, k) \in J \times J : j \neq k\}$. We require these to be rectangular in the sense that

$$C_n(1 - \alpha, S) = \prod_{(j,k) \in S} C_n(1 - \alpha, S, (j, k)) \quad (4)$$

for suitable sets $\{C_n(1 - \alpha, S, (j, k)) : (j, k) \in S\}$. Furthermore, we assume that they satisfy

$$\liminf_{n \rightarrow \infty} \inf_{P \in \mathbf{P}} P\{\Delta_S(P) \in C_n(1 - \alpha, S)\} \geq 1 - \alpha . \quad (5)$$

We now describe some examples of confidence sets that satisfy these two conditions. Let $\hat{\theta}_1, \dots, \hat{\theta}_p$ be estimators of the features $\theta(P_1), \dots, \theta(P_p)$ and $\hat{\sigma}_{j,k}^2$ an estimator of the variance of $\hat{\theta}_j - \hat{\theta}_k$. For $S \subseteq \{(j, k) \in J \times J : j \neq k\}$, define the following cumulative distribution functions:

$$L_{\text{lower},n}(x, S, P) \equiv P \left\{ \max_{(j,k) \in S} \frac{\hat{\theta}_j - \hat{\theta}_k - \Delta_{j,k}(P)}{\hat{\sigma}_{j,k}} \leq x \right\} , \quad (6)$$

$$L_{\text{upper},n}(x, S, P) \equiv P \left\{ \max_{(j,k) \in S} \frac{\Delta_{j,k}(P) - (\hat{\theta}_j - \hat{\theta}_k)}{\hat{\sigma}_{j,k}} \leq x \right\} , \quad (7)$$

$$L_{\text{symm},n}(x, S, P) \equiv P \left\{ \max_{(j,k) \in S} \frac{|\hat{\theta}_j - \hat{\theta}_k - \Delta_{j,k}(P)|}{\hat{\sigma}_{j,k}} \leq x \right\} . \quad (8)$$

Further consider estimators of (6) – (8) using an estimate \hat{P}_n of P to define the following confidence sets:

$$C_{\text{lower},n}(1 - \alpha, S) \equiv \prod_{(j,k) \in S} \left[\hat{\theta}_j - \hat{\theta}_k - \hat{\sigma}_{j,k} L_{\text{lower},n}^{-1}(1 - \alpha, S, \hat{P}_n), \infty \right), \quad (9)$$

$$C_{\text{upper},n}(1 - \alpha, S) \equiv \prod_{(j,k) \in S} \left(-\infty, \hat{\theta}_j - \hat{\theta}_k + \hat{\sigma}_{j,k} L_{\text{upper},n}^{-1}(1 - \alpha, S, \hat{P}_n) \right], \quad (10)$$

$$C_{\text{symm},n}(1 - \alpha, S) \equiv \prod_{(j,k) \in S} \left[\hat{\theta}_j - \hat{\theta}_k \pm \hat{\sigma}_{j,k} L_{\text{symm},n}^{-1}(1 - \alpha, S, \hat{P}_n) \right], \quad (11)$$

$$C_{\text{equi},n}(1 - \alpha, S) \equiv C_{\text{lower},n} \left(1 - \frac{\alpha}{2}, S \right) \cap C_{\text{upper},n} \left(1 - \frac{\alpha}{2}, S \right). \quad (12)$$

Here, it is understood that, for a cumulative distribution function $F(x)$ on the real line, the quantity $F^{-1}(1 - \alpha)$ is defined to be $\inf\{x \in \mathbf{R} : F(x) \geq 1 - \alpha\}$; it is also understood that, for real numbers a and b , $[a \pm b]$ is defined to be $[a - b, a + b]$. If the estimators $\hat{\theta}_1, \dots, \hat{\theta}_p$ are jointly asymptotically normally distributed, then the quantiles $L_{t,n}^{-1}(1 - \alpha, S, \hat{P}_n)$, $t \in \{\text{lower}, \text{upper}, \text{symm}\}$, can be computed from the limiting distributions of the max-statistics in (6)–(8), e.g., through simulation. Alternatively, resampling methods such as the bootstrap or subsampling may be employed.

The four confidence sets in (9)–(12) can be viewed as nonparametric generalizations of [Tukey \(1953\)](#)'s method for all pairwise comparisons and [Dunnett \(1955\)](#)'s method for comparisons with a control. The classical methods rely on the assumptions of normal populations and equal variances, under which critical values can be computed using Tukey's studentized range distribution or Dunnett's two-sided range distribution. We do not impose either of these assumptions, but rather only require an estimate \hat{P}_n of P so that the resulting confidence set satisfies (5). The argument establishing this condition determines how \mathbf{P} and \hat{P}_n should be defined. For example, suppose we observe an i.i.d. sample X_1, \dots, X_n , where $X_i \equiv (X_{i,1}, \dots, X_{i,p})'$ has distribution P . When \mathbf{P} is the set of distributions on \mathbb{R}^p satisfying a uniform integrability condition, then the bootstrap and subsampling lead to confidence sets satisfying (5) when $\theta(P)$ is the population mean vector and $\hat{\theta}_n$ is the sample mean vector. For other parameters and estimators, see [Romano and Shaikh \(2012\)](#). This result may also be adapted to the case in which, for each population $j \in J$, we observe n_j realizations from a distribution P_j and the populations are independent of each other, i.e., $X_{i,j}$ is independent of $X_{k,l}$ for all i, j, k, l such that $j \neq l$.

Remark 3.1. In light of the above discussion, whether the estimators $\hat{\theta}_1, \dots, \hat{\theta}_p$ are dependent or not does not pose any conceptual challenges to constructing confidence sets $C_n(1 - \alpha, S)$ satisfying (5). ■

Remark 3.2. [Romano and Shaikh \(2012\)](#) provide a general theory for establishing (5) in the case when the number of observations in each population diverges and the number of populations p is fixed. However, the results can be extended to the high-dimensional case in which p diverges, using, for instance, high-dimensional central limit theorems in [Chernozhukov et al. \(2013, 2017, 2019\)](#). For relevant results in the case in which each $\hat{\theta}_j$ is a sample mean, see [Bai et al. \(2019\)](#). ■

3.2 Marginal Confidence Sets for the Rank of a Single Population

3.2.1 A Simple Construction

Suppose we want to construct a confidence set for the rank of population $j \in J$. Define $S_j \equiv \{(j, k) : k \in J \setminus \{j\}\}$. For a confidence region $C_n(1 - \alpha, S_j)$ for $\Delta_{S_j}(P)$ that is rectangular in the sense of (4) with $\{C_n(1 - \alpha, S_j, (j, k)) : (j, k) \in S_j\}$, define

$$\begin{aligned} N_j^- &\equiv \{k \in J \setminus \{j\} : C_n(1 - \alpha, S_j, (j, k)) \subseteq \mathbf{R}_-\}, \\ N_j^+ &\equiv \{k \in J \setminus \{j\} : C_n(1 - \alpha, S_j, (j, k)) \subseteq \mathbf{R}_+\}, \end{aligned}$$

where $\mathbf{R}_+ \equiv (0, \infty)$ and $\mathbf{R}_- \equiv (-\infty, 0)$. Using this notation, we have the following result:

Theorem 3.1. *If $C_n(1 - \alpha, S)$ satisfies (4) with $S = S_j$, then, for any P ,*

$$P\{|N_j^-| + 1 \leq r_j(P) \leq p - |N_j^+|\} \geq P\{\Delta_{S_j}(P) \in C_n(1 - \alpha, S_j)\}.$$

If, in addition, $C_n(1 - \alpha, S)$ also satisfies (5) with $S = S_j$, then the confidence set

$$R_{n,j} \equiv \{|N_j^-| + 1, \dots, p - |N_j^+|\} \tag{13}$$

satisfies (1).

The lower bound of the confidence set involves the number confidence sets for the differences $\Delta_{S_j}(P)$ which lie entirely below zero, $|N_j^-|$. This quantity indicates the number of features $\theta(P_k)$ that are significantly larger than that of population j . The rank of j must therefore be strictly larger than $|N_j^-|$. Similarly, $|N_j^+|$ is the number of confidence sets that lie entirely above zero, so that there are $|N_j^+|$ populations with features $\theta(P_k)$ strictly smaller than that of population j . The rank of j can therefore be at most $p - |N_j^+|$.

The theorem shows that the confidence set $R_{n,j}$ covers the rank of population j with probability converging to at least $1 - \alpha$, uniformly over distributions $P \in \mathbf{P}$. As mentioned previously, Romano and Shaikh (2012) provide conditions on \mathbf{P} such that $C_n(1 - \alpha, S)$ satisfies (5). The confidence set therefore asymptotically covers the rank of population j with probability no less than $1 - \alpha$ even under sequences of distributions P_n with each $P_n \in \mathbf{P}$. In particular, $R_{n,j}$ covers the rank of j with probability converging to at least $1 - \alpha$ even under sequences where some (or all) of $\theta(P_{k,n})$ with $k \neq j$ approach $\theta(P_{j,n})$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$. In this sense, our results do not require the features $\theta(P_k)$ to be well separated from that of population j .

Remark 3.3. Choosing a one-sided (two-sided) confidence set $C_n(1 - \alpha, S_j)$ for the differences $\Delta_{S_j}(P)$ leads to a one-sided (two-sided) confidence set $R_{n,j}$ for the rank. For instance, suppose $C_n(1 - \alpha, S_j)$ is a lower bound such as (9). In that case, none of the confidence sets $C_n(1 - \alpha, S_j, (j, k))$ can lie entirely below zero, so that $|N_j^-| = 0$ and the resulting confidence set for the rank is an upper bound: $R_{n,j} = \{1, \dots, p - |N_j^+|\}$. Similarly, choosing $C_n(1 - \alpha, S_j)$ to be an upper bound such as (10) leads to the one-sided confidence set $R_{n,j} = \{|N_j^-| + 1, \dots, p\}$ on the rank. ■

Remark 3.4. Suppose $C_n(1 - \alpha, S_j)$ satisfies (4)–(5) with $S = S_j$ and that each $C_n(1 - \alpha, S_j, (j, k))$ with $(j, k) \in S_j$ is consistent in the sense that its length tends to zero as $n \rightarrow \infty$. If in addition all elements of $\theta(P)$ are distinct, then $R_{n,j} = r_j(P)$ with probability approaching one and, as a result, the coverage

probability $P\{r_j(P) \in R_{n,j}\}$ converges to one. This feature follows from the fact that if $\theta(P_j) > \theta(P_k)$, then with probability tending to one, $C_n(1 - \alpha, S_j, (j, k))$ lies entirely above zero. Similarly, if $\theta(P_j) < \theta(P_k)$, then with probability tending to one, $C_n(1 - \alpha, S_j, (j, k))$ lies entirely below zero. ■

Remark 3.5. Since the coverage result in Theorem 3.1 only requires the confidence set $C_n(1 - \alpha, S_j)$ to be rectangular and to satisfy (5), Remark 3.1 implies that there are no conceptual challenges in allowing for dependence in the estimators $\hat{\theta}_1, \dots, \hat{\theta}_p$. ■

Remark 3.6. In the presence of ties, there is some ambiguity in the way in which we define the rank of a population. Let $r_j(P) \equiv 1 + \sum_{k \in J} \mathbb{1}\{\theta(P_k) > \theta(P_j)\}$ and $\bar{r}_j(P) \equiv p - \sum_{k \in J} \mathbb{1}\{\theta(P_k) > \theta(P_j)\}$ be the smallest (i.e., best) and largest (i.e., worst) possible rank of population j . If population j is not tied with any other population, then $r_j(P) = \bar{r}_j(P)$ and the rank is unique. On the other hand, when population j is tied with at least one other population, then $r_j(P) < \bar{r}_j(P)$ and different definitions of the rank may select different values from the interval $R_j(P) \equiv [r_j(P), \bar{r}_j(P)]$. Suppose $C_n(1 - \alpha, S)$ satisfies (4) and (5) with $S = S_j$. An inspection of the proof of Theorem 3.1 reveals that the confidence set $R_{n,j}$ not only covers our definition of the rank, $r_j(P)$, in the sense of (1), but also any other “reasonable” definition of the rank in the sense that

$$\liminf_{n \rightarrow \infty} \inf_{P \in \mathbf{P}} P \{R_j(P) \subseteq R_{n,j}^{\text{cont}}\} \geq 1 - \alpha,$$

where $R_{n,j}^{\text{cont}} \equiv [\min(R_{n,j}), \max(R_{n,j})]$ is the interval from the smallest to the largest value in the confidence set $R_{n,j}$. In fact, one can show that there exist distributions P so that the inequality holds with equality:

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} P \{R_j(P) \subseteq R_{n,j}^{\text{cont}}\} = 1 - \alpha.$$

In this sense, our confidence set is not conservative. ■

Remark 3.7. In contrast to the confidence set $R_{n,j}$, those based on the bootstrap and Bayes approaches such as those in Goldstein and Spiegelhalter (1996) perform poorly when for some $k \neq j$ $\theta(P_k)$ is (close to) equal to $\theta(P_j)$. For concreteness, consider the following bootstrap procedure. For a population j , denote by $\hat{\theta}_j^*$ the estimator of $\theta(P_j)$ computed on a bootstrap sample and let \hat{r}_j^* be the rank computed using the bootstrap estimators $\hat{\theta}_1^*, \dots, \hat{\theta}_p^*$. Confidence sets for r_j could then be constructed using upper and/or lower empirical quantiles of \hat{r}_j^* conditional on the data. In Appendix A, we show that this intuitive approach fails to satisfy the uniform coverage requirement (1) unless $p = 2$. When there are ties with population j and $p > 2$, then the approach even fails the pointwise coverage requirement for a fixed P and, in fact, the coverage probability tends to zero as p grows. For further discussion, see Xie et al. (2009) and Hall and Miller (2009). Our approach, on the other hand, does not rely on a consistent estimator of the distribution of estimated ranks but rather on the availability of simultaneous confidence sets for the differences $\Delta_{S_j}(P)$ with asymptotically coverage no less than the desired level uniformly over $P \in \mathbf{P}$. Such simultaneous confidence sets are available under weak conditions and, in particular, do not restrict the configuration of the features $\theta(P_j)$. In comparison to Xie et al. (2009), our approach also circumvents smoothing of the indicator in the definition of the ranks and thus the need for choosing such a smoothing parameter. ■

Remark 3.8. Requiring the confidence sets for the differences $C_n(1 - \alpha, S)$, to be rectangular in the sense of (4) simplifies the presentation of our approach and the results, but is not essential. In practice, however, it might be computationally challenging to check whether a “slice” of a non-rectangular confidence region lies entirely above or below zero. ■

3.2.2 A Stepwise Improvement

In this section, we propose a stepwise method to improve the confidence set in Theorem 3.1. Our inference problem shares some similarities with Tukey's simultaneous comparisons of all pairwise means and Dunnett's comparisons of all means with a common control, which can be improved through the use of stepwise procedures; see Chapter 8 of Westfall et al. (1999) and Section 9 of Lehmann and Romano (2005). One key difference, however, is that the application of stepwise methods in our problem requires multiple tests that control not only the familywise error rate, but also directional errors. Unfortunately, little is known about control of directional errors in stepwise methods; Guo and Romano (2015) is one of only a few exceptions.

Consider the construction of a two-sided confidence set for the rank $r_j(P)$ by inverting tests of the family of two-sided hypotheses,

$$H_{j,k} : \Delta_{j,k}(P) = 0 \quad \text{versus} \quad K_{j,k} : \Delta_{j,k}(P) \neq 0 \quad (14)$$

for $(j, k) \in S_j$. A directional error occurs when the null hypothesis is rejected and $\Delta_{j,k}(P)$ is declared positive when in fact $\Delta_{j,k}(P)$ is negative; similarly, a directional error occurs if $\Delta_{j,k}(P)$ is declared negative when it is positive. By making directional claims to multiple tests of two-sided hypotheses, one is increasing the possibility of making errors and it is important to account for the possibility of such directional (or Type 3) errors. Define

$$\begin{aligned} S_j^-(P) &\equiv \{(j, k) \in S_j : \Delta_{j,k}(P) \leq 0\}, \\ S_j^+(P) &\equiv \{(j, k) \in S_j : \Delta_{j,k}(P) \geq 0\}, \end{aligned}$$

which are the sets of pairs of populations whose differences are smaller/larger than or equal to zero, and

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Rej}_j^- &\equiv \{(j, k) \in S_j : \text{reject } H_{j,k} \text{ and claim } \Delta_{j,k}(P) < 0\}, \\ \text{Rej}_j^+ &\equiv \{(j, k) \in S_j : \text{reject } H_{j,k} \text{ and claim } \Delta_{j,k}(P) > 0\}, \end{aligned}$$

which are the sets of pairs for which a test rejects the difference being equal to zero in favor of it being, respectively, strictly smaller or larger than zero. The probability of making any mistake, either a false rejection or an incorrect determination of a sign, is

$$\text{mdFWER}_P \equiv P \{S_j^+(P) \cap \text{Rej}_j^- \neq \emptyset \text{ or } S_j^-(P) \cap \text{Rej}_j^+ \neq \emptyset\}, \quad (15)$$

which is referred to as the *mixed directional familywise error rate*.

Our goal is to develop a multiple hypothesis testing procedure for (14) that controls the mdFWER and then obtain the desired two-sided confidence set for the rank $r_j(P)$ by replacing N_j^- and N_j^+ in (13) by Rej_j^- and Rej_j^+ . We consider multiple hypotheses testing procedures that control the mdFWER in the sense that

$$\limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sup_{P \in \mathbf{P}} \text{mdFWER}_P \leq \alpha \quad (16)$$

because the coverage probability of the resulting confidence set is bounded from below by one minus the mdFWER:

Theorem 3.2. For any P ,

$$P \{ |Rej_j^-| + 1 \leq r_j(P) \leq p - |Rej_j^+| \} \geq 1 - mdFWER_P.$$

Furthermore, if Rej_j^- and Rej_j^+ are computed by an algorithm for which (16) holds with $mdFWER_P$ as defined in (15), then the confidence set

$$R_{n,j} \equiv \{ |Rej_j^-| + 1, \dots, p - |Rej_j^+| \} \quad (17)$$

satisfies (1).

In order to implement the result in Theorem 3.2 we need to devise a procedure for testing (14) that controls the mdFWER. To this end, similarly as in Bauer et al. (1986), we propose to test the family of one-sided hypotheses,

$$H'_{k,l}: \Delta_{k,l}(P) \leq 0 \quad \text{versus} \quad K'_{k,l}: \Delta_{k,l}(P) > 0 \quad (18)$$

for $(k, l) \in S'_j \equiv \{(k, l) \in J \times J: k \neq l \text{ and one of } k, l \text{ is equal to } j\}$. Note that this family of null hypotheses includes the hypotheses $\Delta_{j,k}(P) \leq 0$ and $\Delta_{k,j}(P) \leq 0$. With

$$\begin{aligned} Rej_j'^- &\equiv \{(j, k) \in S_j: \text{reject } H'_{k,j} \text{ and claim } \Delta_{j,k}(P) < 0\}, \\ Rej_j'^+ &\equiv \{(j, k) \in S_j: \text{reject } H'_{j,k} \text{ and claim } \Delta_{j,k}(P) > 0\}, \end{aligned}$$

the *familywise error rate* for testing the family (18) can be written as

$$\begin{aligned} FWER'_P &\equiv P \{ \text{reject at least one true hypothesis } H'_{k,l} \text{ with } (k, l) \in S'_j \} \\ &= P \left\{ S_j^+(P) \cap Rej_j'^- \neq \emptyset \text{ or } S_j^-(P) \cap Rej_j'^+ \neq \emptyset \right\}. \end{aligned}$$

Notice that the mdFWER for testing the family of two-sided hypotheses in (14) is equal to the FWER for testing the family of one-sided hypotheses in (18), i.e., $mdFWER_P = FWER'_P$. Therefore, instead of devising a procedure that satisfies (16) we could instead devise one that satisfies

$$\limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sup_{P \in \mathbf{P}} FWER'_P \leq \alpha. \quad (19)$$

Consider the following simple one-step procedure. Let $C_n(1 - \alpha, S'_j)$ be the one-sided confidence set in (9) with $S = S'_j$. We reject any hypothesis $H'_{k,l}$, $(k, l) \in S'_j$, for which $C_n(1 - \alpha, S'_j, (k, l))$ does not contain zero and claim $\Delta_{k,l}(P) > 0$. Under suitable restrictions on \mathbf{P} , this approach satisfies (19), but it can be improved through a stepwise version similar to those in Romano and Wolf (2005):

Algorithm 3.1 (Stepdown Procedure).

Step 0: Set $I_0 = S'_j$ and $s = 0$.

Step 1: Form the confidence set $C_n(1 - \alpha, S)$ in (9) with $S = I_s$.

Step 2: Reject any $H'_{k,l}$ with $(k, l) \in I_s$ for which $0 \notin C_n(1 - \alpha, I_s, (k, l))$ and claim $\Delta_{k,l}(P) > 0$.

(a) If no (further) null hypotheses are rejected, then stop.

- (b) If any null hypotheses are rejected, then let $I_{s+1} \subset I_s$ denote the hypotheses that have not previously been rejected, set $s = s + 1$, and return to Step 1.

Under suitable restrictions on \mathbf{P} , this stepwise procedure satisfies (19) when $C_n(1 - \alpha, S)$ is, for example, one of the confidence sets described in Section 3.1; see Romano and Shaikh (2012). By Theorem 3.2, the confidence set

$$R_{n,j} \equiv \left\{ |\text{Rej}'_j^-| + 1, \dots, p - |\text{Rej}'_j^+| \right\},$$

where Rej'_j^- and Rej'_j^+ are computed through Algorithm 3.1, therefore satisfies (1).

Remark 3.9. Stepwise improvements of one-sided confidence sets for the rank can be devised through a small modification of Algorithm 3.1. Consider the goal of constructing a one-sided confidence set for the rank $r_j(P)$ with lower endpoint equal to 1 by inverting tests of the family of one-sided hypotheses

$$H_{j,k} : \Delta_{j,k}(P) \leq 0 \quad \text{versus} \quad K_{j,k} : \Delta_{j,k}(P) > 0$$

for all $(j, k) \in S_j$. This testing problem is identical to the one in (18) except that S'_j is replaced by S_j . Then, Algorithm 3.1, with S'_j replaced by S_j , yields $\text{Rej}'_j^- = \emptyset$ so the resulting confidence set $R_{n,j}$ in (17) has lower endpoint equal to 1 and satisfies (1). Analogously, we can construct a one-sided confidence set for the rank $r_j(P)$ with upper endpoint equal to p . ■

3.3 Joint Confidence Sets for the Ranks of All Populations

In this section, we show how arguments similar to those in Sections 3.2.1 and 3.2.2 can be used to construct simultaneous confidence sets for the ranks of all populations.

3.3.1 A Simple Construction

Define $S_{\text{all}} \equiv \{(j, k) \in J \times J : j \neq k\}$. Let $C_n(1 - \alpha, S_{\text{all}})$ be a confidence region for $\Delta_{S_{\text{all}}}(P)$ that is rectangular in the sense of (4) with $\{C_n(1 - \alpha, S_{\text{all}}, (j, k)) : (j, k) \in S_{\text{all}}\}$. Similarly to the definitions of N_j^- and N_j^+ , for each $j \in J$, denote by

$$\begin{aligned} N_{j,\text{all}}^- &\equiv \{k \in J \setminus \{j\} : C_n(1 - \alpha, S_{\text{all}}, (j, k)) \subseteq \mathbf{R}_-\}, \\ N_{j,\text{all}}^+ &\equiv \{k \in J \setminus \{j\} : C_n(1 - \alpha, S_{\text{all}}, (j, k)) \subseteq \mathbf{R}_+\} \end{aligned}$$

the sets of confidence sets for the differences $\Delta_{S_{\text{all}}}(P)$ that lie entirely below and above zero. The set $N_{j,\text{all}}^-$ ($N_{j,\text{all}}^+$) therefore contains all populations k whose features $\theta(P_k)$ are significantly larger (smaller) than that of population j . The following result is analogous to Theorem 3.1:

Theorem 3.3. *If $C_n(1 - \alpha, S)$ satisfies (4) with $S = S_{\text{all}}$, then, for any P ,*

$$P \left\{ \bigcap_{j \in J} \left\{ |N_{j,\text{all}}^-| + 1 \leq r_j(P) \leq p - |N_{j,\text{all}}^+| \right\} \right\} \geq P\{\Delta_{S_{\text{all}}}(P) \in C_n(1 - \alpha, S_{\text{all}})\}.$$

If, in addition, $C_n(1 - \alpha, S)$ also satisfies (5) with $S = S_{\text{all}}$, then the confidence set

$$R_n^{\text{joint}} \equiv \prod_{j \in J} \left\{ |N_{j,\text{all}}^-| + 1, \dots, p - |N_{j,\text{all}}^+| \right\} \quad (20)$$

satisfies (2).

Remarks similar to those after Theorem 3.1 also apply to Theorem 3.3.

Remark 3.10. An alternative approach to constructing a confidence set that satisfies (2) is based on simultaneous confidence sets for the features $\theta(P)$ rather than for their pairwise differences $\Delta_{S_{\text{all}}}(P)$. The recent paper by Klein et al. (2018) is a special case of this approach. In Appendix B, we prove that, in some special cases, the resulting confidence set for the ranking is strictly larger than our proposal in (20). In addition, in our simulations in Section 4, we find that their confidence set is always at least as large as ours, but in most cases substantially larger. ■

3.3.2 A Stepwise Improvement

Consider the goal of constructing a two-sided confidence set for all ranks. In order to describe a way in which we can improve upon Theorem 3.3 consider the problem of testing (14) for all $(j, k) \in S_{\text{all}}$. Define

$$\begin{aligned} S_{\text{all}}^-(P) &\equiv \{(j, k) \in S_{\text{all}} : \Delta_{j,k}(P) \leq 0\} , \\ S_{\text{all}}^+(P) &\equiv \{(j, k) \in S_{\text{all}} : \Delta_{j,k}(P) \geq 0\} \end{aligned}$$

and let $\text{Rej}_{j,\text{all}}^- \equiv \{k \in J : (j, k) \in \text{Rej}_{\text{all}}^-\}$ and $\text{Rej}_{j,\text{all}}^+ \equiv \{k \in J : (j, k) \in \text{Rej}_{\text{all}}^+\}$ with

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Rej}_{\text{all}}^- &\equiv \{(j, k) \in S_{\text{all}} : \text{reject } H_{j,k} \text{ and claim } \Delta_{j,k}(P) < 0\} , \\ \text{Rej}_{\text{all}}^+ &\equiv \{(j, k) \in S_{\text{all}} : \text{reject } H_{j,k} \text{ and claim } \Delta_{j,k}(P) > 0\} . \end{aligned}$$

The mixed directional familywise error rate for the problem of testing (14) for all $(j, k) \in S_{\text{all}}$ is then

$$\text{mdFWER}_P \equiv P \left\{ S_{\text{all}}^+(P) \cap \text{Rej}_{\text{all}}^- \neq \emptyset \text{ or } S_{\text{all}}^-(P) \cap \text{Rej}_{\text{all}}^+ \neq \emptyset \right\} . \quad (21)$$

The following result is analogous to Theorem 3.2.

Theorem 3.4. For any P ,

$$P \left\{ \bigcap_{j \in J} \left\{ |\text{Rej}_{j,\text{all}}^-| + 1 \leq r_j(P) \leq p - |\text{Rej}_{j,\text{all}}^+| \right\} \right\} \geq 1 - \text{mdFWER}_P .$$

Furthermore, if $\text{Rej}_{j,\text{all}}^-$ and $\text{Rej}_{j,\text{all}}^+$ are computed by an algorithm for which (16) holds with mdFWER_P as defined in (21), then the confidence set

$$R_n^{\text{joint}} \equiv \prod_{j \in J} \left\{ |\text{Rej}_{j,\text{all}}^-| + 1, \dots, p - |\text{Rej}_{j,\text{all}}^+| \right\} \quad (22)$$

satisfies (2).

In order to implement the result in Theorem 3.4 we need to devise a procedure that controls the mdFWER. As for the marginal confidence sets, we can control the mdFWER for the two-sided testing problem by controlling the FWER,

$$\text{FWER}'_P \equiv P\{\text{reject at least one true hypothesis } H'_{k,l} \text{ with } (k,l) \in S_{\text{all}}\}, \quad (23)$$

for the one-sided testing problem (18) with $(k,l) \in S_{\text{all}}$.

Consider the following simple one-step procedure. Let $C_n(1 - \alpha, S_{\text{all}})$ be the one-sided confidence set in (9) with $S = S_{\text{all}}$. We reject any hypothesis $H'_{k,l}$, $(k,l) \in S_{\text{all}}$, for which $C_n(1 - \alpha, S_{\text{all}}, (k,l))$ does not contain zero and claim $\Delta_{k,l}(P) > 0$. Under suitable restrictions on \mathbf{P} , this approach satisfies (19) with FWER'_P as defined in (23), but it can be improved through a stepwise version similar to those in Romano and Wolf (2005):

Algorithm 3.2 (Stepdown Procedure).

Step 0: Set $I_0 = S_{\text{all}}$ and $s = 0$.

Step 1: Form the confidence set $C_n(1 - \alpha, S)$ in (9) with $S = I_s$.

Step 2: Reject any $H'_{k,l}$ with $(k,l) \in I_s$ for which $0 \notin C_n(1 - \alpha, I_s, (k,l))$ and claim $\Delta_{k,l}(P) > 0$.

(a) If no (further) null hypotheses are rejected, then stop.

(b) If any null hypotheses are rejected, then let $I_{s+1} \subset I_s$ denote the hypotheses that have not previously been rejected, set $s = s + 1$, and return to Step 1.

Under suitable restrictions on \mathbf{P} , this stepwise procedure satisfies (19) with FWER'_P as defined in (23) when $C_n(1 - \alpha, S)$ is, for example, one of the confidence sets described in Section 3.1; see Romano and Shaikh (2012). By Theorem 3.4, the confidence set

$$R_n^{\text{joint}} \equiv \prod_{j \in J} \{|\text{Rej}_{\text{all}}^-| + 1, \dots, p - |\text{Rej}_{\text{all}}^+|\},$$

where $\text{Rej}_{\text{all}}^-$ and $\text{Rej}_{\text{all}}^+$ are computed through Algorithm 3.2, therefore satisfies (2).

3.4 Confidence Sets for the τ -Best Populations

The goal of this section is to construct confidence sets for the τ -best populations, i.e., for given values of $\tau \in J$ and $\alpha \in (0, 1)$, we want to construct (random) sets $J_n^{\tau\text{-best}}$ that satisfy (3).

Given a confidence set $R_n^{\text{joint}} \equiv \prod_{j \in J} R_{n,j}^{\text{joint}}$ that satisfies (2), such as those in (20) and (22), it is straightforward to construct $J_n^{\tau\text{-best}}$ satisfying (3) by defining

$$J_n^{\tau\text{-best}} \equiv \left\{ j \in J : \tau \in R_{n,j}^{\text{joint}} \right\}. \quad (24)$$

In this section, however, we propose a more “direct” approach which, in simulations, we have found to perform better than the naive projection in (24). For a given value of $\tau \in J$ and some $j \in J$, consider the

hypothesis

$$H_j : r_j(P) \leq \tau.$$

Let π be a permutation of J such that $\theta(P_{\pi(1)}) \geq \theta(P_{\pi(2)}) \geq \dots \geq \theta(P_{\pi(p)})$ and define $\mathcal{K} \equiv \{K \subset J : |K| = \tau - 1\}$ to be the set of all subsets of J with cardinality $\tau - 1$ (i.e., $\mathcal{K} = \{\emptyset\}$ when $\tau = 1$). The null hypothesis H_j is equivalent to

$$\max_{k \in J \setminus \{\pi(1), \dots, \pi(\tau-1)\}} \{\theta(P_k) - \theta(P_j)\} \leq 0$$

and implies

$$\min_{K \in \mathcal{K}} \max_{k \in J \setminus K} \{\theta(P_k) - \theta(P_j)\} \leq 0.$$

In order to form a test statistic for this inequality, we replace the features $\theta(P_j)$ by their estimators:

$$T_{n,j} \equiv \min_{K \in \mathcal{K}} \max_{k \in J \setminus K} \{\hat{\theta}_k - \hat{\theta}_j\}. \quad (25)$$

Further, for $I \subseteq J$ and $K \in \mathcal{K}$, let

$$T_{n,I,K} \equiv \max_{j \in I} \max_{k \in J \setminus K} \{\hat{\theta}_k - \hat{\theta}_j - \Delta_{k,j}(P)\}$$

and denote by $M_n(x, I, K, P) \equiv P\{T_{n,I,K} \leq x\}$ the cdf of $T_{n,I,K}$. Finally, define the critical value

$$\hat{c}_n(1 - \alpha, I) \equiv \max_{K \in \mathcal{K}} M_n^{-1}(1 - \alpha, I, K, \hat{P}_n)$$

for some estimate \hat{P}_n of P . The following algorithm is a stepwise procedure for testing the family of null hypotheses H_j with $j \in J$.

Algorithm 3.3.

Step 0: Set $I_0 = J$ and $s = 0$.

Step 1: Reject any H_j with $j \in I_s$ for which $T_{n,j} > \hat{c}_n(1 - \alpha, I_s)$.

- (a) If no (further) null hypotheses are rejected, then stop.
- (b) If any null hypotheses are rejected, then let $I_{s+1} \subset I_s$ denote the hypotheses that have not previously been rejected, set $s = s + 1$, and repeat Step 1.

The confidence set for the τ -best populations can then be defined as all those $j \in J$ for which H_j is not rejected by Algorithm 3.3.

Theorem 3.5. *Assume that, for each $K \in \mathcal{K}$,*

$$\liminf_{n \rightarrow \infty} \inf_{P \in \mathbf{P}} P \left\{ T_{n, J_0^{\tau\text{-best}}(P), K} \leq M_n^{-1}(1 - \alpha, J_0^{\tau\text{-best}}(P), K, \hat{P}_n) \right\} \geq 1 - \alpha. \quad (26)$$

Then the confidence set

$$J_n^{\tau\text{-best}} \equiv \{j \in J : H_j \text{ is not rejected}\},$$

computed through Algorithm 3.3, satisfies (3).

Under a uniform integrability condition on \mathbf{P} , the uniform asymptotic coverage requirement (26) holds for various choices of \hat{P}_n ; see Romano and Shaikh (2012).

Remark 3.11. One could replace $T_{n,j}$ by a studentized version of the statistic,

$$T_{n,j} \equiv \min_{K \in \mathcal{K}} \max_{k \in J \setminus K} \frac{\hat{\theta}_k - \hat{\theta}_j}{\hat{\sigma}_{k,j}},$$

where $\hat{\sigma}_{k,j}^2$ is an estimator of the variance of $\hat{\theta}_k - \hat{\theta}_j$, and modify $M_n(x, I, K, P)$ to be the distribution of

$$T_{n,I,K} \equiv \max_{j \in I} \max_{k \in J \setminus K} \frac{\hat{\theta}_k - \hat{\theta}_j - \Delta_{k,j}(P)}{\hat{\sigma}_{k,j}}.$$

Studentization may be especially desirable when the distributions of $\hat{\theta}_j$ vary considerably. ■

Remark 3.12. The computation of the critical value $\hat{c}_n(1 - \alpha, I)$ involves the maximization of $M_n^{-1}(1 - \alpha, I, K, \hat{P}_n)$ over $K \in \mathcal{K}$. For instance, when $\tau = 2$, then $\mathcal{K} = \{\{1\}, \{2\}, \dots, \{p\}\}$. For $\tau > 1$, there are $\binom{p}{\tau-1}$ elements in \mathcal{K} , so the construction of the critical value becomes computationally more demanding the larger τ . There are, however, at least two special cases in which the optimization becomes trivial. First of all, to form a confidence set for the best population ($\tau = 1$), no optimization is necessary because in this case $\mathcal{K} = \{\emptyset\}$. Second, suppose $\hat{\theta}_1 - \theta(P_1), \dots, \hat{\theta}_p - \theta(P_p)$ are exchangeable. In this case, one can show that $M_n(1 - \alpha, I, K, \hat{P}_n)$ is independent of K , so the computation of the critical value $\hat{c}_n(1 - \alpha, I)$ does not require optimization over $K \in \mathcal{K}$ regardless of the value of τ . ■

Remark 3.13. The τ -worst populations in terms of $\theta_1(P), \dots, \theta_p(P)$ are also the τ -best populations in terms of $-\theta_1(P), \dots, -\theta_p(P)$. Therefore, the procedure described above can be used for the construction of a confidence set for the τ -worst populations by simply changing the signs of the features $\theta(P_j)$ and their estimators. ■

Remark 3.14. Similarly to the reasoning in Remark 3.1 there are no conceptual challenges in satisfying (26) while allowing for dependence in the estimators $\hat{\theta}_1, \dots, \hat{\theta}_p$. ■

Remark 3.15. The problem of finding a subset $J_n^{\tau\text{-best}}$ satisfying (3) is related to the subset selection problem in the PhD thesis by Gupta (1956). He assumed that $\hat{\theta}_j$ and $\theta(P_j)$ are the sample and population mean, respectively, and are such that $\hat{\theta}_1 - \theta(P_1), \dots, \hat{\theta}_p - \theta(P_p)$ are i.i.d. from a normal distribution with known variance. For this case, he proposed a confidence set for the identity of the population with the largest mean. Many extensions of Gupta's idea have been proposed since then; see Gupta and Panchapakesan (1979, Chapters 11–19) for a review. Appendix C shows that this approach only guarantees coverage of one, but not necessarily all, of the best populations in case there are ties. For example, if there are only two populations ($p = 2$) and their means are equal, then the probability of Gupta's confidence set covering $J_0^{1\text{-best}}$ is strictly less than the desired level $1 - \alpha$. In contrast, the confidence set proposed in this section asymptotically covers $J_0^{\tau\text{-best}}$ for any $\tau \in J$ with probability no less than the desired level. Importantly, unlike Gupta's confidence set, our proposal does not rely on his i.i.d. assumption. Allowing for heterogeneity in the populations' distributions is important in our empirical applications in which the populations' variances differ substantially across populations. ■

4 Simulations

In this section, we examine the finite-sample performance of several procedures for constructing confidence sets for a single rank, for all ranks, and for the set of τ -best populations with a simulation study.

Data generating process

For each population $j = 1, \dots, p$, we generate an i.i.d. sample $X_{j,1}, \dots, X_{j,n}$ from $N(\theta_j, 1)$ so that all samples across populations are mutually independent. The parameter $\theta \equiv (\theta_1, \dots, \theta_p)'$ is defined as follows:

$$\begin{aligned}\theta_1 &= t_{max} + \delta_1 \\ \theta_2 = \theta_3 &= t_{max} + \frac{\delta_1}{\delta_2} \\ \theta_4, \dots, \theta_p &\text{ lie on a grid from } 0 \text{ to } t_{max}\end{aligned}$$

We vary $t_{max} \in \{0, 2\}$, δ_1 on a grid from 0 to 2, and $\delta_2 \in \{1, 3\}$. Therefore, in all scenarios, the first three populations, $j = 1, 2, 3$, possess ranks less than or equal to 2. All other elements of θ are placed on an equally spaced grid from 0 to t_{max} . The magnitude of δ_1 determines how well the top three populations are separated from the remaining ones and δ_2 how well (θ_2, θ_3) are separated from θ_1 . For $t_{max} = 0$, all populations outside the top three have equal mean, whereas for $t_{max} = 2$ they differ. When $t_{max} = 0$ and $\delta_1 = 0$, then all elements of θ are equal to 0. We also vary the number of populations $p \in \{3, 10, 50\}$ and the number of observations per population $n \in \{100, 200\}$. All simulations are based on 1,000 Monte Carlo samples and $\alpha = 0.05$.

Simulation exercises

We consider three inference problems: inference on the rank of the first population, simultaneous inference on all ranks, and inference on the set of τ -best populations with $\tau = 2$. Tables 4–9 show empirical coverage frequencies and Figures 15–17 plot the sizes, averaged over the Monte Carlo samples, of the confidence sets. For inference on a single and on all ranks, we present coverage of the set of ranks, i.e., of $R_j(P)$ and $R_1(P) \times \dots \times R_p(P)$ with $R_j(P)$ defined as in Remark 3.6.

We consider different procedures for constructing the confidence sets. Let $\hat{\theta}_j$ and $\hat{\sigma}_j^2$ denote the sample mean and variance for the j th population and $\hat{\sigma}_{j,k}^2 \equiv \hat{\sigma}_j^2 + \hat{\sigma}_k^2$. Critical values for the different methods are based on the parametric bootstrap to mimic inference in the empirical section, in which we only observe point estimates and standard errors so a nonparametric bootstrap cannot be implemented.¹ Specifically, we use 1,000 draws of normal random vectors $Z \equiv (Z_1, \dots, Z_p)' \sim N(0, \text{diag}(\hat{\sigma}_1^2, \dots, \hat{\sigma}_p^2))$. For inference on a single rank and on all ranks, we compare the following methods, setting $S = S_j$ or $S = S_{\text{all}}$, respectively:

“DM”: the simple constructions in (13) and (20), based on symmetric confidence sets for the differences in means as in (11), where $L_{\text{symm},n}^{-1}(1 - \alpha, S, \hat{P}_n)$ is the empirical $(1 - \alpha)$ -quantile of the 1,000 draws of $\max_{(j,k) \in S} |Z_j - Z_k| / \hat{\sigma}_{j,k}$.

¹Simulation results for the nonparametric bootstrap, which are not reported here, are very similar to the results for the parametric bootstrap.

“**DM.step**”: the stepwise constructions (17) computed through Algorithm 3.1 and (22) computed through Algorithm 3.2, based on confidence sets for the differences in means as in (9), where, in the s th step, $L_{\text{lower},n}^{-1}(1 - \alpha, I_s, \hat{P}_n)$ is the empirical $(1 - \alpha)$ -quantile of the 1,000 draws of $\max_{(j,k) \in I_s} (Z_j - Z_k) / \hat{\sigma}_{j,k}$.

“**M**”: the alternative confidence set described in Appendix B, based on symmetric confidence sets for the means as in (34), where $\tilde{q}_{1-\alpha}$ is the empirical $(1 - \alpha)$ -quantile of the 1,000 draws of $\max_{j \in J} |Z_j| / \hat{\sigma}_j$.

For inference on the τ -best populations, we compare the following methods:

“**DM**”: the projection confidence set in (24), based on confidence sets for the differences in means as in (10), where $L_{\text{upper},n}^{-1}(1 - \alpha, S, \hat{P}_n)$ is the empirical $(1 - \alpha)$ -quantile of the 1,000 draws of $\max_{(j,k) \in S_{\text{all}}} (Z_k - Z_j) / \hat{\sigma}_{j,k}$.

“**DM.step**”: the projection confidence set “DM” except that stepwise improvements as in Remark 3.9 are applied.

“**T**”: the test inversion procedure from Section 3.4, using the test statistic in (25), where the critical value $\hat{c}_n(1 - \alpha, I)$ is the maximum (over $K \in \mathcal{K}$) of the empirical $(1 - \alpha)$ -quantile of the 1,000 draws of $\max_{j \in J} \max_{k \in J \setminus K} \{Z_k - Z_j\}$.

“**M**”: the projection confidence set in (24), based on symmetric confidence sets for the differences in means as in “M” above.

“**naive**”: select the two populations with the largest sample means.

Results for inference on a single and on all ranks

We obtain five insights from the simulation results for inference on a single and on all ranks. First, Tables 4–7 show that all methods control the coverage frequency at the desired nominal level for small and large sample sizes, regardless of whether means are tied or nearly tied, and regardless of whether there are few or many populations to be ranked. The only instances of some degree of undercoverage occur when means outside of the top three populations are not well separated ($t_{\text{max}} = 0$) and either the sample size is small or the number of populations is large (see Tables 4 and 6).

Second, the coverage frequency of “M” is approximately equal to one in all scenarios whereas our methods “DM” and “DM.step” tend to have coverage frequency closer to the desired level. In consequence, our methods tend to lead to confidence sets for the ranks that are not larger than those of “M” and substantially smaller in most scenarios. This can be clearly seen in Figures 15 and 16. The confidence set of “M” maybe more than twice as large as those of “DM” and “DM.step” (see, for example, the top row of graphs in Figure 15).

Third, Figures 15 and 16 show that all methods lead to confidence sets that become smaller as the means become better separated from each other (δ_1 increases or δ_2 decreases). Consider, for example, inference on the rank of the first population in Figure 15. The top row of graphs shows the average length of confidence sets for $\delta_2 = 3$, $t_{\text{max}} = 0$, and $p = 10$. When $\delta_1 = 0$, then all means are equal to zero, so the first population’s mean is not separated from any of the other means. In this case, the confidence sets have length close to ten. As δ_1 increases the mean of the first population becomes well separated from all other populations and

the lengths of the confidence sets decrease towards one. The bottom row of graphs shows the average length of confidence sets for $\delta_2 = 1$, $t_{max} = 0$, and $p = 10$. Similarly as in the top row, for $\delta_1 = 0$ all means are equal to zero and the confidence sets have length close to ten. As δ_1 increases, however, the lengths of the confidence sets decrease towards three rather than one because, in this scenario, the first three populations are tied at rank equal to one. These results illustrate the fact that our confidence sets control the coverage probability uniformly over data-generating processes, even when there are (near-)ties.

Fourth, comparing left and right columns of the graphs in Figures 15 and 16 shows that the lengths of the confidence sets decrease as the sample size grows, reflecting the fact that a large sample size leads to small variances of the estimated means so that true differences in means are easier to detect.

Finally, comparing Tables 4 and 5 shows that the means outside of the top three being equal ($t_{max} = 0$) or well separated ($t_{max} = 2$) has almost no effect on the coverage frequencies of the confidence sets for the first population. In contrast, comparing Tables 6 and 7 reveals that, for the simultaneous confidence sets for all ranks, the degree of separation governed by t_{max} has a large impact. When all means are well separated, then the confidence sets recover the true differences between the means with high probability (in fact, with probability approaching one as the sample size grows) so the coverage probability of the simultaneous confidence sets is close to one.

Results for inference on the τ -best populations

The simulation results for inference on the τ -best populations provide four insights. First, Tables 8 and 9 show that all methods except “naive” control the coverage frequency at the desired nominal level for small and large sample sizes, regardless of whether means are tied or nearly tied, and regardless of whether there are few or many populations to be ranked. The “naive” method never covers the set of τ -best populations because, by definition it only selects two populations even though, in all scenarios, there are at least three populations among the two best.

Second, the coverage frequency of “M” is approximately equal to one in all scenarios whereas our methods “T”, “DM” and “DM.step” tend to have coverage frequency closer to the nominal level. In consequence, our methods tend to lead to confidence sets for the 2-best populations that are not larger than those of “M” and substantially smaller in most scenarios. For instance, the top row of graphs in Figure 17 shows that the confidence sets of “M” may be up to about 50% larger than those of our proposed methods. The more direct method (“T”) generally produces even smaller confidence sets than the projection methods “DM” and “DM.step”, but the gains are modest. Similarly, the stepwise improvements (“DM.step”) help shorten the confidence sets relative to “DM”, but the gains are modest. Overall, the three methods “DM”, “DM.step”, and “T” perform similarly well.

Third, as in the case of inference on a single rank and on all ranks, comparing the top and the bottom rows of Figure 17 shows that as the first three populations’ means become better separated from the others (δ_2 decreases or δ_1 increases). The lengths of the confidence sets shrink because it is easier to recover the populations with rank less than or equal to two (exactly those first three populations).

Fourth, as in the case of inference on a single rank and on all ranks, comparing the left and the right columns of Figure 17 shows that an increase in sample size leads to smaller confidence sets.

Finally, comparing all columns in Tables 8 and 9 except the first ones shows that the means for populations with rank strictly larger than two being equal ($t_{max} = 0$) or well separated ($t_{max} = 2$) has no effect on the coverage frequencies of the confidence sets for the first population. This degree of separation only matters when the populations of rank no larger than two are not well separated from the remaining populations (first columns of the two tables). In this case, better separation of the means (first column of Table 9 compared to first column of Table 8) leads to recovery of the true differences between the means with higher probability so the coverage probability of the confidence set for the 2-best is higher.

5 Empirical Applications

5.1 Ranking of Developed Countries by Student Performance in PISA

We now apply our inference procedures from Section 3 to re-examine the question that motivates the PISA test: Which countries do best and worst at reading, math, and science?

What is PISA and why does it matter?

Over the past two decades, the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) have conducted the PISA test. The goal of this test is to evaluate and compare educational systems across countries by measuring 15-year-old school students' scholastic performance on mathematics, science, and reading. The PISA test was first performed in 2000 and then repeated every three years. Each country that participates in a given year has to draw a sample of at least 5,000 students to be tested. The results from the PISA test are reported on a scale constructed using a generalized form of the Rasch model (OECD, 2017). For each domain (reading, math, and science), the scale is constructed with a mean score of 500 and standard deviation of 100. The scores are then tabulated by country in what has become known as PISA's international league tables.

Every three years, the release of these league tables stimulates a global discussion about education systems and school reform in both international media and at the national level across many OECD countries. Indeed, several governments have set national performance targets based on how well the country ranks in the league tables (Breakspear (2012)). A low ranking in the PISA league table is known to cause media attention and political discussion. In Germany, for example, the poor results in the first PISA test triggered a heated debate about the country's education system, which ultimately resulted in wideranging reforms (Hubert, 2006).

How much should we trust the ranking in PISA's league tables?

In order to examine which countries do best and worst at reading, math, and science, we use publicly available data from the 2018 PISA test. We restrict attention to the OECD countries. Since PISA never combines math, science, and reading scores into an overall score, we perform our analyses separately for each domain. For brevity, we focus on the league table for reading, but we report a complete set of results for each domain in Appendix F.1.

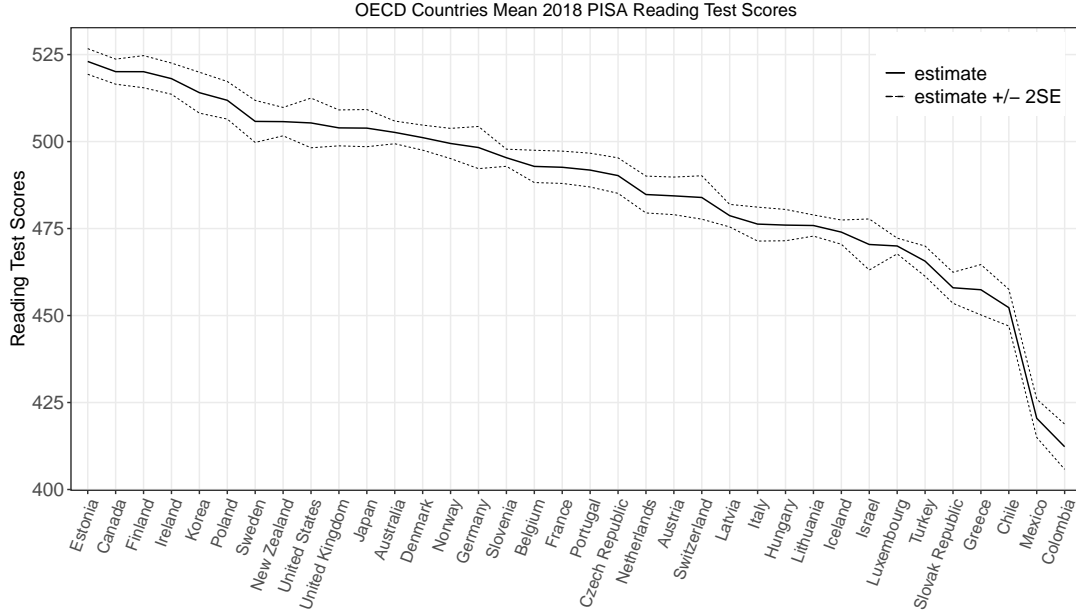


Figure 4: Point estimates and marginal confidence intervals (estimates plus or minus twice the standard errors) of the expected reading score on the PISA test for each OECD country (except for Spain for which there is no data)

We begin by presenting the point estimates and marginal confidence intervals (estimates plus or minus twice the standard errors) for the expected reading test score in each OECD country.² These results are reported in Figure 4. There is considerable variation in the point estimates across countries. Estonia ranks first with an average test score of around 523. The runner up is Canada, followed by Finland in third place. At the bottom of the league table, one finds Chile, Mexico, and Columbia. These countries have reading scores that are more than 20% lower than the countries at the top of the league table.

By applying our procedures from Section 3 to the point estimates and standard errors in Figure 4, we can compute (i) the marginal confidence set for the rank of a given country, (ii) the simultaneous confidence set for the ranks of all countries, and (iii) confidence sets for the τ -best (or the τ -worst) countries. Marginal confidence sets answer the question of whether a given country is performing relatively well on the reading test as compared to the other countries. Thus, (i) is relevant if one is interested in whether a particular country is among the worst or the best countries in terms of its scholastic performance on reading. Simultaneous confidence sets allow such inferences to be drawn simultaneously for all countries. Thus, (ii) is relevant if one is interested in broader geographic patterns of scholastic performance in reading across OECD countries. By comparison, confidence sets for the τ -best (or τ -worst) answer the more specific question of which OECD countries cannot be ruled out as being among the countries with the best (worst) scholastic performance in reading. In other words, (iii) is relevant if one is interested in only the top (or bottom) of the international league table.

The confidence sets are implemented as described in Section 4, using the stepwise procedures (“DM.step”) for the confidence sets for ranks and the projection method (“DM.step”) for the τ -best and τ -worst problems. All confidence sets are computed at the 95% nominal level.

²The only exception is Spain, for which there is no data available.

Figure 5 presents the ranking of the OECD countries according to the point estimates of the expected reading scores. Panel A displays the marginal confidence sets while Panel B reports the simultaneous confidence sets. Table 2 reports additional results for the top five countries (Panel A) and the bottom five countries (Panel B). Each Panel of this table presents results for math, reading, and science. For each domain, we report the point estimates, the standard errors, the 95% marginal confidence sets for the ranks, and the number of countries that cannot be ruled out (with 95% confidence) as being among the set of countries with the τ -highest (top panel) or the τ -lowest (bottom panel) expected PISA test scores.

As evident from Panel A of Figure 5, the marginal confidence sets are relatively narrow, especially for the countries at the top and the bottom of the ranking. This finding suggests that citizens of these countries can be quite confident in the reading performance of their pupils. For instance, the lower endpoint of the confidence set for Estonia suggests it is (with 95% confidence) the country with at least the fifth-highest expected test score. By comparison, the upper endpoint of the confidence set for Columbia suggests (with 95% confidence) that it is among the bottom two OECD countries in terms of scholastic performance on reading.

A natural question is whether the ranking of the OECD countries according to the expected reading score remains informative if one allows inferences to be drawn simultaneous across all countries. The results in Panel B of Figure 5 suggest the ranking remains fairly informative, especially at the top and at the bottom of the PISA league table. Therefore, we can be fairly certain about which countries are at the top and bottom of the ranking. In addition, the columns denoted by “ τ -best” and “ τ -worst” in Table 2 show the number of countries in the 95% confidence set for the τ -best and τ -worst. Only eight (five) countries cannot be ruled out as being among the top (bottom) three countries in terms of scholastic performance on reading.

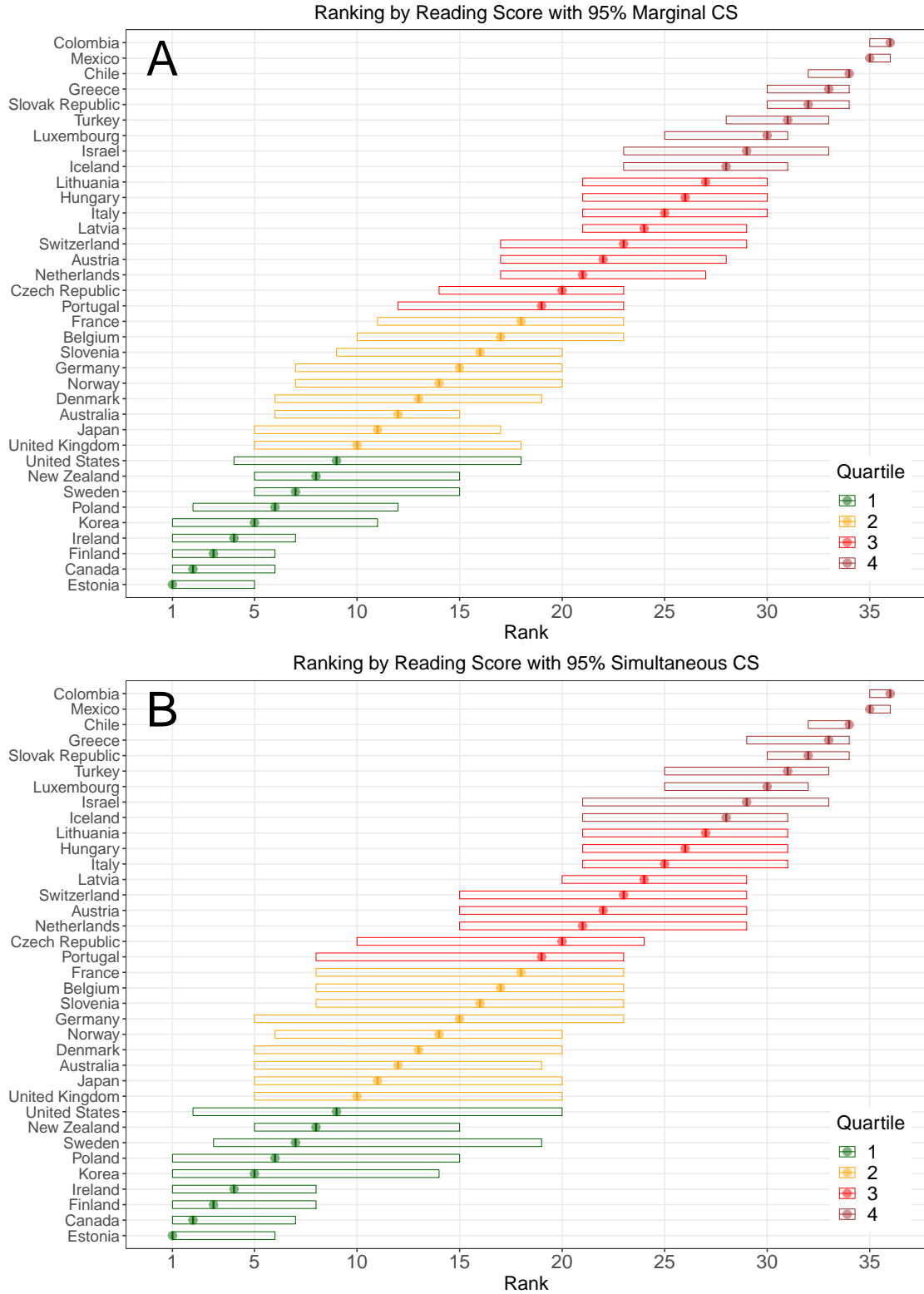


Figure 5: **Panel A:** for each OECD country, we plot its rank by reading score and the 95% marginal confidence set (“CS”). **Panel B:** for each OECD country, we plot its rank by reading score and the 95% simultaneous confidence set (“CS”). Different quartiles of the rankings are indicated with different colors.

Panel A: Top 5

Rank	τ	Math					Reading					Science				
		Country	Score	SE	95% CS	τ -best	Country	Score	SE	95% CS	τ -best	Country	Score	SE	95% CS	τ -best
1	1	Japan	526.97	2.47	[1, 6]	6	Estonia	523.02	1.84	[1, 5]	6	Estonia	530.11	1.88	[1, 4]	4
2	2	Korea	525.93	3.12	[1, 6]	7	Canada	520.09	1.80	[1, 6]	7	Japan	529.14	2.59	[1, 4]	5
3	3	Estonia	523.41	1.74	[1, 6]	7	Finland	520.08	2.31	[1, 6]	8	Finland	521.88	2.51	[1, 6]	6
4	4	Netherlands	519.23	2.63	[1, 8]	11	Ireland	518.08	2.24	[1, 7]	8	Korea	519.01	2.80	[2, 7]	7
5	5	Poland	515.65	2.60	[1, 11]	13	Korea	514.05	2.94	[1, 11]	14	Canada	518.00	2.15	[3, 7]	11

Panel B: Bottom 5

Rank	τ	Math					Reading					Science				
		Country	Score	SE	95% CS	τ -worst	Country	Score	SE	95% CS	τ -worst	Country	Score	SE	95% CS	τ -worst
33	5	Turkey	453.51	2.26	[32, 34]	6	Slovakia	457.98	2.23	[30, 34]	8	Israel	462.20	3.62	[30, 34]	9
34	4	Greece	451.37	3.09	[32, 34]	6	Greece	457.41	3.62	[30, 34]	7	Greece	451.63	3.14	[33, 35]	6
35	3	Chile	417.41	2.42	[35, 36]	3	Chile	452.27	2.64	[32, 34]	5	Chile	443.58	2.42	[34, 35]	4
36	2	Mexico	408.80	2.49	[35, 36]	3	Mexico	420.47	2.75	[35, 36]	2	Mexico	419.20	2.58	[36, 37]	2
37	1	Colombia	390.93	2.99	[37, 37]	1	Colombia	412.30	3.25	[35, 36]	2	Colombia	413.32	3.05	[36, 37]	2

Table 2: **Panel A:** Top 5 among the OECD countries ranked by PISA test scores in Math, Reading, and Science with the marginal 95% confidence sets (“CS”) for their ranks and the size of the 95% confidence set for the τ -best. **Panel B:** Bottom 5 among the OECD countries ranked by PISA test scores in Math, Reading, and Science with marginal 95% confidence sets (“CS”) for their ranks and the size of the 95% confidence set for the τ -worst. *Note:* Spain is absent in the Reading test score results so the lowest possible rank for Reading is 36.

5.2 Ranking Neighborhoods by Intergenerational Mobility

We now apply our inference procedures from Section 3 to re-examine the question that motivates the work of Chetty et al. (2014, 2018) and Chetty and Hendren (2018): Where in the United States is the land of opportunity?

Data and background

The empirical analysis in this section is based on publicly available estimates of intergenerational income mobility across areas in the United States. These estimates come from two studies that both use tax records covering the U.S. population. The first is Chetty et al. (2018).³ They document how children’s expected incomes conditional on their parents’ incomes vary according to the area (commuting zone (CZ), county, or Census tract) in which they grew up. The second is Chetty and Hendren (2018).⁴ The goal of this paper is to examine the degree to which the differences in income mobility across areas reflect causal effects of place. Both studies present the empirical results through league tables and heat maps which rank places according to point estimates of income mobility.

In the baseline analysis, Chetty et al. (2018) define the following measure of intergenerational mobility:

$$\bar{y}_{cp} \equiv E[y_i | c(i) = c, p(i) = p], \quad (27)$$

where y_i is child i ’s percentile rank in the national distribution of incomes relative to all others in her birth cohort; child i ’s income is measured as her average income in the years 2014–2015 (aged 31–37 depending on cohort); $p(i)$ denotes the child’s parental income percentile in the national distribution of parental income in child i ’s birth cohort; and $c(i)$ is the area in which the child i grew up. As in Chetty et al. (2018), we focus on \bar{y}_{c25} , the expected income rank of children who grew up in area c with parents at the 25th percentile of the national income distribution of parental income. Following Chetty et al. (2018), we refer to the estimates of \bar{y}_{c25} as *correlational estimates* of upward mobility.

In Figure 6, we present the estimates of \bar{y}_{c25} with marginal confidence intervals (estimates plus or minus twice the standard errors) from Chetty et al. (2018). These correlational estimates of upward mobility cover all the 741 commuting zones and 3208 of the 3219 counties.⁵ We first sort the places by the values of \hat{y}_{c25} , and then report these point estimates and their marginal confidence intervals for each CZ (top graph) and county (bottom graph). There is considerable variation in \hat{y}_{c25} across areas. Since CZs typically comprise several counties, it is not surprising that the standard errors tend to be a lot larger when a neighborhood is defined as a county rather than as a CZ.

In Chetty and Hendren (2018), the parameters of interest are the exposure effects of spending an additional year of one’s childhood in a given area. Consider a child i from a set of one-time movers from an origin $o(i)$ to a destination $d(i)$. She moves at the age $m(i)$ and spends $A - m(i)$ time in the destination.

³The data files could be accessed following these links: [commuting zones](#); [counties](#) and [tracts](#). The variables of interest in all three files are `kfr_pooled_pooled_p25` and `kfr_pooled_pooled_p25_se`.

⁴The data files could be accessed following these links: [commuting zones](#) and [counties](#). The variables of interest are `causal_p25_czkr26` and `causal_p25_czkr26_se` for commuting zones; `causal_p25_cty_kr26` and `causal_p25_cty_kr26_se` for counties.

⁵Following Chetty et al. (2018) we use 1990 Commuting Zones classification and 2000 counties classification. For 11 counties data is not available.

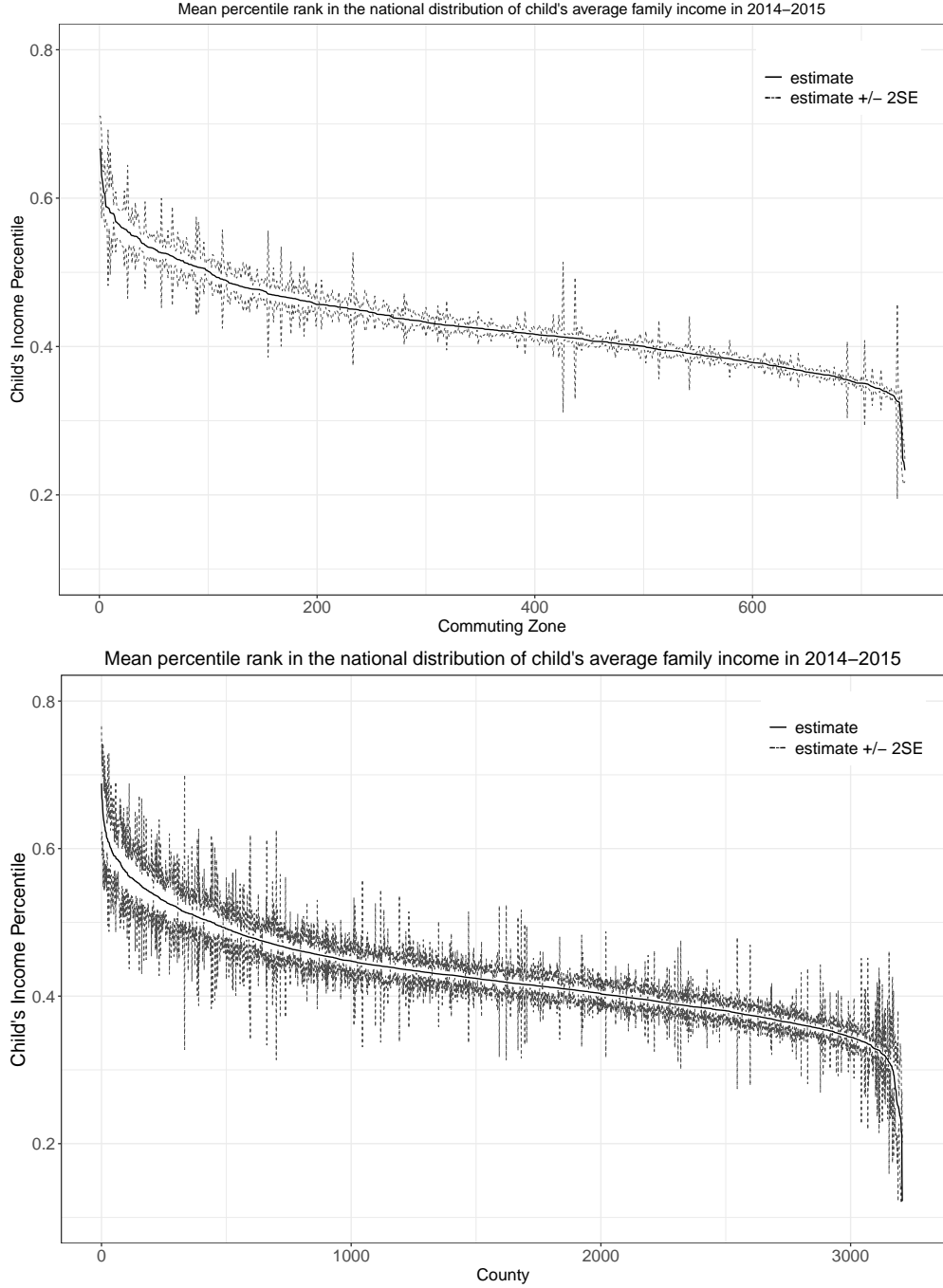


Figure 6: Estimates of \bar{y}_{c25} , the expected percentile rank of a child's average household income for 2014-2015 in the national distribution of her cohort, with marginal confidence intervals (estimates plus or minus twice the standard errors). The estimates cover all 741 commuting zones (Top) and 3208 of the 3219 counties (Bottom).

The (vector of the) amount of time spent in a given area is denoted by:

$$e_{ic} \equiv \begin{cases} A - m_i & c = d(i) \\ m_i & c = o(i) \\ 0 & \text{elsewhere} \end{cases} \quad (28)$$

The exposure effects can be estimated by the regression model:

$$y_i = \alpha_{od} + \vec{e}_i \cdot \vec{\mu} + \varepsilon_i, \tag{29}$$

where α_{od} is an origin-by-destination fixed effect, $\vec{e}_i \equiv (e_{ic}: c = 1, 2, \dots)$ is a vector of explanatory variables for the number of years that child i lived in place c during her childhood, and the exposure effects are given by the parameters $\vec{\mu} \equiv (\mu_{cp}: c = 1, 2, \dots) \equiv (\mu_c^0 + \mu_c^1 p: c = 1, 2, \dots)$, where p is the parental income percentile. The estimates are normalized to be mean zero across places, so that μ_{cp} measures the exposure effect relative to the average place. As in [Chetty and Hendren \(2018\)](#) we focus on μ_{c25} , the effect of spending an additional year of childhood in area c for children with parents at the 25th percentile of the national income distribution of parental income. Following [Chetty and Hendren \(2018\)](#), we refer to the estimates of μ_{c25} as *movers estimates* of exposure effects.

In [Figure 7](#), we present the point estimates of μ_{c25} with marginal confidence intervals (estimates plus or minus twice the standard errors) from [Chetty and Hendren \(2018\)](#). These results cover 595 of the 741 CZs and 2367 of the 3219 counties.⁶ The point estimates suggest considerable variation in exposure effects across areas. The standard errors are, however, sizable, indicating that it can be difficult to draw firm conclusions about which areas produce more or less upward mobility.

Given the relatively large standard errors, in a subset of the analyses, we restrict attention to the most populous CZs and counties. The motivation for this sample restriction is to examine if one can achieve a more informative ranking by restricting attention to larger areas. This sample restriction is also imposed in a subset of the analyses of [Chetty et al. \(2014, 2018\)](#) and [Chetty and Hendren \(2018\)](#). In [Appendix F.2](#), we present point estimates of \bar{y}_{c25} and μ_{c25} with marginal confidence intervals for the 50 most populous CZs and counties. As expected, the estimates are more precise for this restricted set of areas as compared to the population of CZs and counties at large. The gains in precision are particularly salient for the correlational estimates. By way of comparison, the standard errors of the movers estimates remain relatively large even if one restricts attention to the most populous areas.

Before we present the confidence sets for the ranks, there are two remarks worth making about the estimated exposure effects. First, [Chetty and Hendren \(2018\)](#) report both the raw estimates of the exposure effect of place c , μ_{c25} , as well as forecasts that minimize the mean-squared-error (MSE) of the predicted impact of growing up in place c . We focus on the raw estimates. This choice is, in part, because [Chetty and Hendren \(2018\)](#) do not report the confidence intervals on the forecasts, but also because the forecasts are very similar to the correlational estimates in most CZs. The reason is that the forecasts are constructed as weighted averages of the correlational estimates (based on stayers) and the mover estimates, with greater weight on the mover estimates when they are more precisely estimated. Given that most estimates of μ_{c25} are very noisy, the forecast estimates are very similar to the correlational estimates. Indeed, we calculate that in a majority of the CZs, the forecasts assign at least 90 percent of the weight to the correlational estimates.

Second, the movers estimators may not necessarily be independent across CZs. While our inference procedures accommodate dependence in a straightforward fashion (see [Remarks 3.5](#) and [3.14](#)), doing so would require not only standard errors for each mobility estimate, but an estimate of the whole covariance matrix of the estimators. Such information is unfortunately not available to us. Thus, we are unable to

⁶[Chetty and Hendren \(2018\)](#) do not report results for the other counties and CZs due to limited data in these areas.

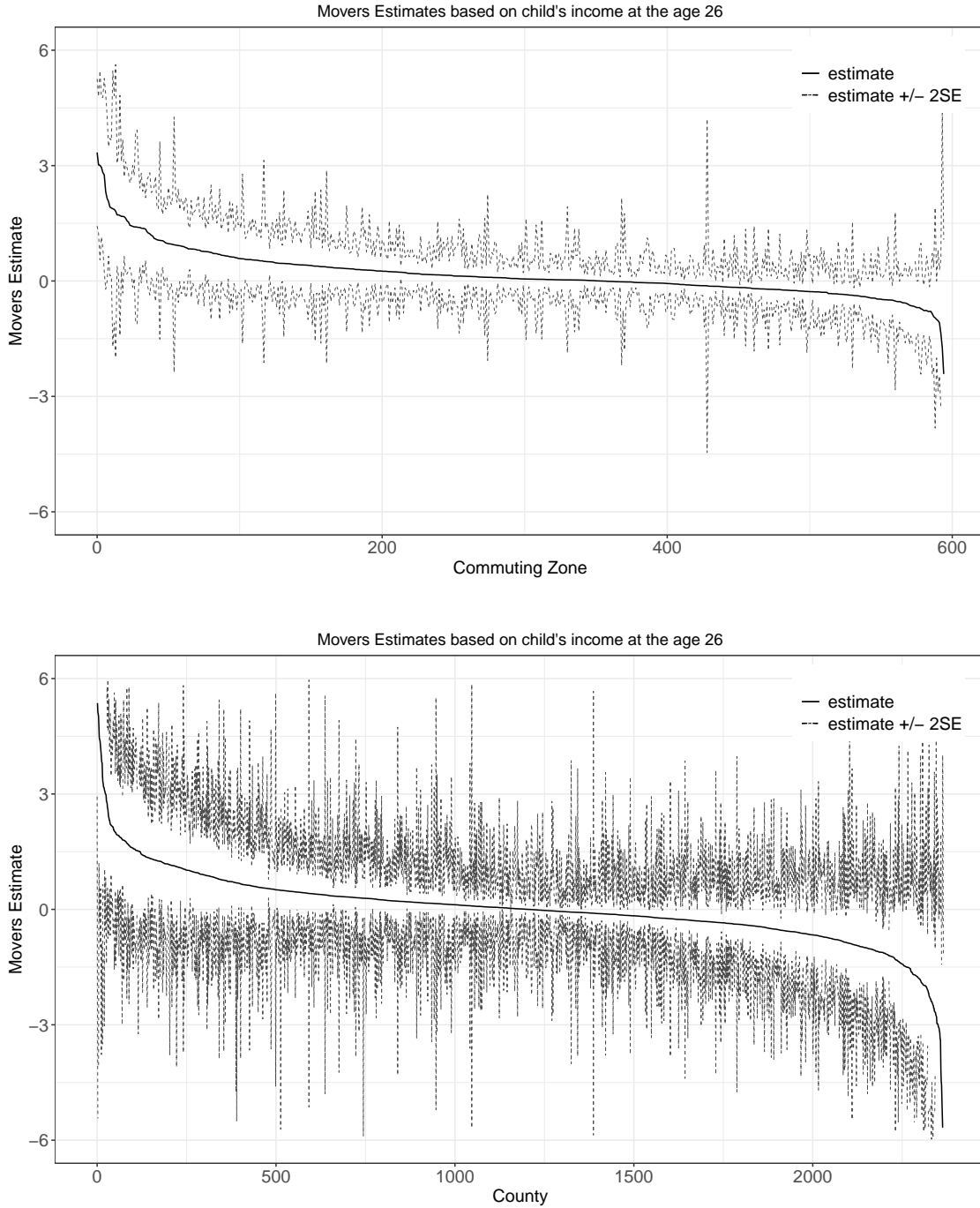


Figure 7: Movers estimates of exposure effects μ_{c25} with marginal confidence intervals (estimates plus or minus twice the standard errors). The estimates cover 595 of the 741 commuting zones (Top) and 2367 of the 3219 counties (Bottom).

examine if the movers estimators are dependent or incorporate such dependence in the construction of the confidence sets for the ranks. Furthermore, ignoring potential dependence among the estimators most likely understates the uncertainty in the estimates we use, so we conjecture our very wide confidence sets for the

ranks would widen even further when accounting for dependence.

Ranking places by income mobility

By applying our procedures from Section 3 to the point estimates and standard errors in Figures 6 and 7, we can compute (i) the marginal confidence sets for the rank of a given place, (ii) the simultaneous confidence sets for the ranks of all places, and (iii) the confidence sets for the τ -best (or the τ -worst) ranked places.

Before presenting the results, we again emphasize that (i)–(iii) answer distinct economic questions. Marginal confidence sets answer the question of whether a given place has relatively high or low income mobility compared to other places. Thus, (i) is relevant if one is interested in whether a particular place is among the worst or the best places to grow up in terms of income mobility. Simultaneous confidence sets allow such inferences to be drawn simultaneously across all places. Thus, (ii) is relevant if one is interested in broader geographic patterns of income mobility across the United States. By comparison, confidence sets for the τ -best (or τ -worst) answer the more specific question of which places cannot be ruled out as being among the areas with the most (least) income mobility. In other words, (iii) is relevant if one is interested in only the top (or bottom) of a league table of neighborhoods by income mobility.

The confidence sets are implemented as described in Section 4, using the stepwise procedures (“DM.step”) for the confidence sets for ranks and the projection method (“DM.step”) for the τ -best and τ -worst problems. All confidence sets are computed at the 95% nominal level.

Ranking of the most populous places

We begin the empirical analysis by considering the 50 largest CZs by population size. Figure 8 presents the ranking of these CZs according to the point estimates of \bar{y}_{c25} . Panel A displays the marginal confidence sets while Panel B reports the simultaneous confidence sets. Table 3 reports additional results for the top five CZs (Panel A) and the bottom five CZs (Panel B). Each panel of this table presents two sets of results: Columns 3–7 are based on the correlational estimates of upward mobility \bar{y}_{c25} , while columns 8–12 are based on the movers estimates of exposure effects μ_{c25} . For each set of results, we report the point estimates, the standard errors, the 95% marginal confidence sets, and the number of places in the 95% confidence sets for the τ -best (top panel) or the τ -worst values of \bar{y}_{c25} or μ_{c25} .

Among the 50 largest CZs by population size, the point estimates of \bar{y}_{c25} range from 0.457 in San Francisco to 0.355 in Charlotte. As evident from Panel A of Figure 8, the marginal confidence sets based on the correlational estimates are relatively narrow, especially for the CZs at the top and the bottom of the ranking. This finding suggests that citizens of these CZs can be quite confident in the mobility ranking of their hometown. For instance, with 95% confidence, San Francisco is among the top two of these 50 CZs in terms of income mobility. By comparison, with 95% confidence, Charlotte is among the bottom three of these 50 CZs in terms of income mobility.

A natural question is whether the ranking of the CZs according to the correlational estimates remains informative if one allows inferences to be drawn simultaneously across all places. The results in Panel B of Figure 8 suggest this is indeed the case and we can have high confidence about which CZs are at the top and bottom of the correlational ranking. The sizes of the confidence sets for the τ -best and τ -worst CZs confirm

this finding. For example, only four (three) places cannot be ruled out as being among the top (bottom) two CZs in terms of income mobility. Furthermore, there are only six places that cannot be ruled out as being among the top five CZs, while ten CZs cannot be ruled out as being among the bottom five places.

Taken together, the results based on \bar{y}_{c25} suggest it is possible to achieve a quite informative ranking of the 50 largest CZs according to upward mobility. By contrast, the exposure effects μ_{c25} are too imprecisely estimated to draw firm conclusions about which CZs produce more or less upward mobility. As evident from the marginal confidence sets for μ_{c25} in column 11 of Table 3, it is difficult to learn much about whether a particular CZ has relatively high or low exposure effects. For example, the citizens of Seattle cannot tell with 95% confidence if their hometown is the best CZ to grow up in in terms of income mobility or if a majority of the other CZs have higher income mobility. Drawing inferences simultaneously across all CZs is even more challenging, as evident by the τ -best and τ -worst results for μ_{c25} . Consider, for example, column 12 of Panel A in Table 3. As these results show, none of the 50 CZs can be ruled out as being among the top five places in terms of exposure effects.

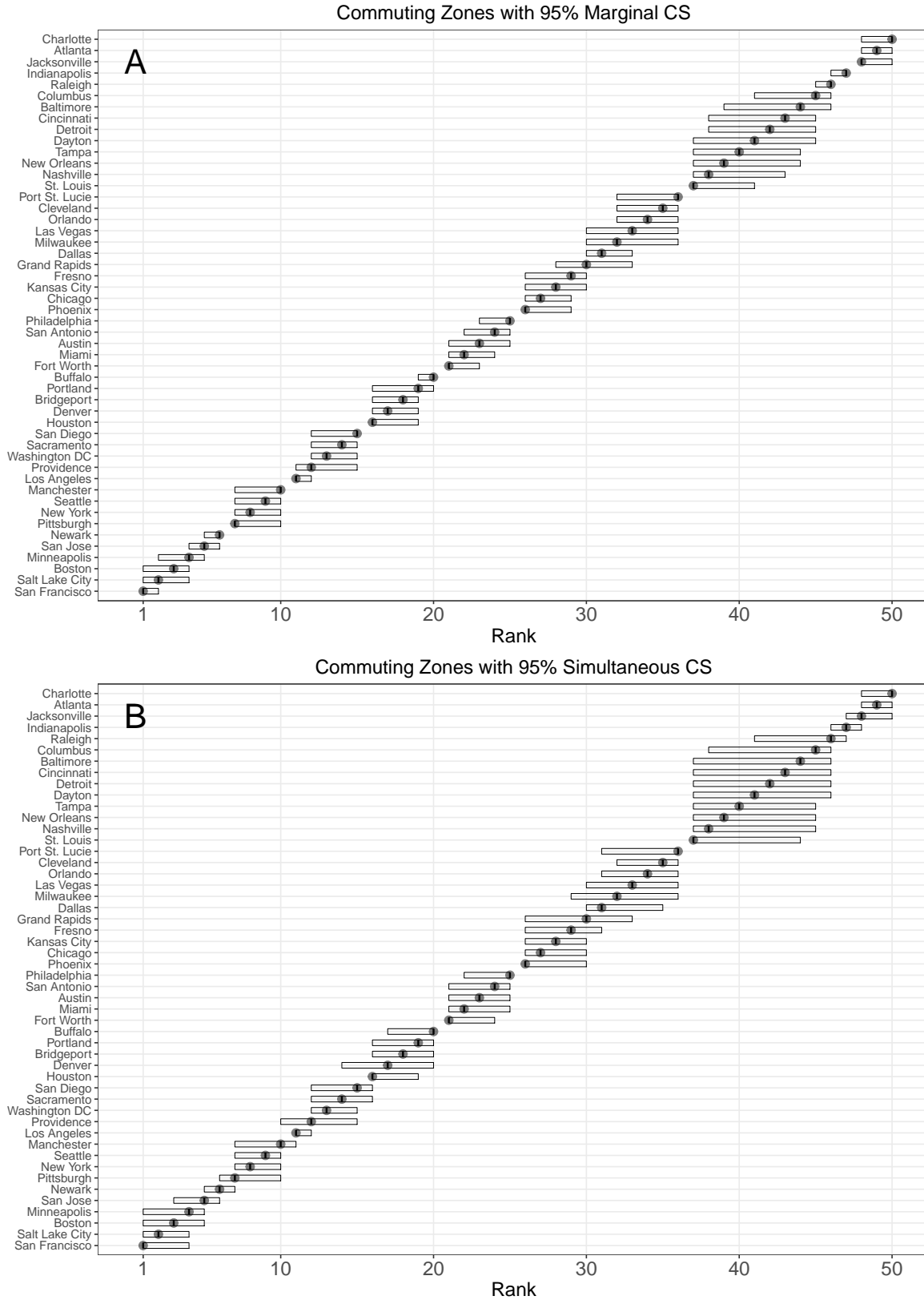


Figure 8: **Panel A:** point estimates and the 95% marginal confidence sets (“CS”) for the ranking of the 50 most populous CZs by \bar{y}_{c25} . **Panel B:** point estimates and the 95% simultaneous confidence sets (“CS”) for the ranking of the 50 most populous CZs by \bar{y}_{c25} .

As shown in Appendix F.2, the above conclusions do not materially change if we instead consider the 50 largest counties by population size. On the one hand, it is possible to achieve a quite informative ranking of these counties according to \bar{y}_{c25} . Both the marginal and the simultaneous confidence sets are fairly narrow, and relatively few counties are included in the confidence sets for the τ -best or the τ -worst places. On the other hand, the exposure effects μ_{c25} are too imprecisely estimated to obtain an informative ranking of counties according to income mobility. First of all, the marginal confidence sets for μ_{c25} are generally too wide to draw conclusions about whether a particular county has among the highest or the lowest exposure effect, as evident from column 11 of Table 10.⁷ Furthermore, the τ -best and τ -worst results for μ_{c25} show that the ranking of counties by exposure effects is largely uninformative when inferences are drawn simultaneously across all places. Consider, for example, column 12 of Table 10. These results show that none of these counties can be ruled out as being among the top two places when it comes to exposure effects, and only one county can be ruled out as being at the very bottom of this ranking.

Panel A: Top 5											
Rank	τ	Correlational					Movers				
		CZ	\hat{y}_{c25}	SE	95% CS	τ -best	CZ	$\hat{\mu}_{c25}$	SE	95% CS	τ -best
1	1	San Francisco	0.457	0.001	[1, 2]	4	Seattle	0.229	0.082	[1, 38]	44
2	2	Salt Lake City	0.457	0.001	[1, 4]	4	Washington DC	0.163	0.077	[1, 41]	48
3	3	Boston	0.453	0.001	[1, 4]	5	Cleveland	0.124	0.107	[1, 48]	50
4	4	Minneapolis	0.452	0.001	[2, 5]	5	Fort Worth	0.121	0.090	[1, 48]	50
5	5	San Jose	0.449	0.001	[4, 6]	6	Minneapolis	0.116	0.120	[1, 48]	50

Panel B: Bottom 5											
Rank	τ	Correlational					Movers				
		CZ	\hat{y}_{c25}	SE	95% CS	τ -worst	CZ	$\hat{\mu}_{c25}$	SE	95% CS	τ -worst
46	5	Raleigh	0.369	0.001	[45, 46]	10	Charlotte	-0.248	0.096	[3, 50]	49
47	4	Indianapolis	0.364	0.001	[46, 47]	5	Port St. Lucie	-0.263	0.090	[3, 50]	49
48	3	Jacksonville	0.358	0.001	[48, 50]	4	Raleigh	-0.278	0.105	[3, 50]	49
49	2	Atlanta	0.358	0.001	[48, 50]	3	Fresno	-0.377	0.100	[13, 50]	48
50	1	Charlotte	0.355	0.001	[48, 50]	3	New Orleans	-0.391	0.111	[14, 50]	48

Table 3: **Panel A:** Top 5 among the 50 most populous commuting zones ranked by the correlational estimates on the left and by the movers estimates on the right. **Panel B:** Bottom 5 among the 50 most populous commuting zones ranked by the correlational estimates on the left and by the movers estimates on the right. “95% CS” refers to the 95% marginal confidence set for the rank, and “ τ -best” and “ τ -worst” refer to the size of the 95% confidence sets for the “ τ -best” and “ τ -worst” commuting zones.

National ranking of places by income mobility

So far, we have focused on the 50 largest CZs and counties by population size. We now shift attention to all CZs and counties, revisiting the key question of Chetty et al. (2014), Chetty et al. (2018) and Chetty and Hendren (2018): Where in the United States is the land of opportunity?

In order to analyze this question, the authors present heat maps based on estimates of upward mobility. They construct these maps by dividing the CZs (or the counties) into deciles based on their estimated value of \bar{y}_{c25} .⁸ Panel A of Figure 9 presents the heat map for the CZs. This map is the same as presented in

⁷An exception is DuPage for which the marginal confidence set suggests that its exposure effect is relatively high compared most of the other counties.

⁸In recent work, Chetty et al. (2018) define a neighborhood to be a Census-tract, which is one level more granular than counties. They then construct heat maps (referred to as the Opportunity Atlas) by dividing the Census-tracts into deciles based

Chetty et al. (2014). Lighter colors represent deciles with higher values of \bar{y}_{c25} . The point estimates of income mobility vary significantly across areas. For example, CZs in the top decile have an $\hat{y}_{c25} > 0.517$, while those in the bottom decile have $\hat{y}_{c25} < 0.362$. Note that the 36th percentile of the family income distribution for children at age 31–37 is \$26,800, while the 52nd percentile is \$44,800; hence, the differences in upward mobility across these areas correspond to substantial differences in children’s incomes.

Based on the heat map, Chetty et al. (2014, p. 1591) conclude that upward mobility varies substantially at the regional level. In particular, they argue that upward mobility is lowest in the Southeast and highest in the Great Plains, and that the West Coast and Northeast also have high rates of upward mobility. Chetty et al. (2014, p. 1593) further conclude there is a lot of within-region variation in income mobility. They argue, for example, that upward mobility is high in many parts of Texas, unlike much of the rest of the South.

We now re-examine these conclusions about the spatial patterns in income mobility while accounting for the uncertainty in the estimates of \bar{y}_{c25} . To do so, we construct two new heat maps. These maps are constructed by reassigning each CZ to one of the ten groups used in Panel A according to the upper endpoint (Panel B of of Figure 9) and the lower endpoint (Panel C of Figure 9) of the simultaneous confidence sets. These confidence sets allow inferences to be drawn simultaneous across all CZs. Thus, the new results in Figure 9 make precise what conclusions one can actually draw about where in the United States the income mobility is relatively high and low.

In order to interpret the results, it is useful to observe that if the simultaneous confidence sets were sufficiently narrow, then the heat map in Panel B would be identical to the heat map in Panel C. It is only in this case the point estimates of \bar{y}_{c25} and, thus, the heat map in Panel A (or, equivalently, in Chetty et al. (2014, p. 1591)), would give a reliable answer to the question of where in the United States is the land of opportunity. More generally, how much we can learn about this question depends on how similar the heat map in Panel B is to the heat map in Panel C. If the CZs that have lighter colors in Panel B also have lighter colors in Panel C, then we can be confident that these areas have high mobility. Conversely, if the CZs that have darker colors in Panel C also have darker colors in Panel B, then we can be confident that these areas have low mobility.

A visual inspection of the heat maps in Panels B and C of Figure 9 indicates that one may be confident that upward mobility is low in the Southeast and high in the Great Plains. By comparison, it seems less certain that the West Coast or the Northeast have high upward mobility. Nor is it clear that one can draw firm conclusions about within-region variation in income mobility. We investigate these tentative conclusions in greater depth in Figure 10. For each CZ, we compute the difference between the lower and the upper endpoint of the simultaneous confidence set. Next, we plot these differences against the estimated ranks of the CZs. The larger the difference, the less we know about the ranking of a CZ. To ease interpretation, we normalize the differences by the number of CZs. Thus, a difference of 1 means one cannot determine with confidence whether a CZ has the highest or the lowest income mobility in the United States. By comparison, a difference of 0 means we can be confident in the exact rank of the CZ.

As evident from Figure 10, the results tend to be much more informative in the upper and the lower parts of the ranking. In other words, we can be most confident in conclusions about which CZs that have

on their estimated value of \bar{y}_{c25} . The estimates and standard errors of \bar{y}_{c25} for each Census-tract level is available [here](#). When using this data, we find that both the marginal and simultaneous confidence sets are far too wide to draw conclusions about income mobility at such a granular level.

the highest or the lowest income mobility. One possible explanation of this finding is that \bar{y}_{c25} is more precisely estimated among the CZs that rank at the top and at the bottom. As shown in Appendix F.3, this explanation is at odds with the data. The standard errors of \bar{y}_{c25} are not particularly small for these CZs. Instead, the explanation is that the point estimates of \bar{y}_{c25} differ more across the CZs in the upper and the lower parts of the ranking as compared to the CZs in the middle of the ranking.

A limitation of Figure 10 is that it only shows where in the ranking the results are most informative, not where in the United States. Thus, Figure 11 is useful because it highlights which of the spatial patterns of income mobility are robust to accounting for uncertainty in the estimates of \bar{y}_{c25} . The heat map in Panel A is constructed by assigning the CZs to groups depending on the lower and upper endpoints of the simultaneous confidence sets. A CZ is assigned to a high mobility group if the upper endpoint of its simultaneous confidence set is in the top half of the national ranking of CZs, i.e., when the confidence set lies entirely in the top half of the ranking, indicating high mobility. A CZ is assigned to a low mobility group if the lower endpoint of its simultaneous confidence set is in the bottom half of the national ranking of CZs, i.e., when the confidence set lies entirely in the bottom half of the ranking, indicating low mobility. Grey colors represent the CZs with simultaneous confidence sets such that the places cannot be assigned to either the high or the low mobility group. The heat map in Panel B is constructed in the same way, except the high (low) mobility group is now defined as the top (bottom) quartile in the national ranking of the CZs.

The results in Figure 11 suggest that some, but not all, of the main conclusions of Chetty et al. (2014) about the spatial patterns of income mobility are robust to taking uncertainty into account. Upward mobility is with 95% confidence low in the Southeast and high in the Great Plains. It is, however, not clear that the West Coast and the Northeast have particularly high rates of income mobility. Nor is it possible to make a strong case for a lot of within-region variation in income mobility.

As shown in Appendices F.3 and F.4, the national ranking becomes largely uninformative if one defines a neighborhood to be a county or if one uses the movers estimates. In other words, it is not possible to draw firm conclusions about which counties in the United States have relatively high or low values of \bar{y}_{c25} . Nor is it possible to say much about which CZs or counties produce more or less upward mobility as measured by the exposure effects μ_{c25} .

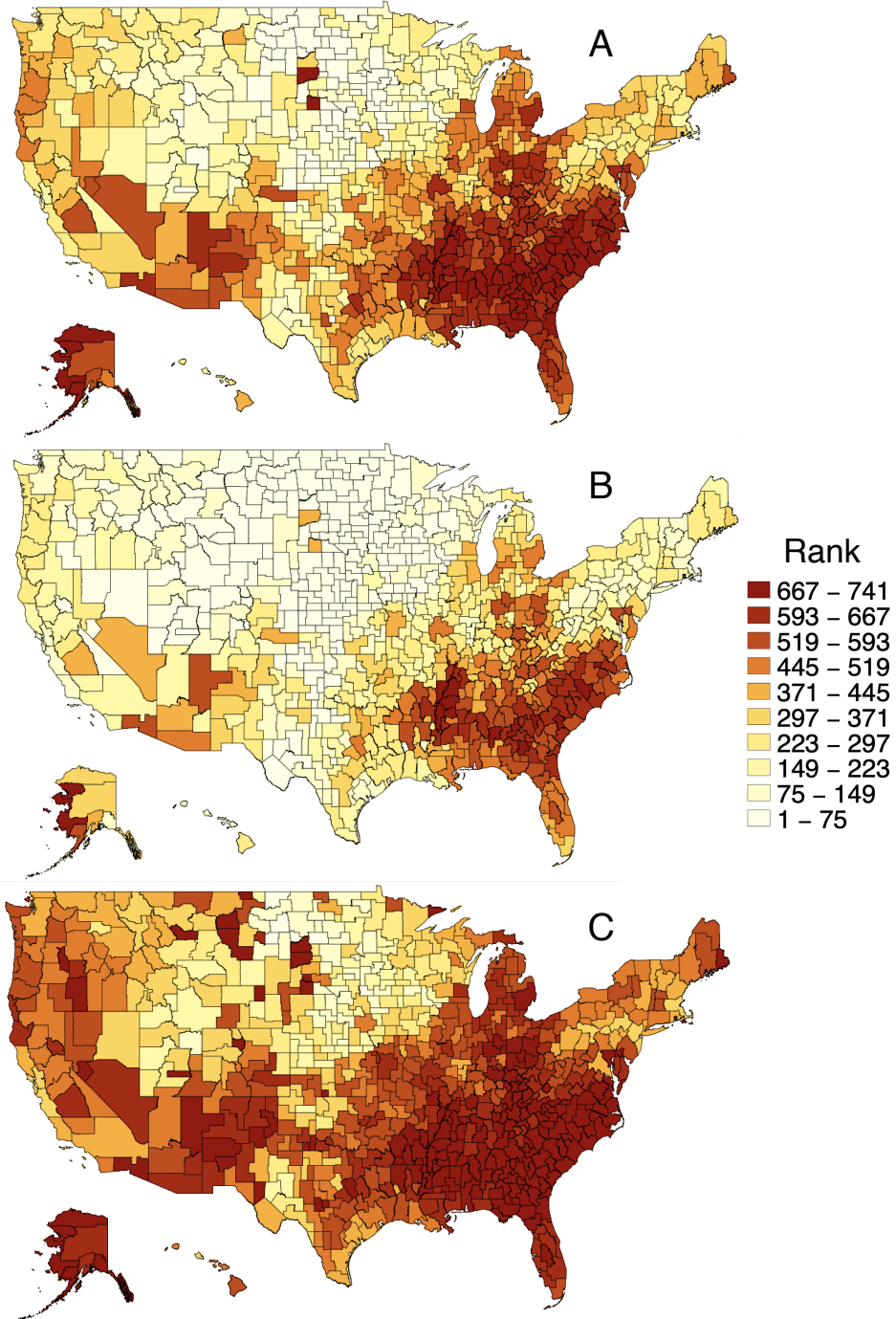


Figure 9: Ranking of Commuting Zones by point estimates and lower and upper endpoints of simultaneous confidence sets. The heat maps are based on estimates of \bar{y}_{c25} , the mean percentile rank of child's average household income for 2014-2015, for the full set of CZs. **Panel A:** the map is constructed by dividing the CZs into deciles based on the estimated values of \bar{y}_{c25} , and shading the areas so that lighter colors correspond to higher absolute mobility. **Panel B:** each CZ is re-assigned to one of the ten groups used in **Panel A** according to the lower endpoint of its 95% simultaneous confidence set. **Panel C:** each CZ is re-assigned to one of the ten groups used in **Panel A** according to the upper endpoint of its 95% simultaneous confidence set.

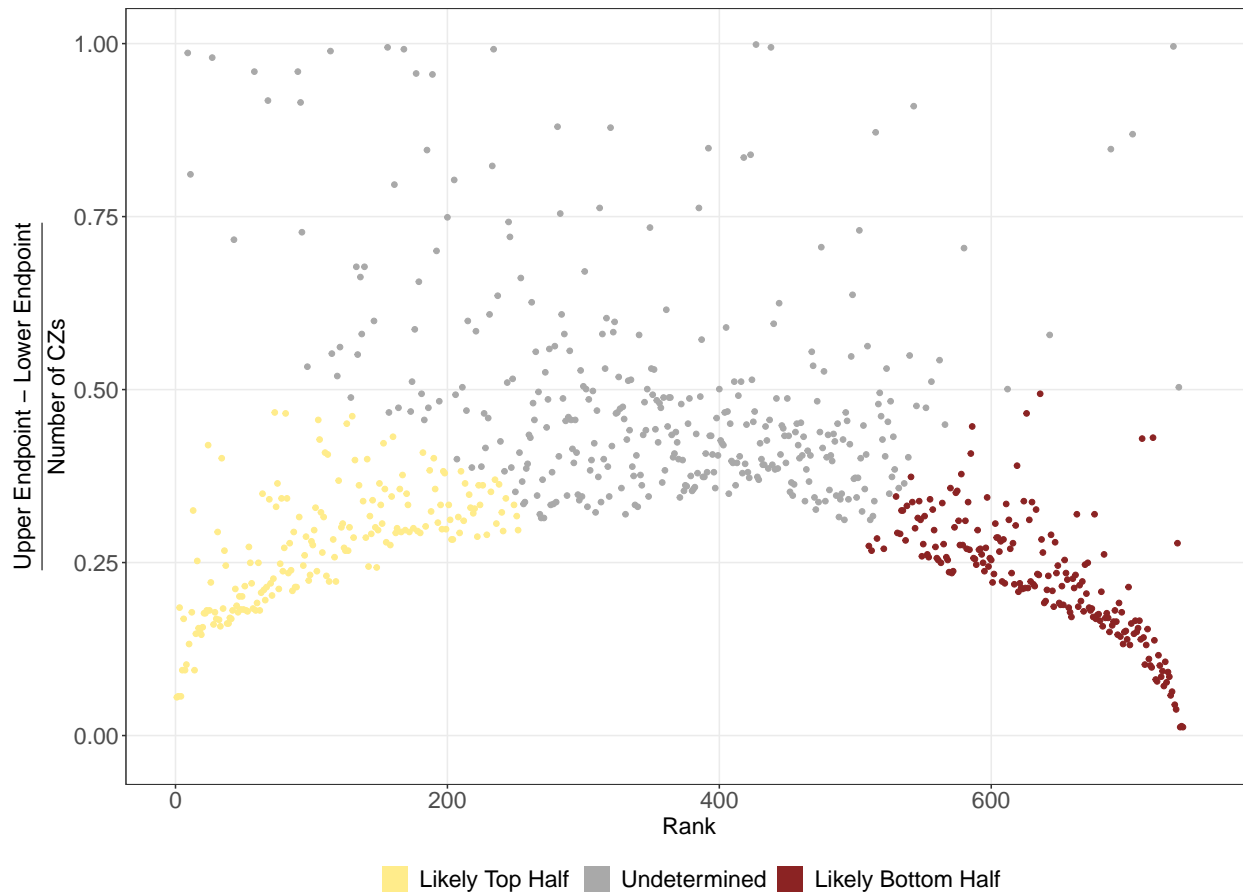


Figure 10: For each CZ, we compute the difference between the upper and the lower endpoint of the 95% simultaneous confidence set. Next, we plot these differences against the estimated ranks of the CZs. To ease interpretation, we normalize the differences by the number of CZs. Thus, a difference of 1 means one cannot tell whether a CZ has the highest or the lowest income mobility in the United States. By comparison, a difference of 0 means we can be confident in the exact rank of the CZ. Each dot in the graph represents a CZ. The CZ is assigned to a high mobility group (light color) if the upper endpoint of its simultaneous confidence set is in the top half of the national ranking. The CZ is assigned to a low mobility group (red color) if the lower endpoint of its simultaneous confidence set is in the bottom half of the national ranking. Grey colors represent the CZs with simultaneous confidence sets such that the places cannot be assigned to either the high or the low mobility group.

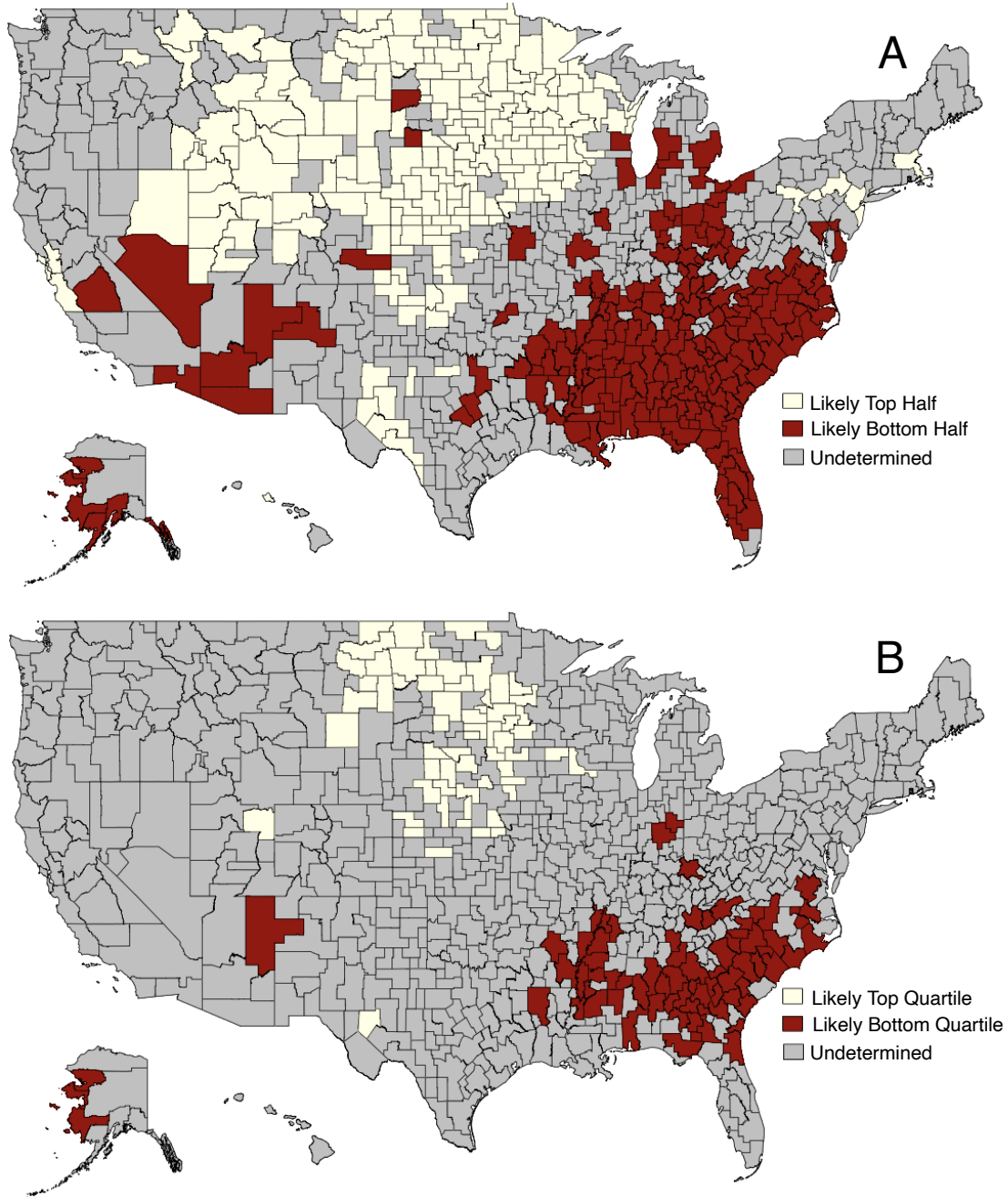


Figure 11: The heat map in **Panel A** is constructed by assigning the CZs to groups depending on the lower and upper endpoints of the simultaneous confidence sets. A CZ is assigned to a high mobility group, **Likely Top Half**, if the upper endpoint of its simultaneous confidence set is in the top half of the national ranking of CZs, i.e., when the confidence set lies entirely in the top half of the ranking, indicating high mobility. A CZ is assigned to a low mobility group, **Likely Bottom Half**, if the lower endpoint of its simultaneous confidence set is in the bottom half of the national ranking of CZs, i.e., when the confidence set lies entirely in the bottom half of the ranking, indicating low mobility. Grey colors represent the CZs with simultaneous confidence sets such that the places cannot be assigned to either the high or the low mobility group, i.e., the **Undetermined** CZs. The heat map in **Panel B** is constructed in the same way, except the high and low mobility groups are now defined in terms of top and bottom quartiles in the national ranking of the CZs. Thus, we refer to these groups as **Likely Top Quartile** and **Likely Bottom Quartile**.

5.3 Illustrating the Policy Implications of the Uncertainty in the Rankings

The estimates of [Chetty et al. \(2014, 2018\)](#) and [Chetty and Hendren \(2018\)](#) have been highly influential both among policymakers and researchers. For example, the rankings of neighborhoods by (point estimates of) intergenerational mobility play a key role in Chetty’s 2014 Testimony for the Budget Committee United States Senate ([Chetty, April 1, 2014](#)). In this testimony (pages 6 and 7), he emphasizes that policy should target areas that are ranked at the bottom of the league tables based on their estimates of upward mobility:

“Since rates of upward mobility vary widely across cities, place-based policies that focus on specific cities such as Charlotte or Milwaukee may be more effective than addressing the problem at a national level.”

and, moreover, that it is key to disseminate information about which areas have relatively high and low estimates of upward mobility:

“Perhaps the most cost-effective way to improve mobility may be to publicize local statistics on economic mobility and other related outcomes. Simply drawing attention to the areas that need improvement can motivate local policy makers to take action. Moreover, without such information, it is difficult to determine which programs work and which do not. The federal government is well positioned to construct such statistics at minimal cost with existing data. The government could go further by offering awards or grants to areas that have substantially improved their rates of upward mobility. Shining a spotlight on the communities where children have opportunities to succeed can enable others to learn from their example and increase opportunities for economic mobility throughout America.”

In light of the large degree of uncertainty, however, one may be concerned that such local statistics (e.g., the league tables and heat maps) do not necessarily contain valuable information about economic mobility. As a consequences of this uncertainty, it can also be problematic to use such statistics to design policy or target interventions. In order to illustrate the problems that might arise if one chooses to use such rankings, we re-visit the recent Creating Moves to Opportunity (CMTO) Experiment of [Bergman et al. \(2019\)](#). This experiment is a collaboration between researchers and public housing authorities to introduce and evaluate interventions to “create moves to opportunity” for low-income families.

The CMTO experiment

The motivation for the CMTO experiment is the argument that low-income families tend to live in neighborhoods with low upward mobility. In order to understand how policy may be designed to help low-income families move to neighborhoods with higher mobility rates, the authors perform a randomized controlled trial with housing voucher recipients in Seattle and King County. A treatment group of low-income families were offered assistance and financial support to find and lease units in areas that were classified as high upward-mobility neighborhoods.

The authors “define high upward-mobility neighborhoods as Census tracts that have historical rates of upward income mobility in approximately the top third among tracts in the Seattle and King County area” ([Bergman et al., 2019](#), p. 10, Section III.B Defining Opportunity Areas).⁹ Following this definition, we use the estimates of \bar{y}_{c25} for the 397 tracts in the Seattle and King County area to classify areas as upward-mobility

⁹In practice, the authors make a few adjustments to this definition. We refer to Appendix A of [Bergman et al. \(2019\)](#) for a discussion of these adjustments.

neighborhoods.¹⁰ Figure 12 plots these estimates alongside with marginal confidence intervals (estimates plus or minus twice the standard errors). The point estimates vary considerably, but the standard errors are relatively large. Figure 13 presents a map of Seattle and King County which shows the location of the 132 tracts that have historical rates of upward income mobility in the top third, and, as a result, are classified by us as high upward-mobility neighborhoods.

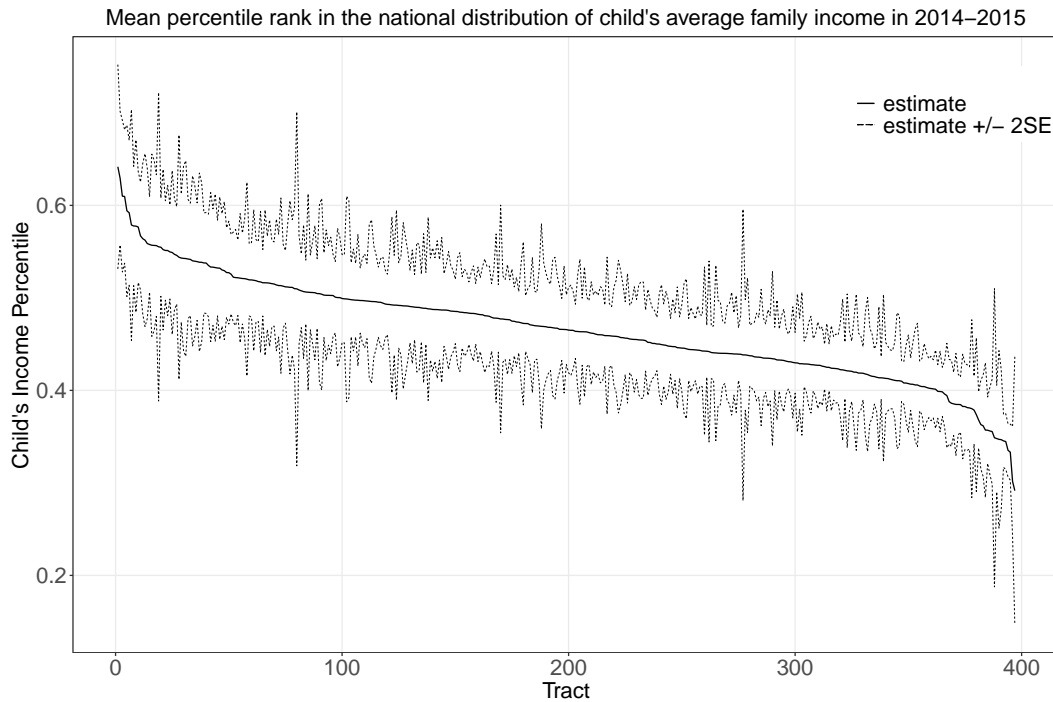


Figure 12: Estimates of \bar{y}_{c25} , the expected percentile rank of child's average household income for 2014-2015 in the national distribution of her cohort, with marginal confidence intervals (estimates plus or minus twice the standard errors) for all 397 Census tracts in Seattle and King County.

¹⁰These estimates are available at <https://www.opportunityatlas.org/>



Figure 13: This map of Seattle and King County shows the location of the 132 tracts that were classified as high upward-mobility neighborhoods. High-upward-mobility neighborhood consists the Census tracts with estimates of \bar{y}_{c25} among the top third of the tracts in the Seattle and King County area.

Reassessing the classification of high upward-mobility neighborhoods

In light of our previous findings, one might worry the Census tracts defined as high upward-mobility neighborhoods do not have statistically higher mobility rates as compared to the other Census tracts. In order to investigate this issue further, we compute a 95% confidence set for the τ -best tracts in the Seattle and King County, where τ is set equal to 132 (approximately one-third). The confidence set is implemented as described in Section 4, using the stepwise procedure (“DM.step”).

We find that all but 2 out of 397 tracts could be among the top third, and, as a result, be classified as high upward-mobility neighborhood according to our definition. Thus, we conclude that one cannot be confident the experiment actually helps low-income families to move to neighborhoods with higher upward mobility. The classification of some areas as high upward-mobility neighborhoods may simply reflect statistical uncertainty, not actual differences in upward mobility.

Appendix A The “Naive” Bootstrap Undercovers

In this section, we show that the “naive” bootstrap as described in Remark 3.7 does not satisfy the uniform coverage requirement unless $p = 2$. Furthermore, we show that when there are ties and $p > 2$, then the approach even fails the pointwise coverage requirement for a fixed P and, in fact, the coverage probability tends to zero as p grows.

To simplify the subsequent discussion, we focus on the case in which the estimators of the features $\theta(P_j)$ are independent and normally distributed, $\hat{\theta}_j \sim N(\theta(P_j), 1)$ for all $j \in J$. In this case, we obtain finite-sample results, but they easily extend to the asymptotic case when $n \rightarrow \infty$ and variances are unknown. Suppose $\theta(P_j) = 0$ for all $j \in J$. Consider the parametric bootstrap in which we draw $\hat{\theta}_j^* \sim N(\hat{\theta}_j, I_p)$ independently, conditional on the data $\hat{\theta} = (\hat{\theta}_1, \dots, \hat{\theta}_p)'$.

Suppose we want to construct a one-sided confidence set for the rank of population j , for which the upper endpoint is equal to p :

$$R_{n,j}^* \equiv \left\{ \hat{L}_j^*, \dots, p \right\},$$

where \hat{L}_j^* is the α -quantile of \hat{r}_j^* , conditional on the data $\hat{\theta}$. Further suppose all populations are tied with $\theta(P_j) = 0$ for all $j \in J$, so that all ranks are equal to one, $r_j(P) = 1$ for all $j \in J$. For $R_{n,1}^*$ to cover the rank $r_1(P) = 1$ with probability no less than $1 - \alpha$, it must be the case that the event

$$E \equiv \left\{ P\{\hat{L}_1^* = 1 | \hat{\theta}\} \geq 1 - \alpha \right\} = \left\{ P\{\hat{\theta}_1^* > \max\{\hat{\theta}_2^*, \dots, \hat{\theta}_p^*\} | \hat{\theta}\} \geq \alpha \right\}$$

holds. Consider first $p = 2$. Then,

$$\begin{aligned} P\left\{ \hat{\theta}_1^* > \max\{\hat{\theta}_2^*, \dots, \hat{\theta}_p^*\} \mid \hat{\theta} \right\} &= P\left\{ \hat{\theta}_1^* > \hat{\theta}_2^* \mid \hat{\theta} \right\} \\ &= P\left\{ \frac{\hat{\theta}_1^* - \hat{\theta}_1 - (\hat{\theta}_2^* - \hat{\theta}_2)}{\sqrt{2}} > \frac{\hat{\theta}_2 - \hat{\theta}_1}{\sqrt{2}} \mid \hat{\theta} \right\} \\ &= 1 - \Phi\left(\frac{\hat{\theta}_2 - \hat{\theta}_1}{\sqrt{2}} \right) \end{aligned}$$

so that

$$P\{E\} = P\left\{ 1 - \Phi\left(\frac{\hat{\theta}_2 - \hat{\theta}_1}{\sqrt{2}} \right) \geq \alpha \right\} = 1 - \alpha.$$

Therefore, the bootstrap confidence interval $R_{n,1}^*$ covers $r_1(P)$ with the desired probability.

Now consider $p > 2$. Let M be the index such that $\hat{\theta}_M = \max\{\hat{\theta}_2, \dots, \hat{\theta}_p\}$. First note that

$$\begin{aligned} P\left\{ \hat{\theta}_1^* > \max\{\hat{\theta}_2^*, \dots, \hat{\theta}_p^*\} \mid \hat{\theta} \right\} &< P\left\{ \hat{\theta}_1^* > \hat{\theta}_M^* \mid \hat{\theta} \right\} \\ &= P\left\{ \frac{\hat{\theta}_1^* - \hat{\theta}_1 - (\hat{\theta}_M^* - \hat{\theta}_M)}{\sqrt{2}} > \frac{\hat{\theta}_M - \hat{\theta}_1}{\sqrt{2}} \mid \hat{\theta} \right\} \\ &= 1 - \Phi\left(\frac{\hat{\theta}_M - \hat{\theta}_1}{\sqrt{2}} \right) \end{aligned} \tag{30}$$

Let F be the event

$$F \equiv \left\{ 1 - \Phi\left(\frac{\hat{\theta}_M - \hat{\theta}_1}{\sqrt{2}} \right) \geq \alpha \right\}.$$

Clearly, by the strict inequality in (30), $E \subset F$ and $P\{E\} < P\{F\}$. Letting $z_{1-\alpha}$ be the $(1 - \alpha)$ -quantile of the standard normal distribution, we have

$$P\{F\} = P\left\{ \frac{\hat{\theta}_M - \hat{\theta}_1}{\sqrt{2}} \leq z_{1-\alpha} \right\} = P\left\{ \frac{\max\{\hat{\theta}_2, \dots, \hat{\theta}_p\} - \hat{\theta}_1}{\sqrt{2}} \leq z_{1-\alpha} \right\},$$

which, for example, is strictly less than $P\{(\hat{\theta}_2 - \hat{\theta}_1)/\sqrt{2} \leq z_{1-\alpha}\} = 1 - \alpha$. Therefore, $P\{E\} < 1 - \alpha$ and the confidence set $R_{n,1}^*$ does not cover the rank $r_1(P)$ with the desired probability. Moreover, as $p \rightarrow \infty$, $\max\{\hat{\theta}_2, \dots, \hat{\theta}_p\} \rightarrow \infty$ in probability, so the coverage probability tends to zero.

Appendix B An Alternative Construction of Confidence Sets for Ranks

Let $\tilde{C}_n(1 - \alpha)$ be a confidence set that is rectangular in the sense that

$$\tilde{C}_n(1 - \alpha) = \prod_{j \in J} \tilde{C}_n(1 - \alpha, j)$$

for suitable sets $\{\tilde{C}_n(1 - \alpha, j) : j \in J\}$, and that simultaneously covers the vector of features $\theta(P)$ with limiting probability $1 - \alpha$:

$$\liminf_{n \rightarrow \infty} \inf_{P \in \mathbf{P}} P\{\theta(P) \in \tilde{C}_n(1 - \alpha)\} \geq 1 - \alpha .$$

For instance, the confidence set could be constructed as in Example 3.7 of [Romano and Shaikh \(2012\)](#). Define

$$\begin{aligned} \tilde{N}_j^- &\equiv \left\{ k \in J \setminus \{j\} : \tilde{C}_n(1 - \alpha, j) \text{ lies entirely below } \tilde{C}_n(1 - \alpha, k) \right\} \\ \tilde{N}_j^+ &\equiv \left\{ k \in J \setminus \{j\} : \tilde{C}_n(1 - \alpha, j) \text{ lies entirely above } \tilde{C}_n(1 - \alpha, k) \right\} . \end{aligned}$$

Then, it is easy to see that

$$\liminf_{n \rightarrow \infty} \inf_{P \in \mathbf{P}} P \left\{ |\tilde{N}_j^-| + 1 \leq r_j(P) \leq p - |\tilde{N}_j^+| \right\} \geq 1 - \alpha$$

and

$$\liminf_{n \rightarrow \infty} \inf_{P \in \mathbf{P}} P \left\{ \bigcap_{j \in J} \left\{ |\tilde{N}_j^-| + 1 \leq r_j(P) \leq p - |\tilde{N}_j^+| \right\} \right\} \geq 1 - \alpha .$$

Therefore,

$$\tilde{R}_{n,j} \equiv \left\{ |\tilde{N}_j^-| + 1, \dots, p - |\tilde{N}_j^+| \right\} \quad (31)$$

is a confidence set that covers the rank $r_j(P)$ with limiting probability at least $1 - \alpha$ and

$$\tilde{R}_n^{\text{joint}} \equiv \prod_{j \in J} \left\{ |\tilde{N}_j^-| + 1, \dots, p - |\tilde{N}_j^+| \right\} \quad (32)$$

is a confidence set that covers the vector of ranks $r(P)$ with limiting probability at least $1 - \alpha$.

To formally compare the approach proposed in the main text with the one of this section, we focus on the case in which the estimators of the features $\theta(P_j)$ are independent and normally distributed, i.e.,

$$\begin{pmatrix} \hat{\theta}_1 \\ \vdots \\ \hat{\theta}_p \end{pmatrix} \sim N \left(\theta(P), \text{diag} \left(\frac{\sigma^2(P_1)}{n_1}, \dots, \frac{\sigma^2(P_p)}{n_p} \right) \right) , \quad (33)$$

where $\sigma^2(P_j) > 0, j \in J$ are known. In this case, we obtain finite-sample comparisons between the two methods, but the results easily extend to asymptotic (as $n \rightarrow \infty$) comparisons and to the case of unknown variances.

We consider the confidence set for the entire ranking, $\tilde{R}_n^{\text{joint}}$, based on $\tilde{C}_n(1 - \alpha)$, where $\tilde{C}_n(1 - \alpha) = \prod_{j \in J} \tilde{C}_n(1 - \alpha, j)$ is such that

$$\tilde{C}_n(1 - \alpha, j) = \left[\hat{\theta}_j \pm \frac{\sigma(P_j)}{\sqrt{n_j}} \tilde{q}_{1-\alpha} \right] , \quad j \in J , \quad (34)$$

and $\tilde{q}_{1-\alpha}$ is either the

$$\frac{1 + (1 - \alpha)^{1/p}}{2} - \text{quantile of the } N(0, 1) \text{ distribution} \quad (35)$$

or the

$$\left(1 - \frac{\alpha}{2p} \right) - \text{quantile of the } N(0, 1) \text{ distribution} . \quad (36)$$

The quantile in (35) imposes independence of the estimators and (36) is the quantile used in the Bonferroni method. We compare $\tilde{R}_n^{\text{joint}}$ to our confidence set R_n^{joint} based on $C_n(1 - \alpha, S_{\text{all}})$ with $C_n(1 - \alpha, S_{\text{all}}) = \prod_{(j,k) \in S_{\text{all}}} C_n(1 - \alpha, S_{\text{all}}, (j, k))$ such that

$$C_n(1 - \alpha, S_{\text{all}}, (j, k)) = \left[\hat{\theta}_j - \hat{\theta}_k \pm \sqrt{\frac{\sigma^2(P_j)}{n_j} + \frac{\sigma^2(P_k)}{n_k}} q_{1-\alpha} \right] , \quad (37)$$

where $q_{1-\alpha}$ is the

$$(1 - \alpha) - \text{quantile of } \max_{(j,k) \in S_{\text{all}}} \frac{|\hat{\theta}_j - \hat{\theta}_k - \Delta_{j,k}(P)|}{\sqrt{\frac{\sigma^2(P_j)}{n_j} + \frac{\sigma^2(P_k)}{n_k}}}.$$

This quantile is similar to $L_{\text{symm},n}^{-1}(1 - \alpha, S_{\text{all}}, P)$ as defined in (8) except that the estimated variances in (8) are replaced by the population variances.

In the following lemma, $R(P)$ denotes the set of ranks defined in Remark 3.6.

Lemma B.1. *Suppose (33) holds. Let $\tilde{R}_n^{\text{joint}}$ be based on $\tilde{C}_n(1 - \alpha) = \prod_{j \in J} \tilde{C}_n(1 - \alpha, j)$ satisfying (34) with $\tilde{q}_{1-\alpha}$ as defined in either (35) or (36). Let R_n^{joint} be based on $C_n(1 - \alpha, S_{\text{all}}) = \prod_{(j,k) \in S_{\text{all}}} C_n(1 - \alpha, S_{\text{all}}, (j, k))$ satisfying (37). Then the following statements hold:*

- (i) For any $\alpha \in (0, 1)$, $\tilde{R}_n^{\text{joint}}$ satisfies $P(r(P) \in \tilde{R}_n^{\text{joint}}) \geq P(R(P) \in \tilde{R}_n^{\text{joint}}) > 1 - \alpha$.
- (ii) For any $\alpha \in (0, 1)$, R_n^{joint} satisfies $P(r(P) \in R_n^{\text{joint}}) \geq P(R(P) \in R_n^{\text{joint}}) \geq 1 - \alpha$, where the second inequality is satisfied with equality when all elements of $\theta(P)$ are equal.
- (iii) If $p = 2$, then R_n^{joint} is a subset of $\tilde{R}_n^{\text{joint}}$, and a strict subset with positive probability.
- (iv) If $\sigma(P_j) = \sigma(P_k)$ for all $j, k \in J$ and $n_j = n_k$ for all $j, k \in J$, then R_n^{joint} is a subset of $\tilde{R}_n^{\text{joint}}$, and a strict subset with positive probability.

This lemma shows, first, that the alternative confidence set $\tilde{R}_n^{\text{joint}}$ covers the ranking $r(P)$ and the set of ranks $R(P)$ each with probability strictly larger than $1 - \alpha$, independently of the configuration of features $\theta(P_1), \dots, \theta(P_p)$. On the other hand, our proposed confidence set for the set of ranks achieves coverage probability equal to $1 - \alpha$ in the case when all features $\theta(P_j)$ are equal. In addition, there are two special cases in which our approach leads to bounds on the ranks that are not wider and strictly narrower than the alternatives proposed in this section: when there are only two populations or when the variances and sample sizes of all populations are equal.

In the case when $p > 2$, not all variances, and not all sample sizes are equal, then our confidence set and the alternative proposed in this section cover the ranking with probability strictly larger than $1 - \alpha$. In this case, we do not know whether our method leads to smaller confidence sets. However, we can compare the endpoints of the two confidence sets as follows. In the proof of the lemma, we show that

$$P \left\{ r(P) \in \tilde{R}_n^{\text{joint}} \right\} \geq P \left\{ \theta(P_j) - \theta(P_k) \in \left[\hat{\theta}_j - \hat{\theta}_k \pm (\tau_j + \tau_k) \tilde{q}_{1-\alpha} \right] \text{ for all } (j, k) \in S_{\text{all}} \right\} > 1 - \alpha,$$

where $\tau_j \equiv \sigma(P_j)/\sqrt{n_j}$. Similarly, our confidence set satisfies

$$P \left\{ r(P) \in R_n^{\text{joint}} \right\} \geq P \left\{ \theta(P_j) - \theta(P_k) \in \left[\hat{\theta}_j - \hat{\theta}_k \pm \sqrt{\tau_j^2 + \tau_k^2} q_{1-\alpha} \right] \text{ for all } (j, k) \in S_{\text{all}} \right\} \geq 1 - \alpha.$$

Comparing the two expressions, it is clear that we cannot have

$$(\tau_j + \tau_k) \tilde{q}_{1-\alpha} < \sqrt{\tau_j^2 + \tau_k^2} q_{1-\alpha}$$

for all $(j, k) \in S_{\text{all}}$. In particular, if there is one pair (j, k) such that this strict inequality holds, then there must be at least one other pair (j', k') such that the inequality is reversed:

$$(\tau_{j'} + \tau_{k'}) \tilde{q}_{1-\alpha} > \sqrt{\tau_{j'}^2 + \tau_{k'}^2} q_{1-\alpha}.$$

Therefore, the confidence set $\tilde{R}_n^{\text{joint}}$ cannot be contained in ours. Whether our confidence set is contained in $\tilde{R}_n^{\text{joint}}$ in general, we leave open for future research.

Remark B.1. Consider the case in which $\theta(P)$ is a vector of expectations and $\hat{\theta}$ the corresponding vector of sample means. Then, the two confidence sets $\tilde{R}_n^{\text{joint}}$ in Lemma B.1, one using the critical value in (35) and the other the Bonferroni critical value in (36), coincide with the two proposals in Klein et al. (2018). The simulations in Section 4 confirm the results in Lemma B.1 by showing that our confidence sets for ranks are either of similar or strictly smaller size than those by Klein et al. (2018). ■

Appendix C Comparison With Gupta (1956)

Gupta (1956) proposes a confidence set that contains the identity of the population with the largest mean, based on observations

from independent, normally distributed populations with equal and known variances:

$$\bar{X}_n \sim N\left(\mu(P), \frac{\sigma^2(P)}{n}\right), \quad (38)$$

where $\sigma^2(P) > 0$ is known. His confidence set J_n^{Gupta} contains all $j \in J$ such that

$$\max_{k \in J} \bar{X}_{n,k} - \bar{X}_{n,j} \leq d \frac{\sigma(P)}{\sqrt{n}},$$

where d solves

$$\int \Phi(u+d)^{p-1} \phi(u) du = 1 - \alpha, \quad (39)$$

Φ and ϕ denote the cdf and pdf of the standard normal distribution, and $\alpha \in (0, 1/2)$. Let π be an arbitrary permutation of J such that $\mu(P_{\pi(1)}) \geq \mu(P_{\pi(2)}) \geq \dots \geq \mu(P_{\pi(p)})$, where $\mu(P_j)$ is the j th element of $\mu(P)$. Gupta shows that the best population, $\pi(1)$, is contained in his confidence set with probability no less than $1 - \alpha$:

$$\begin{aligned} P\left\{\pi(1) \in J_n^{\text{Gupta}}\right\} &= P\left\{\max_{k \in J} \bar{X}_{n,k} - \bar{X}_{n,\pi(1)} \leq d \frac{\sigma(P)}{\sqrt{n}}\right\} \\ &= \int \prod_{k=2}^p \Phi_{\pi(k)}\left(x + d \frac{\sigma(P)}{\sqrt{n}}\right) \phi_{\pi(1)}(x) dx \\ &\geq \int \Phi_{\pi(1)}\left(x + d \frac{\sigma(P)}{\sqrt{n}}\right)^{p-1} \phi_{\pi(1)}(x) dx \\ &= \int \Phi(u+d)^{p-1} \phi(u) du \end{aligned}$$

where Φ_j and ϕ_j denote the cdf and pdf of the normal distribution with mean $\mu(P_j)$ and variance $\sigma^2(P)/n$. The first equality uses normality and independence of the means. The inequality above follows because, since the populations have equal variances their distributions are stochastically ordered by their means. The final equality is due to a change of variables. Since d is chosen so that the last expression is equal to $1 - \alpha$, the coverage probability $P\left\{\pi(1) \in J_n^{\text{Gupta}}\right\}$ is no smaller than $1 - \alpha$. The inequality becomes an equality when all means are equal to each other. In this sense, Gupta's approach selects the critical value from the least-favorable configuration of means.

The requirement of covering $\pi(1)$ with probability no less than a prespecified level is not the same as covering the set of 1-best populations, $J_0^{1\text{-best}}$, as defined in Section 3.4. In fact, Gupta's confidence set may cover $J_0^{1\text{-best}}$ with probability strictly less than $1 - \alpha$ when the largest mean $\mu(P_{\pi(1)})$ is tied with at least one other mean. To see this consider the case $p = 2$ and suppose $\mu(P_1) = \mu(P_2)$. Then, by the distributional assumption (38), we have

$$\begin{aligned} P\left\{J_0^{1\text{-best}} \subseteq J_n^{\text{Gupta}}\right\} &= P\left\{\{1, 2\} \subseteq J_n^{\text{Gupta}}\right\} \\ &= P\left\{\max_{j \in J} \max_{k \in J} \{\bar{X}_{n,k} - \bar{X}_{n,j}\} \leq d \frac{\sigma(P)}{\sqrt{n}}\right\} \\ &= P\left\{\max_{k \in J} \frac{\bar{X}_{n,k} - \mu_k(P)}{\sigma(P)/\sqrt{n}} - \min_{j \in J} \frac{\bar{X}_{n,j} - \mu_j(P)}{\sigma(P)/\sqrt{n}} \leq d\right\} \\ &= 2 \int [\Phi(u+d) - \Phi(u)] \phi(u) du \end{aligned}$$

The last equality uses the expression of the distribution of the range statistic for two i.i.d. standard normal random variables. Since, for all $d > 0$,

$$2 \int [\Phi(u+d) - \Phi(u)] \phi(u) du = \int \Phi(u+d) \phi(u) du + \left[\int \Phi(u+d) \phi(u) du - 1 \right] < \int \Phi(u+d) \phi(u) du$$

and since $\alpha > 1/2$ implies that d solving (39) for $p = 2$ must be positive, we have

$$P\left\{J_0^{1\text{-best}} \subseteq J_n^{\text{Gupta}}\right\} < 1 - \alpha.$$

Consider now the case when $p > 2$ and t of the means are tied as the best ($2 \leq t \leq p$), say

$$\mu(P_1) = \dots = \mu(P_t) > \mu(P_{t+1}) \geq \dots \geq \mu(P_p).$$

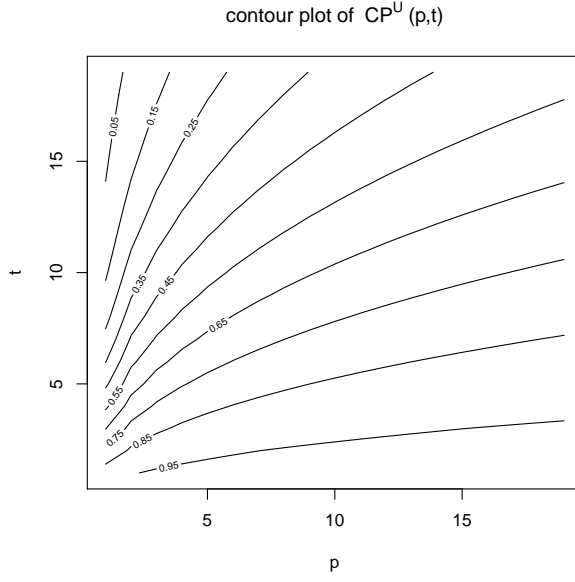


Figure 14: Contour plot of $CP^U(p, t)$ with $1 - \alpha = 0.95$.

Then

$$\begin{aligned}
 P \left\{ J_0^{1-\text{best}} \subseteq J_n^{\text{Gupta}} \right\} &= P \left\{ \{1, \dots, t\} \subseteq J_n^{\text{Gupta}} \right\} \\
 &= P \left\{ \max_{j \in \{1, \dots, t\}} \max_{k \in J} \{ \bar{X}_{n,k} - \bar{X}_{n,j} \} \leq d \frac{\sigma(P)}{\sqrt{n}} \right\} \\
 &\leq P \left\{ \max_{k \in \{1, \dots, t\}} \frac{\bar{X}_{n,k} - \mu(P_k)}{\sigma(P)/\sqrt{n}} - \min_{j \in \{1, \dots, t\}} \frac{\bar{X}_{n,j} - \mu(P_j)}{\sigma(P)/\sqrt{n}} \leq d \right\} \\
 &= t \int \underbrace{[\Phi(u+d) - \Phi(u)]^{t-1} \phi(u) du}_{\equiv \widetilde{CP}^U(d, t)}
 \end{aligned}$$

Denote by $d(p)$ the solution to (39), i.e. Gupta's choice of critical value for a given number of populations p . Figure 14 plots the contours of $CP^U(p, t) \equiv \widetilde{CP}^U(d(p), t)$ (with $1 - \alpha = 0.95$) as a function of the number of populations p and the number of ties at the largest mean t . This is an upper bound on the probability with which Gupta's confidence set covers the set of 1-best populations, $J_0^{1-\text{best}}$. Only in the lower right corner of the plot, i.e. for large p and small t , is the upper bound of the coverage probability larger than the desired level 0.95, otherwise it is strictly smaller.

Therefore, for most (t, p) combinations, Gupta's confidence set does not cover $J_0^{1-\text{best}}$ with the desired probability whereas our proposals in Section 3.4 asymptotically cover $J_0^{\tau-\text{best}}$ with probability no less than $1 - \alpha$ for $\tau = 1$, but also for any other $\tau > 1$.

Appendix D Proofs

D.1 Proofs of Results in the Main Text

Proof of Theorem 3.1. Suppose the event $\Delta_{S_j}(P) \in C_n(1 - \alpha, S_j)$ holds. Then, any $k \neq j$ such that $C_n(1 - \alpha, S_j, (j, k)) \subseteq \mathbf{R}_-$ satisfies $\theta(P_j) < \theta(P_k)$. Therefore, the rank $r_j(P)$ is strictly larger than the number of $k \neq j$ for which $C_n(1 - \alpha, S_j, (j, k)) \subseteq \mathbf{R}_-$. Similarly, any $k \neq j$ such that $C_n(1 - \alpha, S_j, (j, k)) \subseteq \mathbf{R}_+$ satisfies $\theta(P_j) > \theta(P_k)$. Therefore, the rank $r_j(P)$ is bounded above by the number of elements in J minus the number of $k \neq j$ for which $C_n(1 - \alpha, S_j, (j, k)) \subseteq \mathbf{R}_+$. This establishes the first inequality of the theorem and the coverage statement follows immediately. ■

Proof of Theorem 3.2. Suppose $S_j^+(P) \cap \text{Rej}_j^- = \emptyset$ and $S_j^-(P) \cap \text{Rej}_j^+ = \emptyset$. Then, $\theta(P_j) < \theta(P_k)$ for $(j, k) \in \text{Rej}_j^-$ and $\theta(P_j) > \theta(P_k)$ for $(j, k) \in \text{Rej}_j^+$, so the bounds on the rank follow just as in the proof of Theorem 3.1. This establishes the first inequality of the theorem and the coverage statement follows immediately. ■

Proof of Theorem 3.3. Analogous to the proof of Theorem 3.1. ■

Proof of Theorem 3.4. Analogous to the proof of Theorem 3.2. ■

Proof of Theorem 3.5. Let $\Pi \equiv \{\pi \text{ permutation of } J: \theta(P_{\pi(1)}) \geq \dots \geq \theta(P_{\pi(p)})\}$ be the set of permutations of J that preserve the ranking of the elements of $\theta(P)$. Notice that $r_j(P) = \min_{\pi \in \Pi} \pi^{-1}(j)$ and denote by $\pi_j^* \in \Pi$ a permutation that achieves the minimum, i.e. $(\pi_j^*)^{-1}(j) = \min_{\pi \in \Pi} \pi^{-1}(j)$. The permutation π_j^* may vary with j , but two different permutations π_j^* and π_k^* can differ only on elements for which the corresponding elements in $\theta(P)$ are equal (i.e. $\theta(P_{\pi_j^*(t)}) = \theta(P_{\pi_k^*(t)})$ for all $j, k, t \in J$). Pick an arbitrary $\pi^* \in \{\pi_1^*, \dots, \pi_p^*\}$ and define

$$J^* \equiv \{\pi^*(1), \dots, \pi^*(\tau - 1)\}.$$

Then:

$$\begin{aligned} H_j &\Leftrightarrow r_j(P) \leq \tau \\ &\Leftrightarrow (\pi_j^*)^{-1}(j) \leq \tau \\ &\Leftrightarrow \theta(P_j) \geq \theta(P_{\pi_j^*(\tau)}) \\ &\Leftrightarrow \theta(P_j) \geq \theta(P_{\pi^*(\tau)}) \\ &\Leftrightarrow \theta(P_j) \geq \theta(P_k) \quad \forall k \in J \setminus J^* \\ &\Leftrightarrow \max_{k \in J \setminus J^*} \{\theta(P_k) - \theta(P_j)\} \leq 0 \end{aligned} \tag{40}$$

The statement of the theorem obviously holds when all hypotheses are false. Therefore, assume that at least one of the hypotheses is true. Let \hat{s} be the smallest integer such that there is a false rejection at Step \hat{s} , i.e. there is a $\hat{j} \in I_{\hat{s}} \cap J_0^{\tau - \text{best}}(P)$ such that $T_{n, \hat{j}} > \hat{c}_n(1 - \alpha, I_{\hat{s}})$. By definition, $J_0^{\tau - \text{best}}(P) \subseteq I_{\hat{s}}$ and therefore $\hat{c}_n(1 - \alpha, J_0^{\tau - \text{best}}(P)) \leq \hat{c}_n(1 - \alpha, I_{\hat{s}})$. Thus,

$$\max_{j \in J_0^{\tau - \text{best}}(P)} T_{n, j} \geq T_{n, \hat{j}} > \hat{c}_n(1 - \alpha, J_0^{\tau - \text{best}}(P))$$

and

$$\begin{aligned} \text{FWER}_P &\equiv P \left\{ \text{reject at least one } H_j, j \in J_0^{\tau - \text{best}}(P) \right\} \\ &\leq P \left\{ \max_{j \in J_0^{\tau - \text{best}}(P)} T_{n, j} > \hat{c}_n(1 - \alpha, J_0^{\tau - \text{best}}(P)) \right\}. \end{aligned} \tag{41}$$

To compute this probability consider:

$$\begin{aligned}
P \left\{ \max_{j \in J_0^{\tau\text{-best}}(P)} T_{n,j} \leq x \right\} &= P \left\{ \max_{j \in J_0^{\tau\text{-best}}(P)} \min_{K \in \mathcal{K}} \max_{k \in J \setminus K} \{ \hat{\theta}_k - \hat{\theta}_j \} \leq x \right\} \\
&\geq P \left\{ \max_{j \in J_0^{\tau\text{-best}}(P)} \max_{k \in J \setminus J^*} \{ \hat{\theta}_k - \hat{\theta}_j \} \leq x \right\} \\
&\geq P \left\{ \max_{j \in J_0^{\tau\text{-best}}(P)} \max_{k \in J \setminus J^*} \{ \hat{\theta}_k - \hat{\theta}_j - \Delta_{k,j}(P) \} \leq x \right\} \\
&\geq \min_{K \in \mathcal{K}} P \left\{ \max_{j \in J_0^{\tau\text{-best}}(P)} \max_{k \in J \setminus K} \{ \hat{\theta}_k - \hat{\theta}_j - \Delta_{k,j}(P) \} \leq x \right\} \\
&= \min_{K \in \mathcal{K}} P \left\{ T_{n, J_0^{\tau\text{-best}}(P), K} \leq x \right\} \tag{42}
\end{aligned}$$

where the second inequality follows from (40).

Then there exists a set $K^* = K_n^*(P) \in \mathcal{K}$ such that, by combining (41), (42), and the definition of $\hat{c}_n(1 - \alpha, J_0^{\tau\text{-best}}(P))$, we have

$$\begin{aligned}
\text{FWER}_P &\leq 1 - \min_{K \in \mathcal{K}} P \left\{ T_{n, J_0^{\tau\text{-best}}(P), K} \leq \hat{c}_n(1 - \alpha, J_0^{\tau\text{-best}}(P)) \right\} \\
&= 1 - P \left\{ T_{n, J_0^{\tau\text{-best}}(P), K^*} \leq \max_{K \in \mathcal{K}} M_n^{-1}(1 - \alpha, J_0^{\tau\text{-best}}(P), K, \hat{P}_n) \right\} \\
&\leq 1 - P \left\{ T_{n, J_0^{\tau\text{-best}}(P), K^*} \leq M_n^{-1}(1 - \alpha, J_0^{\tau\text{-best}}(P), K^*, \hat{P}_n) \right\}.
\end{aligned}$$

Therefore,

$$\begin{aligned}
\limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sup_{P \in \mathbf{P}} \text{FWER}_P &\leq 1 - \liminf_{n \rightarrow \infty} \inf_{P \in \mathbf{P}} P \left\{ T_{n, J_0^{\tau\text{-best}}(P), K^*} \leq M_n^{-1}(1 - \alpha, J_0^{\tau\text{-best}}(P), K^*, \hat{P}_n) \right\} \\
&\leq 1 - \liminf_{n \rightarrow \infty} \inf_{P \in \mathbf{P}} \min_{K \in \mathcal{K}} P \left\{ T_{n, J_0^{\tau\text{-best}}(P), K} \leq M_n^{-1}(1 - \alpha, J_0^{\tau\text{-best}}(P), K, \hat{P}_n) \right\} \\
&\leq \alpha,
\end{aligned}$$

where the last inequality follows from (26) and the fact that \mathcal{K} is a finite set. The desired result now follows because

$$\liminf_{n \rightarrow \infty} \inf_{P \in \mathbf{P}} P \{ J_0^{\tau\text{-best}}(P) \subseteq J_n^{\tau\text{-best}} \} = 1 - \limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sup_{P \in \mathbf{P}} \text{FWER}_P \geq 1 - \alpha.$$

■

D.2 Proofs of Results in the Appendix

Proof of Lemma B.1. Since the quantile in (35) is smaller than that in (36), we show the results for (35) and the analogous results for (36) then follow immediately. Define $\tau_j \equiv \sigma(P_j)/\sqrt{n_j}$.

Consider the claim (i). Suppose $\Delta_{j,k}(P) \in \tilde{C}_n(1 - \alpha, (j, k)) \equiv [\hat{\theta}_j - \hat{\theta}_k \pm (\tau_j + \tau_k)\tilde{q}_{1-\alpha}]$ for all $(j, k) \in S_{\text{all}}$. Then, for all $k \in \tilde{N}_j^-$, the interval $\tilde{C}_n(1 - \alpha, (j, k))$ lies entirely below zero, so that $\theta(P_j) < \theta(P_k)$. Similarly, for all $k \in \tilde{N}_j^+$, we have $\theta(P_j) > \theta(P_k)$. Therefore, the smallest possible value of the rank of j cannot be smaller than the number of elements in \tilde{N}_j^- , i.e. $\underline{r}_j(P) \geq |\tilde{N}_j^-|$, and the largest value of the rank of j cannot be larger than p minus the number of elements in \tilde{N}_j^+ , i.e. $\bar{r}_j(P) \leq p - |\tilde{N}_j^+|$. Therefore,

$$P \left\{ R(P) \subseteq \tilde{R}_n^{\text{joint}} \right\} \geq P \left\{ \Delta_{j,k}(P) \in \tilde{C}_n(1 - \alpha, (j, k)) \text{ for all } (j, k) \in S_{\text{all}} \right\}.$$

Letting $\alpha_{j,k} \equiv \tau_j/(\tau_j + \tau_k)$, we have

$$\begin{aligned}
& P \left\{ \Delta_{j,k}(P) \in \tilde{C}_n(1 - \alpha, (j, k)) \text{ for all } (j, k) \in S_{\text{all}} \right\} \\
&= P \left\{ \theta(P_j) - \theta(P_k) \in \left[\hat{\theta}_j - \hat{\theta}_k \pm (\tau_j + \tau_k) \tilde{q}_{1-\alpha} \right] \text{ for all } (j, k) \in S_{\text{all}} \right\} \\
&= P \left\{ \max_{(j,k) \in S_{\text{all}}} \left| \frac{\hat{\theta}_j - \theta(P_j)}{\tau_j + \tau_k} - \frac{\hat{\theta}_k - \theta(P_k)}{\tau_j + \tau_k} \right| \leq \tilde{q}_{1-\alpha} \right\} \\
&= P \left\{ \max_{(j,k) \in S_{\text{all}}} \left| \alpha_{j,k} \frac{\hat{\theta}_j - \theta(P_j)}{\tau_j} - (1 - \alpha_{j,k}) \frac{\hat{\theta}_k - \theta(P_k)}{\tau_k} \right| \leq \tilde{q}_{1-\alpha} \right\} \\
&> P \left\{ \max_{(j,k) \in S_{\text{all}}} \max \left\{ \left| \frac{\hat{\theta}_j - \theta(P_j)}{\tau_j} \right|, \left| \frac{\hat{\theta}_k - \theta(P_k)}{\tau_k} \right| \right\} \leq \tilde{q}_{1-\alpha} \right\} \\
&= P \left\{ \max_{j \in J} \left| \frac{\hat{\theta}_j - \theta(P_j)}{\tau_j} \right| \leq \tilde{q}_{1-\alpha} \right\} \\
&= 1 - \alpha,
\end{aligned}$$

The strict inequality follows from the fact that, for any numbers $\omega \in (0, 1)$ and $A \neq -B$, we have $|\omega A - (1-\omega)B| < \max\{|A|, |B|\}$. This inequality is applicable above because $\alpha_{j,k} \in (0, 1)$ and $P\{(\hat{\theta}_j - \theta(P_j))/\tau_j = (\hat{\theta}_k - \theta(P_k))/\tau_k\} = 0$ for all $(j, k) \in S_{\text{all}}$. Therefore, the desired claim in (i) follows.

Part (ii) follows from analogous arguments to those in the proof of Theorem 3.3 and in Remark 3.6.

Consider part (iii). Notice that, for $p = 2$, $q_{1-\alpha}$ is the $(1 - \alpha/2)$ -quantile of the standard normal distribution. Suppose there is a $k \in J$ such that $\tilde{C}_n(1 - \alpha, k)$ lies entirely above $\tilde{C}_n(1 - \alpha, j)$, i.e.,

$$\hat{\theta}_k - \tau_k \tilde{q}_{1-\alpha} > \hat{\theta}_j + \tau_j \tilde{q}_{1-\alpha}$$

or, equivalently,

$$\hat{\theta}_j - \hat{\theta}_k + (\tau_j + \tau_k) \tilde{q}_{1-\alpha} < 0.$$

This implies that $C_n(1 - \alpha, S_{\text{all}}, (j, k))$ lies entirely below zero if $\tau_j + \tau_k > \sqrt{\tau_j^2 + \tau_k^2}$ and $\tilde{q}_{1-\alpha} > q_{1-\alpha}$. The former condition obviously holds because $\tau_j > 0$ for all $j \in J$. The latter follows because, since $\alpha \in (0, 1)$,

$$\frac{1 + \sqrt{1 - \alpha}}{2} > 1 - \frac{\alpha}{2}.$$

Therefore, we have shown that $|\tilde{N}_j^-| \leq |N_j^-|$ for all $j \in J$. Similarly, we can show that $|\tilde{N}_j^+| \leq |N_j^+|$ for all $j \in J$. For $|\tilde{N}_j^-| < |N_j^-|$ to occur for some $j \in J$, there must exist a $k \in J$ such that

$$\hat{\theta}_j - \hat{\theta}_k + \sqrt{\tau_j^2 + \tau_k^2} q_{1-\alpha} < 0 < \hat{\theta}_j - \hat{\theta}_k + (\tau_j + \tau_k) \tilde{q}_{1-\alpha}$$

or, equivalently,

$$\hat{\theta}_k - \hat{\theta}_j \in \left(\sqrt{\tau_j^2 + \tau_k^2} q_{1-\alpha}, (\tau_j + \tau_k) \tilde{q}_{1-\alpha} \right).$$

This event occurs with positive probability because the interval has positive length, as shown above, and the difference in the estimators is normally distributed. Similarly, we can show that $|\tilde{N}_j^+| < |N_j^+|$ for some $j \in J$ occurs with positive probability, so the desired claim follows.

Finally, consider part (iv). Suppose there is a $k \in J$ such that $\tilde{C}_n(1 - \alpha, k)$ lies entirely above $\tilde{C}_n(1 - \alpha, j)$, i.e.,

$$\hat{\theta}_j - \hat{\theta}_k + \frac{2\sigma(P)}{\sqrt{n}} \tilde{q}_{1-\alpha} < 0.$$

Notice that $q_{1-\alpha}$ is the $(1 - \alpha)$ -quantile from the distribution of $\max_{(j,k) \in S_{\text{all}}} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} |Z_j - Z_k|$, where Z_1, \dots, Z_p are i.i.d. $N(0, 1)$ random variables. This quantile satisfies $\sqrt{2} q_{1-\alpha} < 2 \tilde{q}_{1-\alpha}$ for all $\alpha \in (0, 1)$ so that

$$\hat{\theta}_j - \hat{\theta}_k + \frac{\sqrt{2}\sigma(P)}{\sqrt{n}} q_{1-\alpha} < \hat{\theta}_j - \hat{\theta}_k + \frac{2\sigma(P)}{\sqrt{n}} \tilde{q}_{1-\alpha} < 0,$$

which means that $C_n(1 - \alpha, S_{\text{all}}, (j, k))$ lies entirely below zero. Therefore, $|\tilde{N}_j^-| \leq |N_j^-|$ for all $j \in J$. Similarly, we can show that $|\tilde{N}_j^+| \leq |N_j^+|$ for all $j \in J$. The remainder of the proof is then similar to that of part (iii). ■

Appendix E Simulation Results

n	δ_2	p	test	δ_1											
				0	0.22	0.44	0.67	0.89	1.11	1.33	1.56	1.78	2		
100	1	3	M	0.999	0.999	0.999	0.999	0.999	0.999	0.999	0.999	0.999	0.999	0.999	
			DM	0.948	0.948	0.948	0.948	0.948	0.948	0.948	0.948	0.948	0.948	0.948	
			DM.step	0.948	0.948	0.948	0.948	0.948	0.948	0.948	0.948	0.948	0.948	0.948	
		10	M	0.999	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	
			DM	0.940	0.993	0.980	0.980	0.980	0.980	0.980	0.980	0.980	0.980	0.980	
			DM.step	0.940	0.992	0.975	0.971	0.973	0.973	0.973	0.973	0.973	0.973	0.973	
	3	50	M	0.999	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	
			DM	0.950	1.000	0.999	0.999	0.999	0.999	0.999	0.999	0.999	0.999	0.999	
			DM.step	0.950	1.000	0.998	0.994	0.993	0.993	0.993	0.993	0.993	0.993	0.993	
		3	M	0.999	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	
			DM	0.948	0.998	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	
			DM.step	0.948	0.998	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	
	200	1	10	M	0.999	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000
				DM	0.940	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000
				DM.step	0.940	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000
			50	M	0.999	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000
				DM	0.950	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000
				DM.step	0.950	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000
3		3	M	0.997	0.997	0.997	0.997	0.997	0.997	0.997	0.997	0.997	0.997	0.997	
			DM	0.956	0.956	0.956	0.956	0.956	0.956	0.956	0.956	0.956	0.956	0.956	
			DM.step	0.956	0.956	0.956	0.956	0.956	0.956	0.956	0.956	0.956	0.956	0.956	
		10	M	0.999	0.999	0.999	0.999	0.999	0.999	0.999	0.999	0.999	0.999	0.999	
			DM	0.950	0.988	0.986	0.986	0.986	0.986	0.986	0.986	0.986	0.986	0.986	
			DM.step	0.950	0.983	0.976	0.975	0.975	0.975	0.975	0.975	0.975	0.975	0.975	
3	50	M	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000		
		DM	0.947	0.997	0.996	0.996	0.996	0.996	0.996	0.996	0.996	0.996	0.996		
		DM.step	0.947	0.996	0.996	0.995	0.995	0.995	0.995	0.995	0.995	0.995	0.995		
	3	M	0.997	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000		
		DM	0.956	0.998	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000		
		DM.step	0.956	0.998	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000		
3	10	M	0.999	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000		
		DM	0.950	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000		
		DM.step	0.950	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000		
	50	M	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000		
		DM	0.947	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000		
		DM.step	0.947	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000		

Table 4: **Single Rank:** coverage frequency of the confidence sets for $t_{max} = 0$

n	δ_2	p	test	δ_1										
				0	0.22	0.44	0.67	0.89	1.11	1.33	1.56	1.78	2	
100	1	3	M	0.999	0.999	0.999	0.999	0.999	0.999	0.999	0.999	0.999	0.999	0.999
			DM	0.948	0.948	0.948	0.948	0.948	0.948	0.948	0.948	0.948	0.948	0.948
		10	DM.step	0.948	0.948	0.948	0.948	0.948	0.948	0.948	0.948	0.948	0.948	0.948
			M	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000
		50	DM	0.973	0.986	0.980	0.980	0.980	0.980	0.980	0.980	0.980	0.980	0.980
			DM.step	0.968	0.981	0.973	0.973	0.973	0.973	0.973	0.973	0.973	0.973	0.973
	3	3	M	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	
			DM	0.996	0.999	0.999	0.999	0.999	0.999	0.999	0.999	0.999	0.999	
		10	DM.step	0.994	0.996	0.993	0.993	0.993	0.993	0.993	0.993	0.993	0.993	
			M	0.999	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	
		50	DM	0.948	0.998	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	
			DM.step	0.948	0.998	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	
	200	1	3	M	0.997	0.997	0.997	0.997	0.997	0.997	0.997	0.997	0.997	0.997
				DM	0.956	0.956	0.956	0.956	0.956	0.956	0.956	0.956	0.956	0.956
			10	DM.step	0.956	0.956	0.956	0.956	0.956	0.956	0.956	0.956	0.956	0.956
				M	0.999	0.999	0.999	0.999	0.999	0.999	0.999	0.999	0.999	0.999
			50	DM	0.987	0.987	0.986	0.986	0.986	0.986	0.986	0.986	0.986	0.986
				DM.step	0.982	0.980	0.975	0.975	0.975	0.975	0.975	0.975	0.975	0.975
3		3	M	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000		
			DM	0.996	0.996	0.996	0.996	0.996	0.996	0.996	0.996	0.996		
		10	DM.step	0.995	0.996	0.995	0.995	0.995	0.995	0.995	0.995	0.995		
			M	0.997	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000		
		50	DM	0.956	0.998	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000		
			DM.step	0.956	0.998	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000		

Table 5: **Single Rank:** coverage frequency of the confidence sets for $t_{max} = 2$

n	δ_2	p	test	δ_1											
				0	0.22	0.44	0.67	0.89	1.11	1.33	1.56	1.78	2		
100	1	3	M	0.997	0.997	0.997	0.997	0.997	0.997	0.997	0.997	0.997	0.997	0.997	
			DM	0.948	0.948	0.948	0.948	0.948	0.948	0.948	0.948	0.948	0.948	0.948	
		10	DM.step	0.948	0.948	0.948	0.948	0.948	0.948	0.948	0.948	0.948	0.948	0.948	
			M	0.997	0.999	0.999	0.999	0.999	0.999	0.999	0.999	0.999	0.999	0.999	
		50	DM	0.943	0.964	0.964	0.964	0.964	0.964	0.964	0.964	0.964	0.964	0.964	
			DM.step	0.943	0.963	0.959	0.959	0.957	0.957	0.957	0.957	0.957	0.957	0.957	
	3	3	M	0.993	0.994	0.994	0.994	0.994	0.994	0.994	0.994	0.994	0.994	0.994	
			DM	0.930	0.934	0.934	0.934	0.934	0.934	0.934	0.934	0.934	0.934	0.934	
		10	DM.step	0.930	0.933	0.931	0.931	0.932	0.932	0.932	0.932	0.932	0.932	0.932	
			M	0.997	0.998	0.998	0.998	0.998	0.998	0.998	0.998	0.998	0.998	0.998	
		50	DM	0.948	0.977	0.978	0.978	0.978	0.978	0.978	0.978	0.978	0.978	0.978	
			DM.step	0.948	0.976	0.975	0.974	0.972	0.972	0.971	0.971	0.971	0.971	0.971	
	200	1	3	M	0.997	0.997	0.997	0.997	0.997	0.997	0.997	0.997	0.997	0.997	
				DM	0.954	0.954	0.954	0.954	0.954	0.954	0.954	0.954	0.954	0.954	
			10	DM.step	0.954	0.954	0.954	0.954	0.954	0.954	0.954	0.954	0.954	0.954	
				M	0.995	0.998	0.998	0.998	0.998	0.998	0.998	0.998	0.998	0.998	0.998
			50	DM	0.946	0.964	0.964	0.964	0.964	0.964	0.964	0.964	0.964	0.964	0.964
				DM.step	0.946	0.961	0.959	0.959	0.959	0.959	0.959	0.959	0.959	0.959	0.959
3		3	M	0.990	0.990	0.990	0.990	0.990	0.990	0.990	0.990	0.990	0.990	0.990	
			DM	0.940	0.944	0.944	0.944	0.944	0.944	0.944	0.944	0.944	0.944	0.944	
		10	DM.step	0.940	0.941	0.940	0.940	0.940	0.940	0.940	0.940	0.940	0.940	0.940	
			M	0.997	0.999	0.999	0.999	0.999	0.999	0.999	0.999	0.999	0.999	0.999	
		50	DM	0.954	0.985	0.985	0.985	0.985	0.985	0.985	0.985	0.985	0.985	0.985	
			DM.step	0.954	0.983	0.980	0.978	0.978	0.978	0.978	0.978	0.978	0.978	0.978	
3		3	M	0.995	0.998	0.999	0.999	0.999	0.999	0.999	0.999	0.999	0.999	0.999	
			DM	0.946	0.970	0.969	0.970	0.970	0.970	0.970	0.970	0.970	0.970	0.970	
		10	DM.step	0.946	0.967	0.965	0.967	0.967	0.965	0.965	0.965	0.965	0.965	0.965	
			M	0.990	0.990	0.990	0.990	0.990	0.990	0.990	0.990	0.990	0.990	0.990	
		50	DM	0.940	0.944	0.944	0.944	0.944	0.944	0.944	0.944	0.944	0.944	0.944	
			DM.step	0.940	0.941	0.940	0.940	0.939	0.940	0.940	0.940	0.940	0.940	0.940	

Table 6: **All Ranks:** coverage frequency of the confidence sets for $t_{max} = 0$

n	δ_2	p	test	δ_1											
				0	0.22	0.44	0.67	0.89	1.11	1.33	1.56	1.78	2		
100	1	3	M	0.997	0.997	0.997	0.997	0.997	0.997	0.997	0.997	0.997	0.997	0.997	
			DM	0.948	0.948	0.948	0.948	0.948	0.948	0.948	0.948	0.948	0.948	0.948	
		10	DM.step	0.948	0.948	0.948	0.948	0.948	0.948	0.948	0.948	0.948	0.948	0.948	
			M	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	
		50	DM	0.988	0.994	0.994	0.994	0.994	0.994	0.994	0.994	0.994	0.994	0.994	
			DM.step	0.981	0.990	0.989	0.989	0.989	0.989	0.989	0.989	0.989	0.989	0.989	
	3	3	M	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	
			DM	0.999	0.999	0.999	0.999	0.999	0.999	0.999	0.999	0.999	0.999	0.999	
		10	DM.step	0.999	0.999	0.999	0.999	0.999	0.999	0.999	0.999	0.999	0.999	0.999	
			M	0.997	0.998	0.998	0.998	0.998	0.998	0.998	0.998	0.998	0.998	0.998	
		50	DM	0.948	0.977	0.978	0.978	0.978	0.978	0.978	0.978	0.978	0.978	0.978	
			DM.step	0.948	0.976	0.975	0.974	0.972	0.972	0.971	0.971	0.971	0.971	0.971	
	200	1	3	M	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000
				DM	0.988	0.999	1.000	1.000	0.999	0.999	0.999	0.999	0.999	0.999	0.999
			10	DM.step	0.981	0.996	0.997	0.996	0.996	0.996	0.996	0.996	0.996	0.996	0.996
				M	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000
			50	DM	0.999	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000
				DM.step	0.999	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000
3		3	M	0.997	0.997	0.997	0.997	0.997	0.997	0.997	0.997	0.997	0.997	0.997	
			DM	0.954	0.954	0.954	0.954	0.954	0.954	0.954	0.954	0.954	0.954	0.954	
		10	DM.step	0.954	0.954	0.954	0.954	0.954	0.954	0.954	0.954	0.954	0.954	0.954	
			M	0.999	0.999	0.999	0.999	0.999	0.999	0.999	0.999	0.999	0.999	0.999	
		50	DM	0.988	0.990	0.990	0.990	0.990	0.990	0.990	0.990	0.990	0.990	0.990	
			DM.step	0.986	0.988	0.988	0.988	0.988	0.988	0.988	0.988	0.988	0.988	0.988	
3		3	M	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	
			DM	0.999	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	
		10	DM.step	0.999	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	
			M	0.997	0.999	0.999	0.999	0.999	0.999	0.999	0.999	0.999	0.999	0.999	
		50	DM	0.954	0.985	0.985	0.985	0.985	0.985	0.985	0.985	0.985	0.985	0.985	
			DM.step	0.954	0.983	0.980	0.978	0.978	0.978	0.978	0.978	0.978	0.978	0.978	

Table 7: **All Ranks:** coverage frequency of the confidence sets for $t_{max} = 2$

n	δ_2	p	test	δ_1										
				0	0.22	0.44	0.67	0.89	1.11	1.33	1.56	1.78	2	
100	1	3	naive	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
			M	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000
			DM	0.996	0.996	0.996	0.996	0.996	0.996	0.996	0.996	0.996	0.996	0.996
			DM.step	0.995	0.995	0.995	0.995	0.995	0.995	0.995	0.995	0.995	0.995	0.995
		T	0.993	0.993	0.993	0.993	0.993	0.993	0.993	0.993	0.993	0.993	0.993	
		10	naive	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
			M	0.999	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000
			DM	0.992	0.999	0.999	0.999	0.999	0.999	0.999	0.999	0.999	0.999	0.999
			DM.step	0.991	0.999	0.998	0.998	0.998	0.998	0.998	0.998	0.998	0.998	0.998
		T	0.992	0.998	0.997	0.997	0.997	0.997	0.997	0.997	0.997	0.997	0.997	
		50	naive	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
			M	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000
	DM		0.985	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	
	DM.step		0.984	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	
	T	0.990	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000		
	3	3	naive	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
			M	1.000	0.999	0.999	0.998	0.998	0.998	0.998	0.998	0.998	0.998	0.998
			DM	0.996	0.992	0.982	0.979	0.979	0.979	0.979	0.979	0.979	0.979	0.979
			DM.step	0.995	0.989	0.978	0.974	0.973	0.968	0.968	0.968	0.968	0.968	0.968
		T	0.993	0.990	0.981	0.979	0.979	0.979	0.979	0.979	0.979	0.979	0.979	
		10	naive	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
			M	0.999	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000
			DM	0.992	0.998	0.998	0.997	0.997	0.997	0.997	0.997	0.997	0.997	0.997
			DM.step	0.991	0.998	0.998	0.997	0.997	0.996	0.996	0.996	0.996	0.996	0.996
T		0.992	0.997	0.997	0.997	0.995	0.995	0.995	0.995	0.995	0.995	0.995		
50		naive	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	
		M	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	
	DM	0.985	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000		
	DM.step	0.984	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000		
T	0.990	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	0.998	0.998	0.998			
200	1	3	naive	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
			M	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000
			DM	0.995	0.995	0.995	0.995	0.995	0.995	0.995	0.995	0.995	0.995	0.995
			DM.step	0.995	0.995	0.995	0.995	0.995	0.995	0.995	0.995	0.995	0.995	0.995
		T	0.995	0.995	0.995	0.995	0.995	0.995	0.995	0.995	0.995	0.995	0.995	
		10	naive	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
			M	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000
			DM	0.985	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000
			DM.step	0.985	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000
		T	0.988	1.000	0.999	0.999	0.999	0.999	0.999	0.999	0.999	0.999	0.999	
		50	naive	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
			M	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000
	DM		0.986	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	
	DM.step		0.985	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	
	T	0.991	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000		
	3	3	naive	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
			M	1.000	1.000	1.000	0.999	0.999	0.999	0.999	0.999	0.999	0.999	0.999
			DM	0.995	0.988	0.985	0.984	0.984	0.984	0.984	0.984	0.984	0.984	0.984
			DM.step	0.995	0.987	0.983	0.980	0.980	0.980	0.980	0.980	0.980	0.980	0.980
		T	0.995	0.986	0.982	0.981	0.981	0.981	0.981	0.981	0.981	0.981	0.981	
		10	naive	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
			M	1.000	0.999	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000
			DM	0.985	0.996	0.995	0.996	0.996	0.996	0.996	0.996	0.996	0.996	0.996
			DM.step	0.985	0.996	0.995	0.995	0.995	0.995	0.995	0.995	0.995	0.995	0.995
T		0.988	0.996	0.995	0.993	0.992	0.990	0.991	0.990	0.990	0.990	0.990		
50		naive	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	
		M	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	
	DM	0.986	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000		
	DM.step	0.985	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000		
T	0.991	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000			

Table 8: τ -Best: coverage frequency of the confidence sets for $t_{max} = 0$

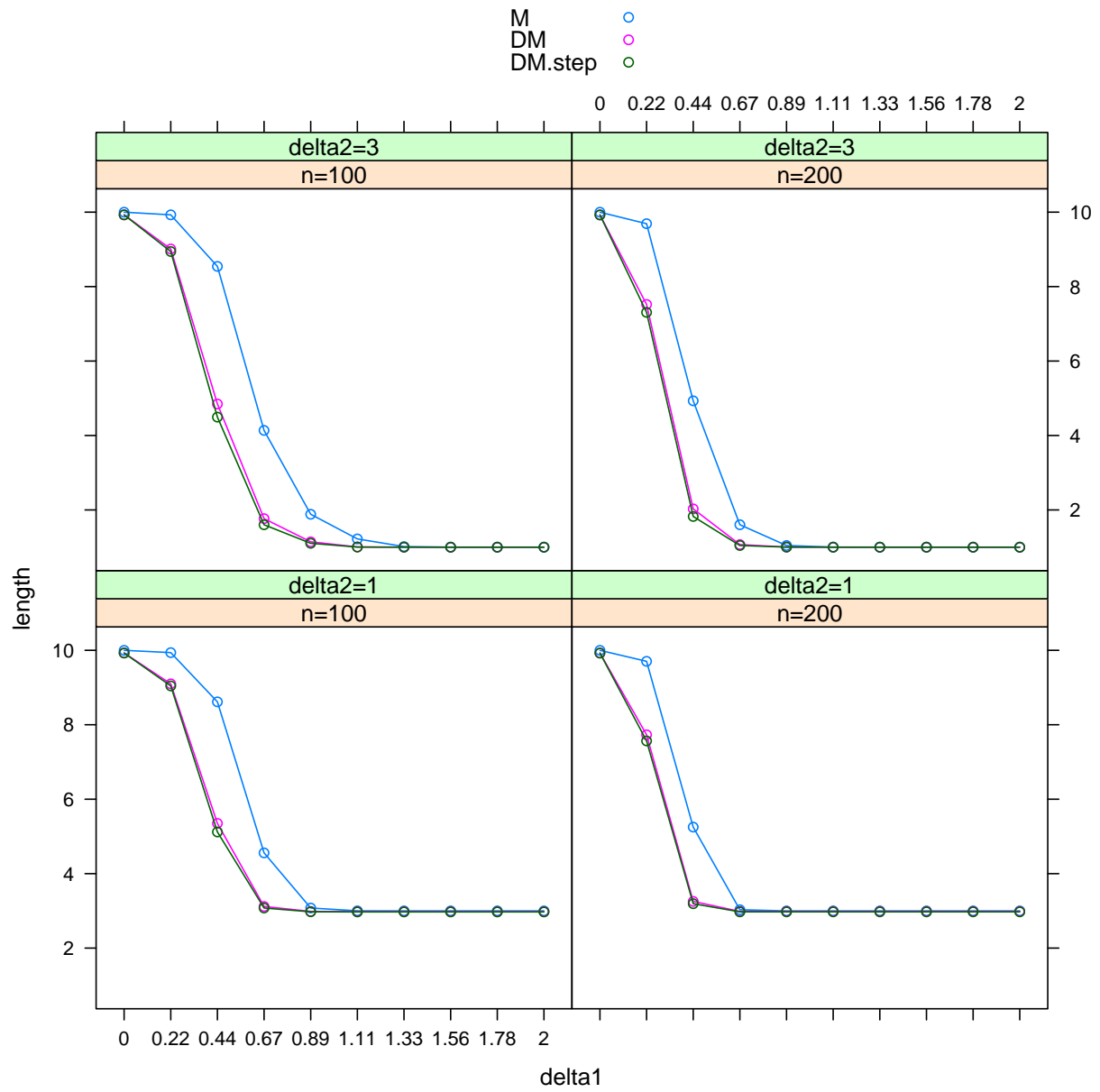


Figure 15: **Single Rank**: length of the confidence sets for $t_{max} = 0$ and $p = 10$.

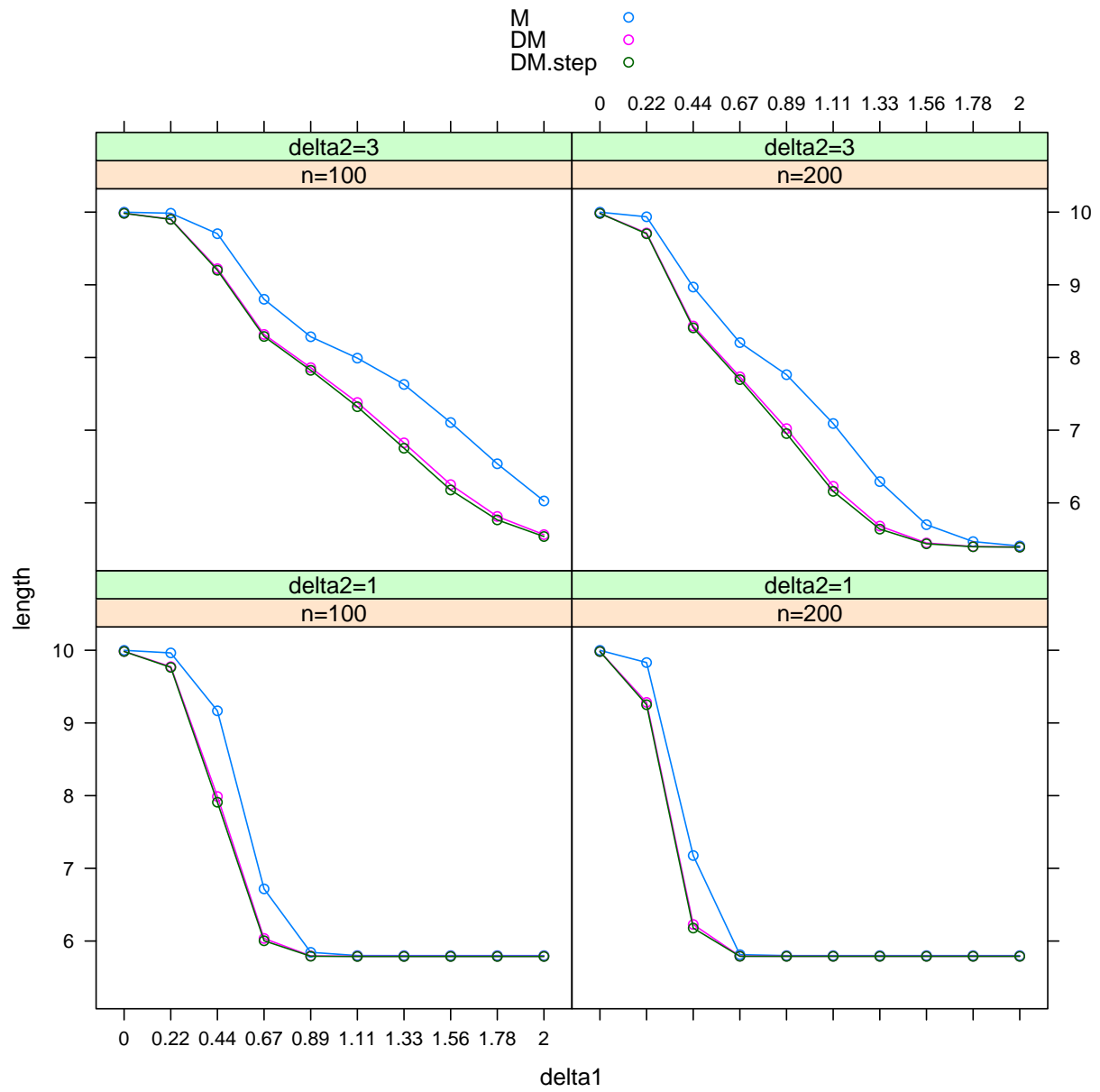


Figure 16: **Multiple Ranks:** length of the confidence sets for $t_{max} = 0$ and $p = 10$.

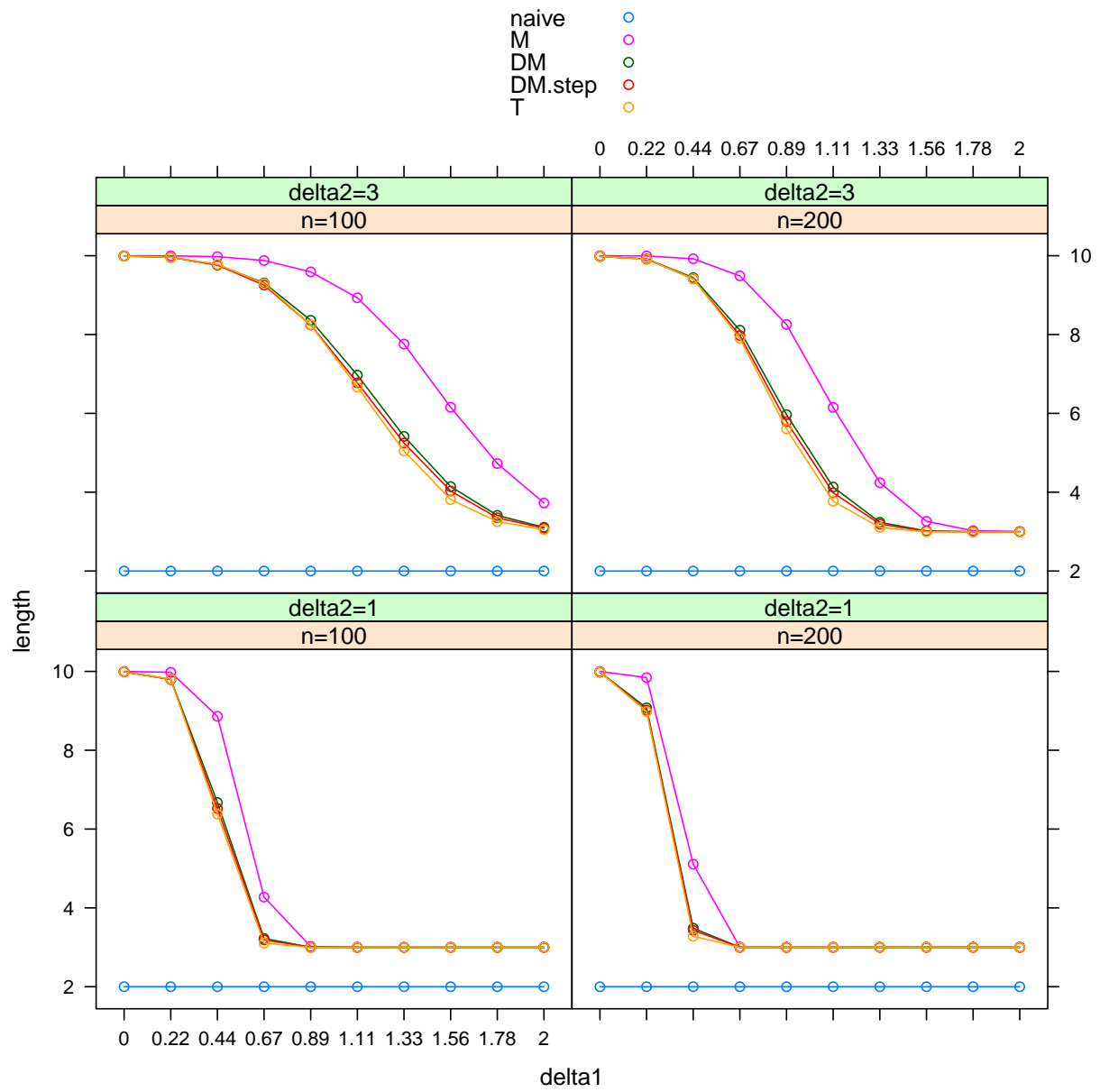


Figure 17: τ -Best: length of the confidence sets for $t_{max} = 0$ and $p = 10$.

Appendix F Supporting Results for the Empirical Applications

F.1 PISA Student Tests in OECD Countries: Math and Science Proficiency

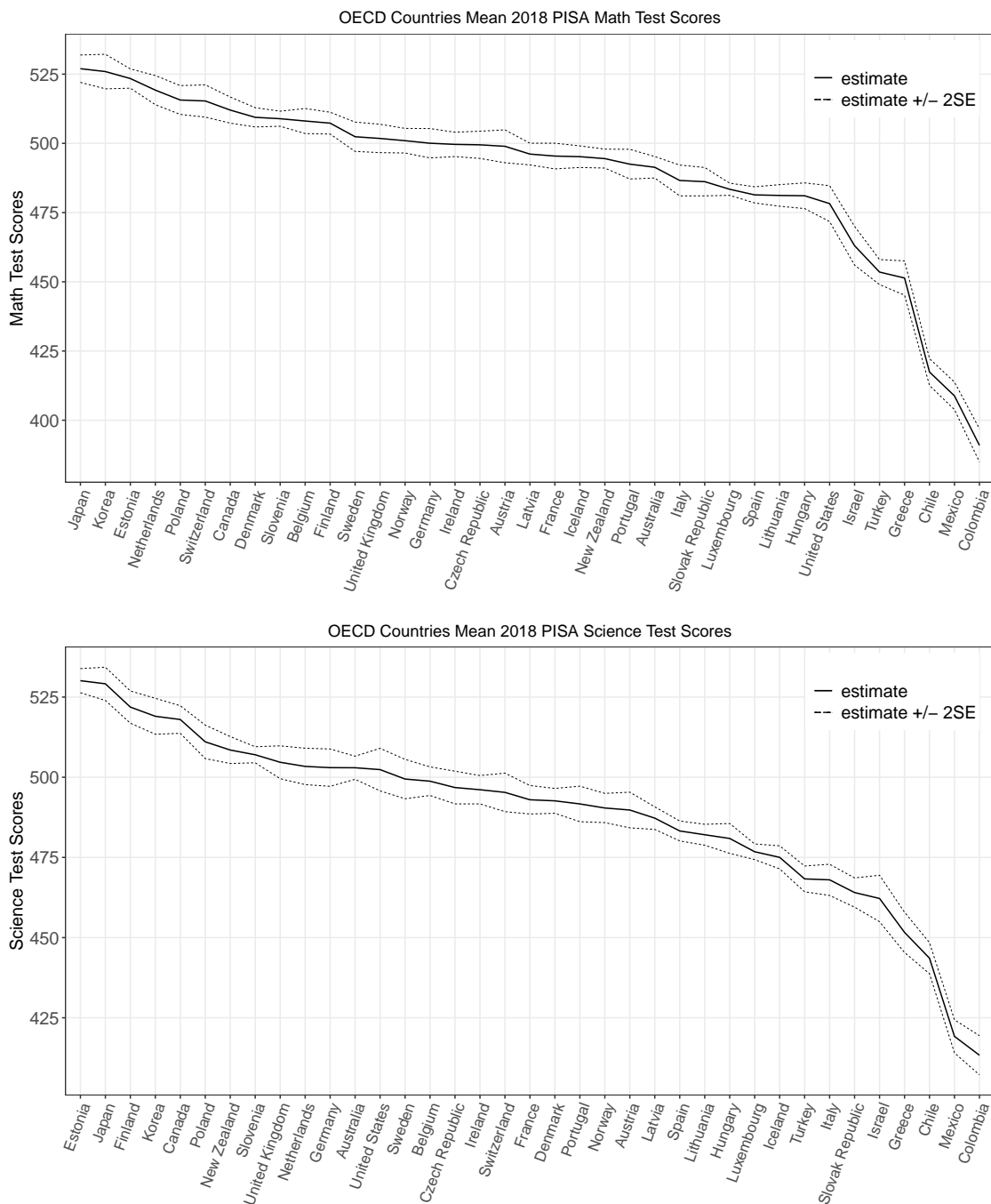


Figure 18: Mean PISA Test Scores with marginal confidence intervals (estimates plus or minus twice the standard errors) for the sample of OECD countries. The PISA scale is normalized to approximately fit a normal distribution with the mean of 500 and standard deviation of 100. **Top:** Math Test Score; **Bottom:** Science Proficiency Test Score.

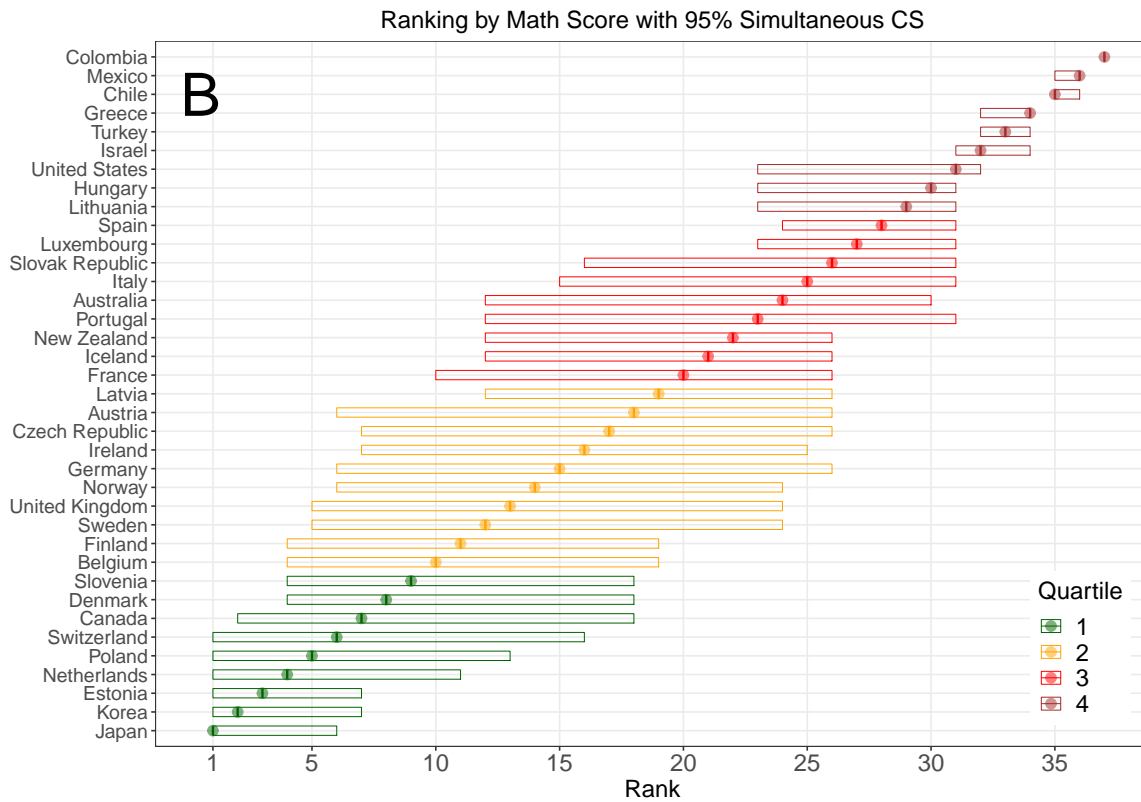
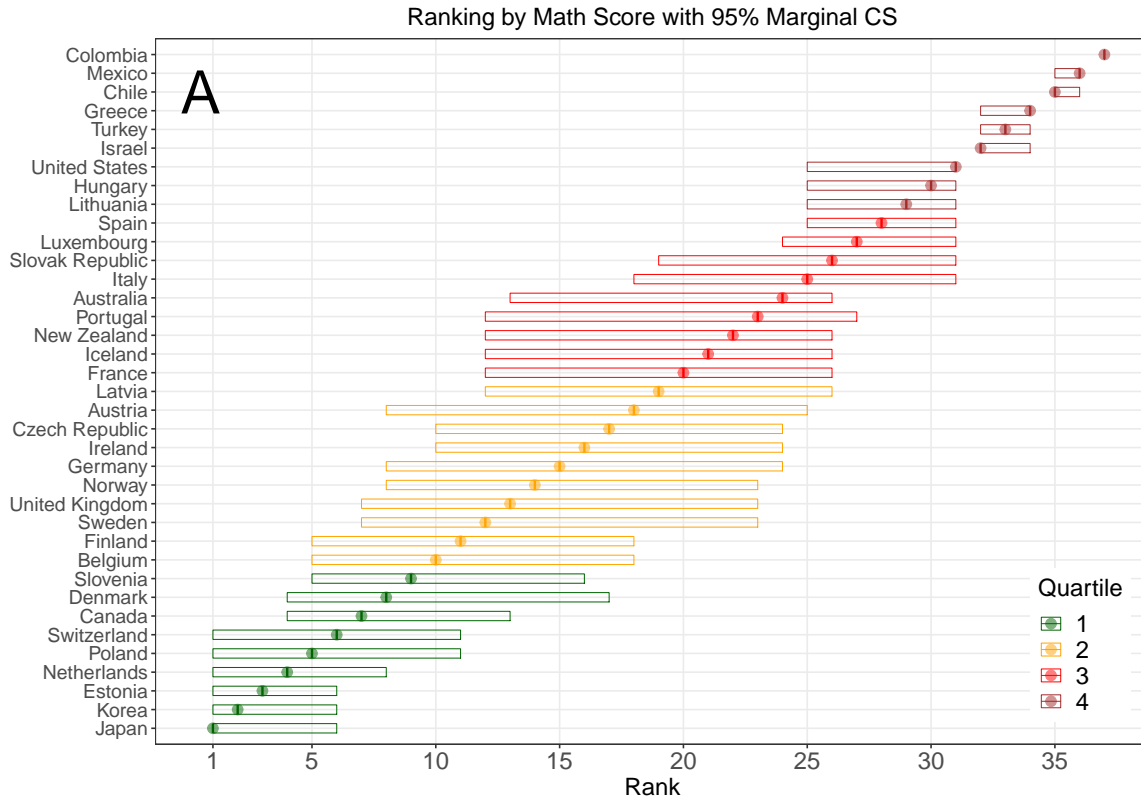


Figure 19: **Panel A:** for each OECD country, we plot its rank by math score and the 95% marginal confidence set (“CS”). **Panel B:** for each OECD country, we plot its rank by math score and the 95% simultaneous confidence set (“CS”). Different quartiles of the rankings are indicated with different colors.

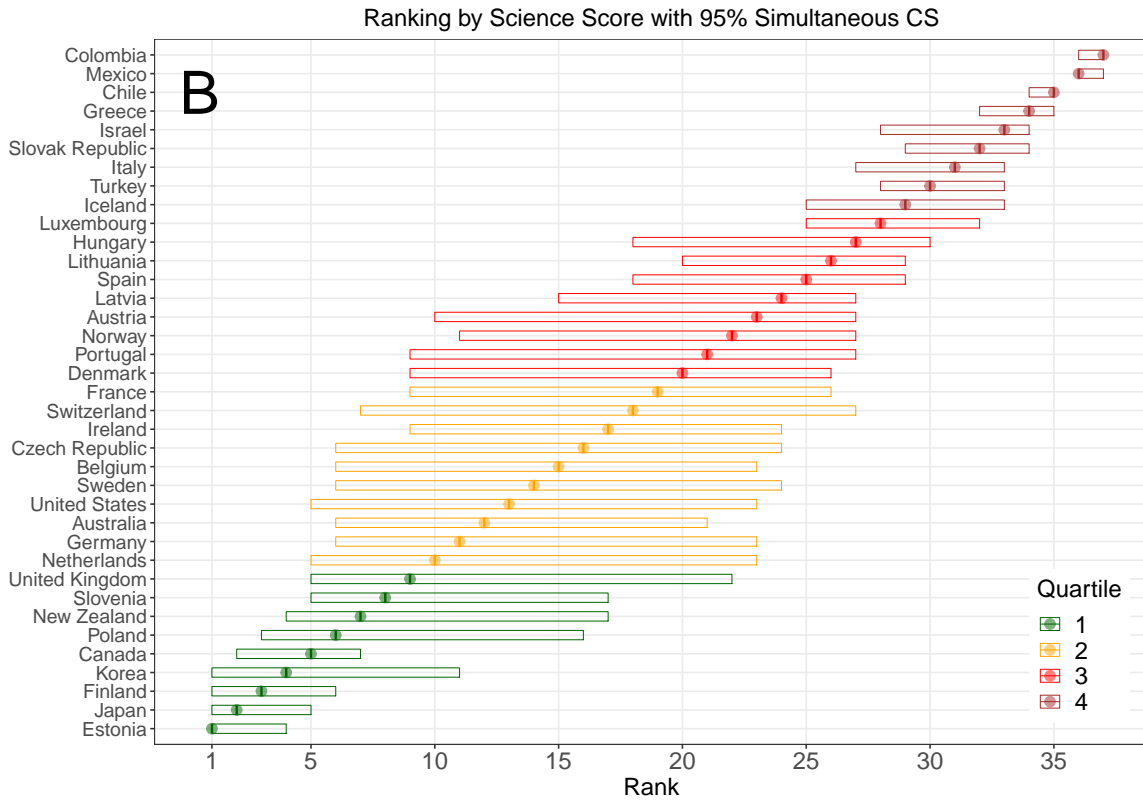
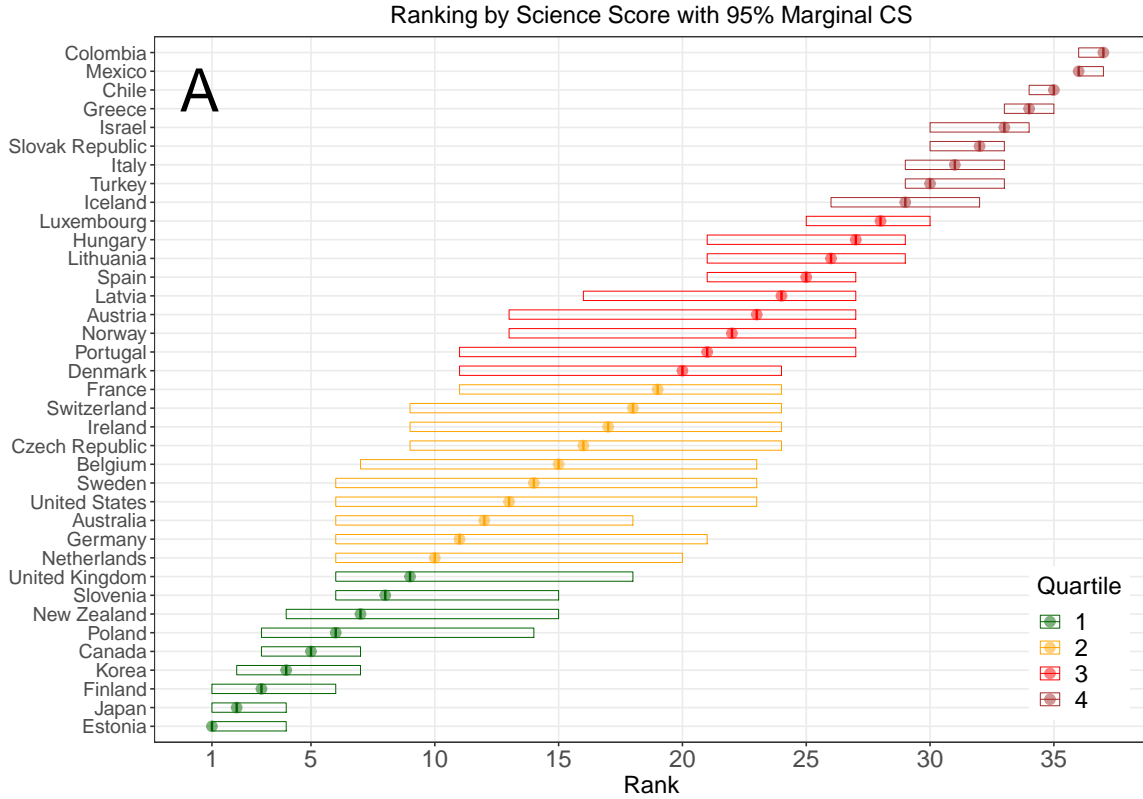


Figure 20: **Panel A:** for each OECD country, we plot its rank by science proficiency score and the 95% marginal confidence set (“CS”). **Panel B:** for each OECD country, we plot its rank by science proficiency score and the 95% simultaneous confidence set (“CS”). Different quartiles of the rankings are indicated with different colors.

F.2 50 Most Populous Commuting Zones and Counties

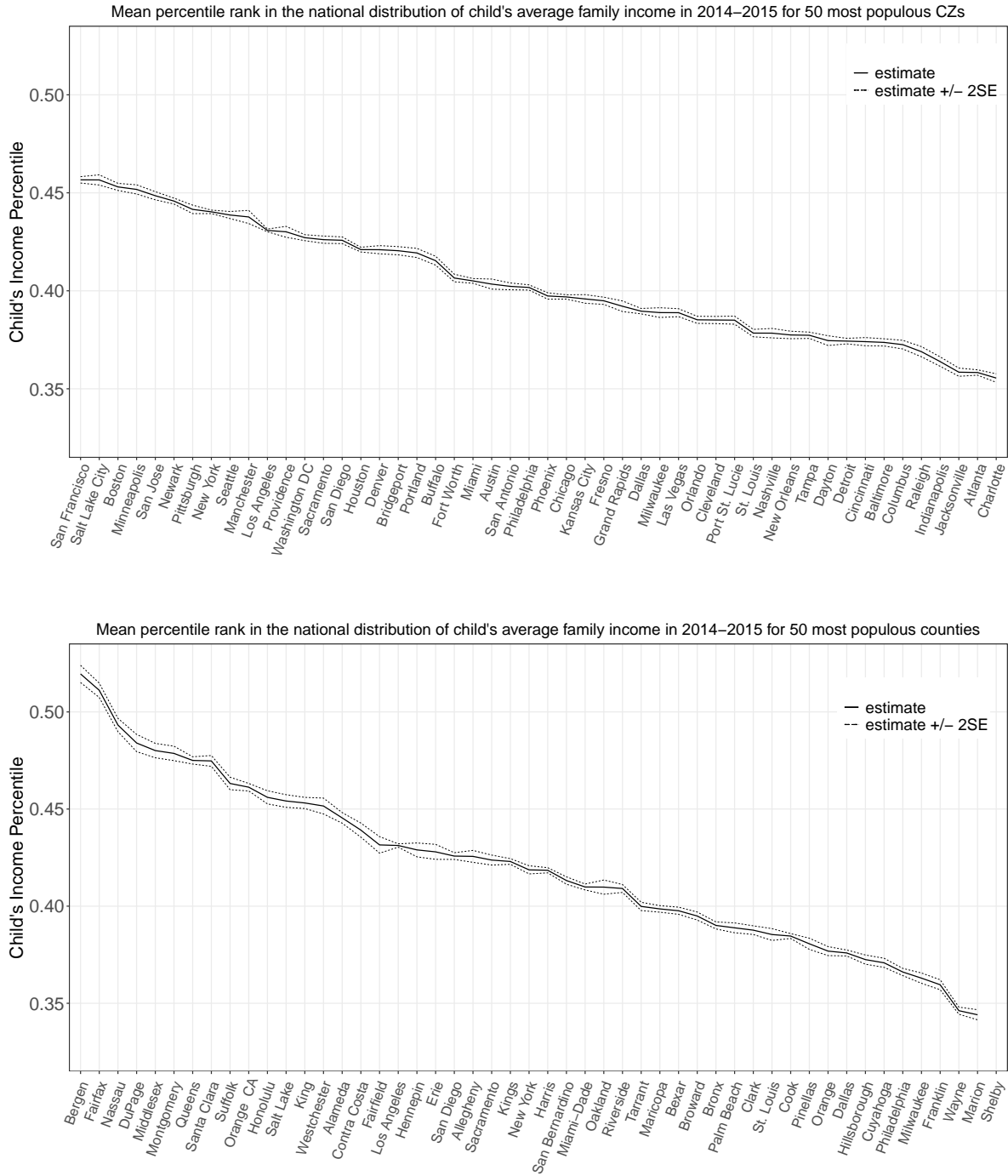


Figure 21: Estimates of the mean percentile rank of child's average household income for 2014-2015 in the national distribution of her cohort (\bar{y}_{c25}) with marginal confidence intervals (estimates plus or minus twice the standard errors) from Chetty et al. (2018) for the 50 most populous Commuting Zones (**Top Panel**) and the 50 most populous counties (**Bottom Panel**).

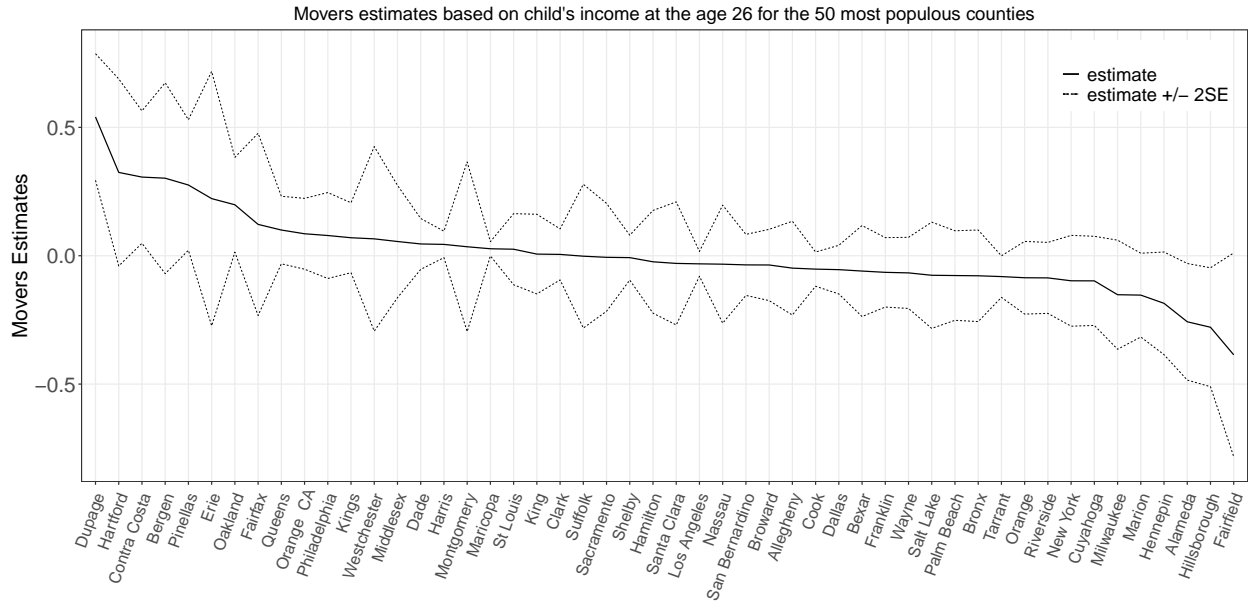
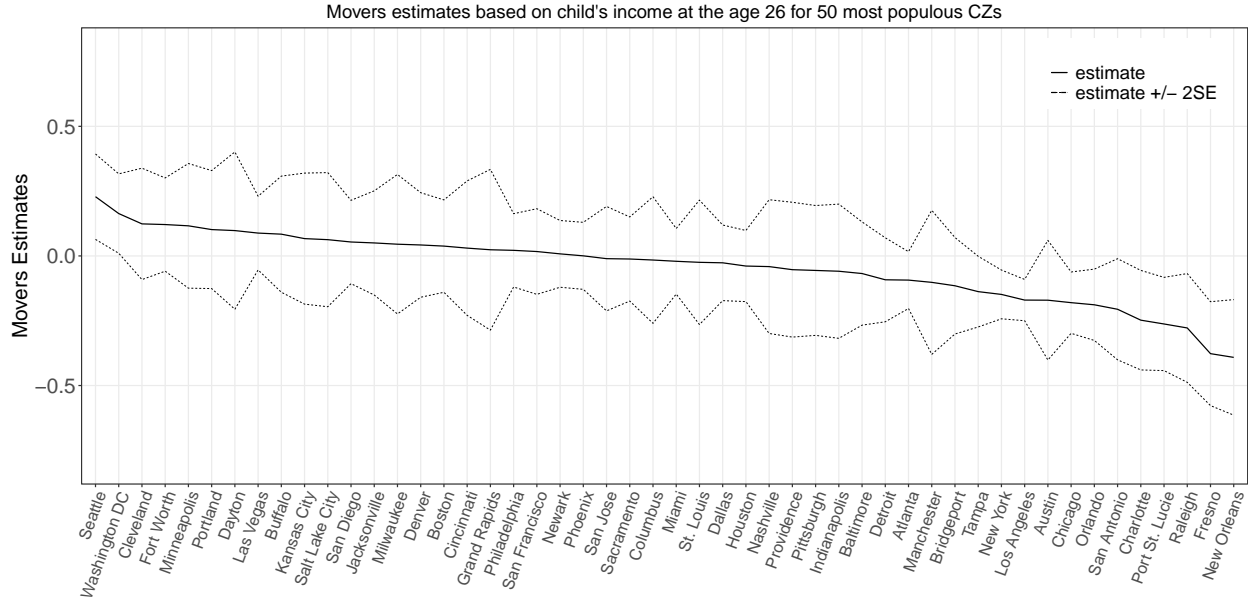


Figure 22: Movers estimates of the exposure effects (μ_{c25}) with marginal confidence intervals (estimates plus or minus twice the standard errors) from [Chetty and Hendren \(2018\)](#) for the 50 most populous CZs (**Top Panel**) and for the 50 most populous counties (**Bottom Panel**).

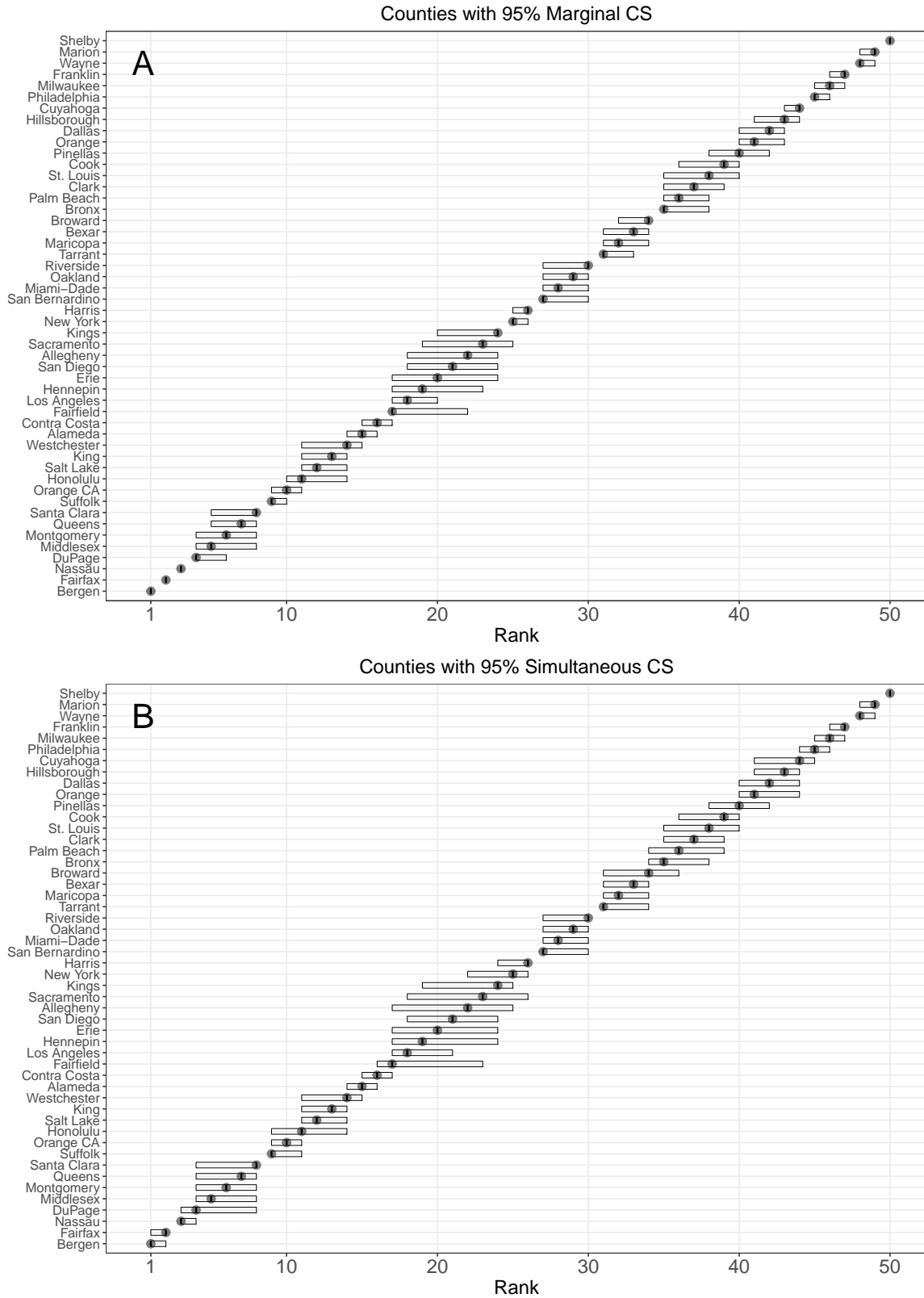


Figure 23: **Panel A:** point estimates and the 95% marginal confidence sets (“CS”) for the ranking of the 50 most populous counties by \bar{y}_{c25} . **Panel B:** point estimates and the 95% simultaneous confidence sets (“CS”) for the ranking of the 50 most populous counties by \bar{y}_{c25} .

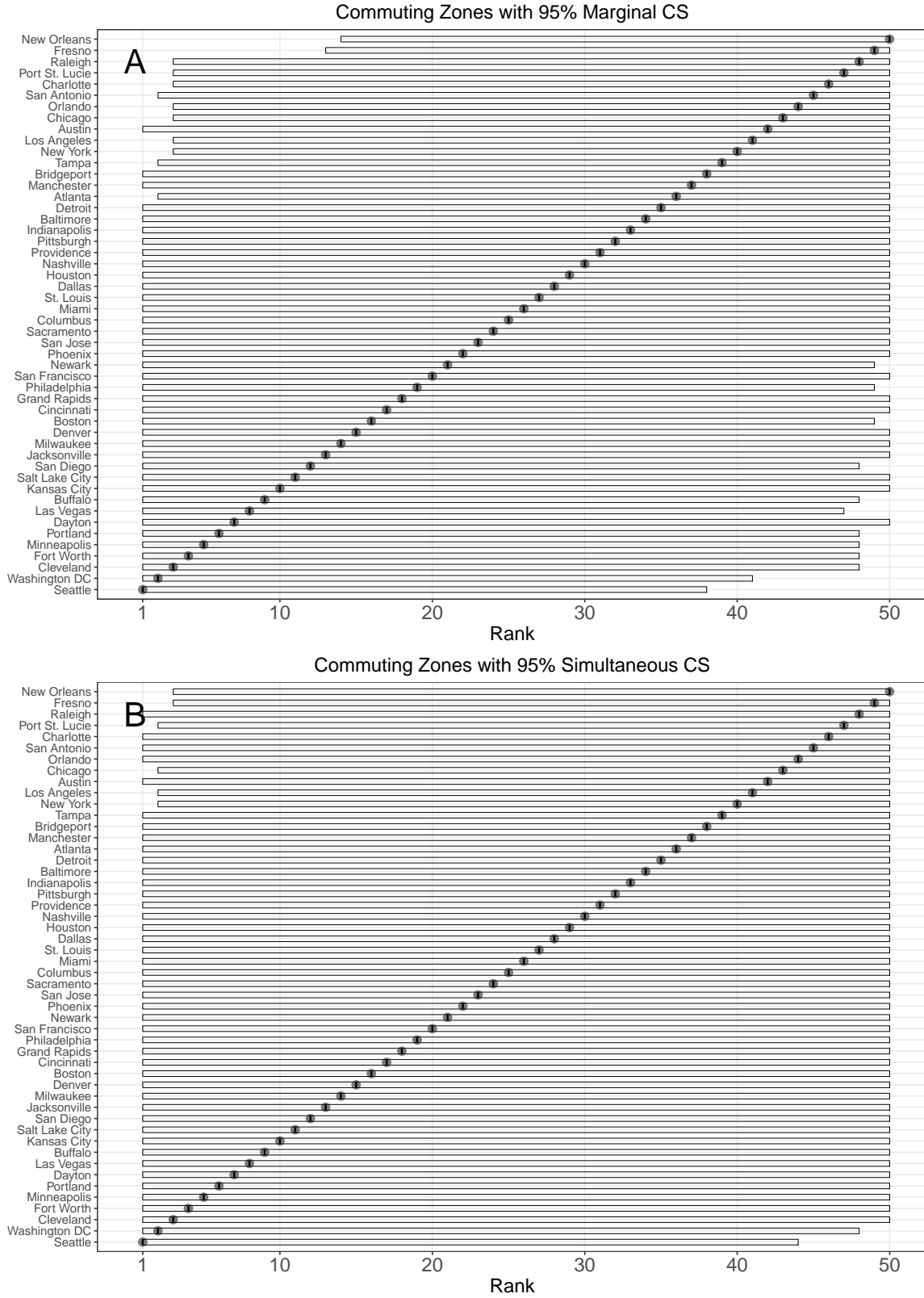
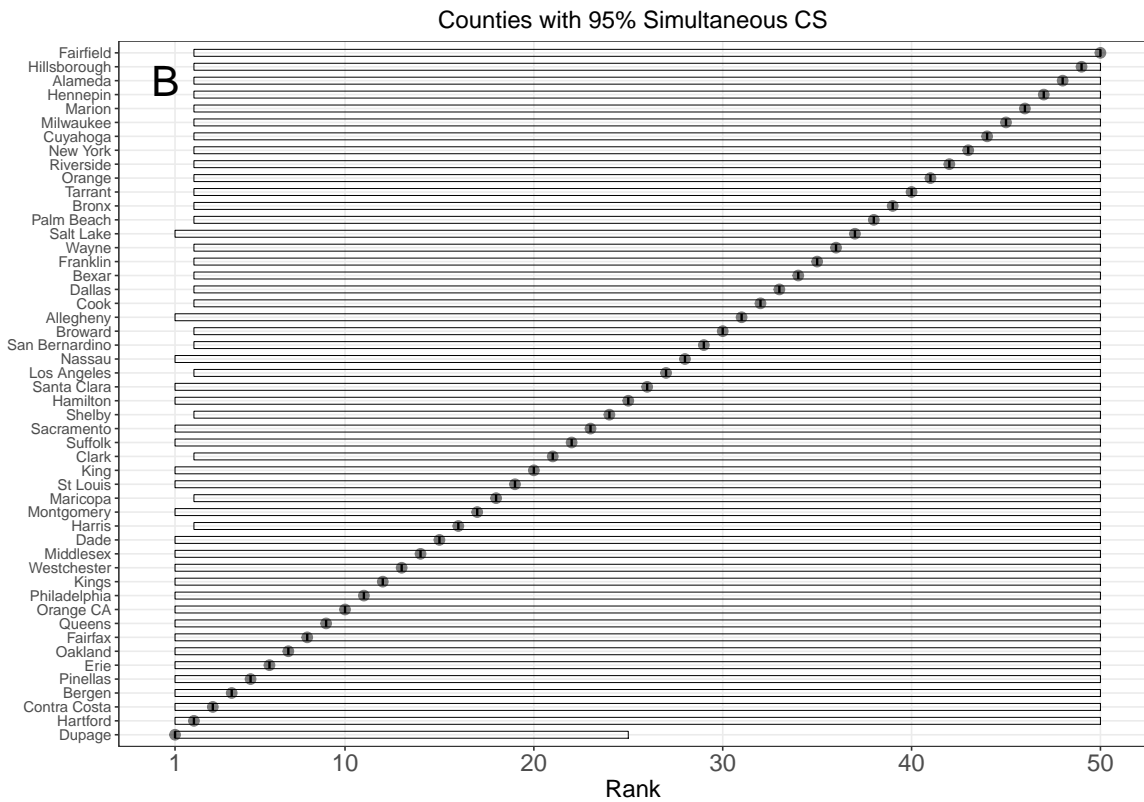
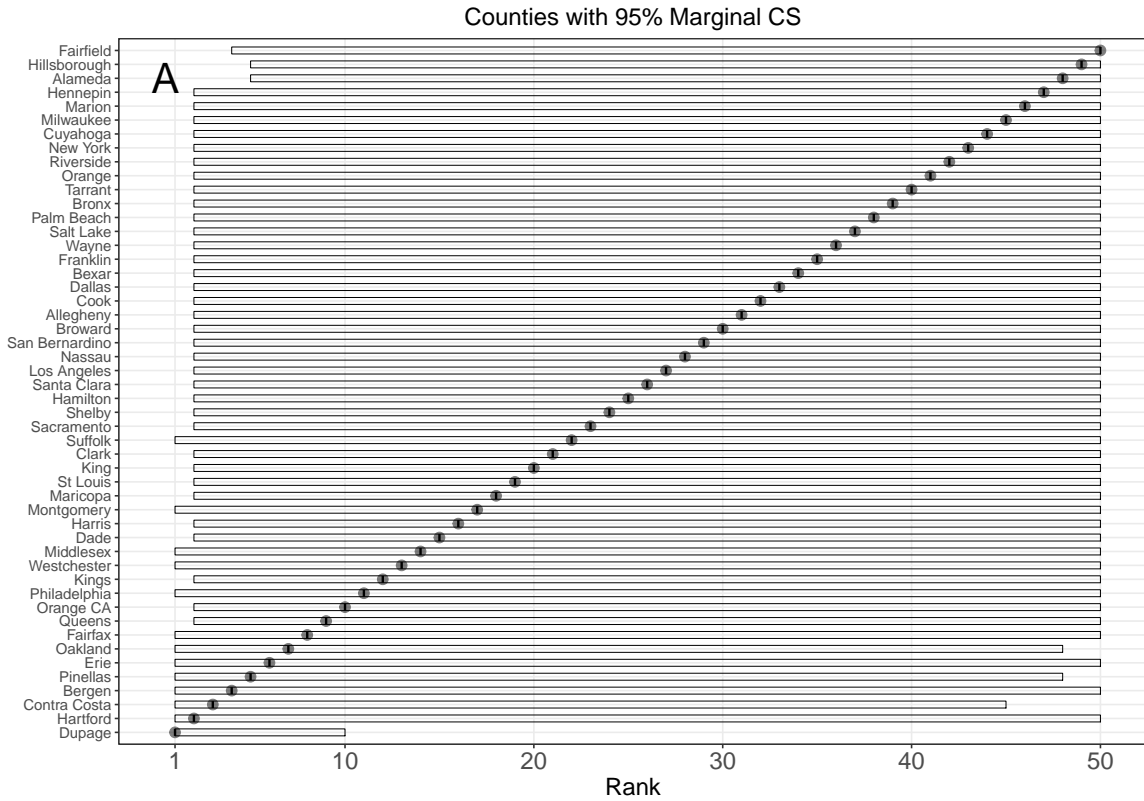


Figure 24: **Panel A:** point estimates and the 95% marginal confidence sets (“CS”) for the ranking of the 50 most populous CZs by μ_{c25} . **Panel B:** point estimates and the 95% simultaneous confidence sets (“CS”) for the ranking of the 50 most populous CZs by μ_{c25} .



μ_{c25}

Figure 25: **Panel A:** point estimates and the 95% marginal confidence sets (“CS”) for the ranking of the 50 most populous counties by μ_{c25} . **Panel B:** point estimates and the 95% simultaneous confidence sets (“CS”) for the ranking of the 50 most populous counties by μ_{c25} .

Panel A: Top 5											
Rank	τ	Correlational					Movers				
		County	\hat{y}_{c25}	SE	95% CS	τ -best	County	$\hat{\mu}_{c25}$	SE	95% CS	τ -best
1	1	Bergen	0.520	0.002	[1, 1]	2	DuPage	0.540	0.123	[1, 10]	25
2	2	Fairfax	0.511	0.002	[2, 2]	2	Hartford	0.325	0.182	[1, 50]	50
3	3	Nassau	0.493	0.002	[3, 3]	4	Contra Costa	0.306	0.129	[1, 45]	50
4	4	DuPage	0.484	0.002	[4, 6]	8	Bergen	0.302	0.186	[1, 50]	50
5	5	Middlesex	0.480	0.002	[4, 8]	8	Pinellas	0.276	0.127	[1, 48]	50

Panel B: Bottom 5											
Rank	τ	Correlational					Movers				
		County	\hat{y}_{c25}	SE	95% CS	τ -worst	County	$\hat{\mu}_{c25}$	SE	95% CS	τ -worst
46	5	Milwaukee	0.363	0.001	[45, 47]	6	Marion	-0.153	0.082	[2, 50]	49
47	4	Franklin	0.360	0.001	[46, 47]	5	Hennepin	-0.185	0.100	[2, 50]	49
48	3	Wayne	0.346	0.001	[48, 49]	3	Alameda	-0.257	0.114	[5, 50]	49
49	2	Marion	0.344	0.001	[48, 49]	3	Hillsborough	-0.279	0.116	[5, 50]	49
50	1	Shelby	0.318	0.001	[50, 50]	1	Fairfield	-0.386	0.199	[4, 50]	49

Table 10: **Panel A:** Top 5 among the 50 most populous counties ranked by the correlational estimates on the left and by the movers estimates on the right. **Panel B:** Bottom 5 among the 50 most populous counties ranked by the correlational estimates on the left and by the movers estimates on the right. “95% CS” refers to the 95% marginal confidence set for the rank, and “ τ -best” and “ τ -worst” refer to the size of the 95% confidence sets for the “ τ -best” and “ τ -worst” counties.

F.3 Heat Maps of \hat{y}_{c25} for Counties and Structure of the Rankings



Figure 26: **Top Panel** for each CZ we plot the standard error (“SE”) against the rank of the CZ. **Bottom Panel** for each CZ we compute the difference in estimated mobility (\hat{y}_{c25}) between the CZ (\hat{y}_{c25}^k) and the next CZ (\hat{y}_{c25}^{k+1}) in the estimated ranking. Next, we plot these differences against the estimated ranks of CZs. Each dot on both panels represents a CZ. The CZ is assigned to a high mobility group (light color) if the upper endpoint of its simultaneous confidence set is in the top half of the national ranking. The CZ is assigned to a low mobility group (red color) if the lower endpoint of its simultaneous confidence set is in the bottom half of the national ranking. Grey colors represent the CZs with simultaneous confidence sets such that the places cannot be assigned to either the high or the low mobility group. We emphasize two points: 1) the middle of the ranking does not have particularly large SEs; 2) in the middle of the ranking estimates of mobility are more similar.

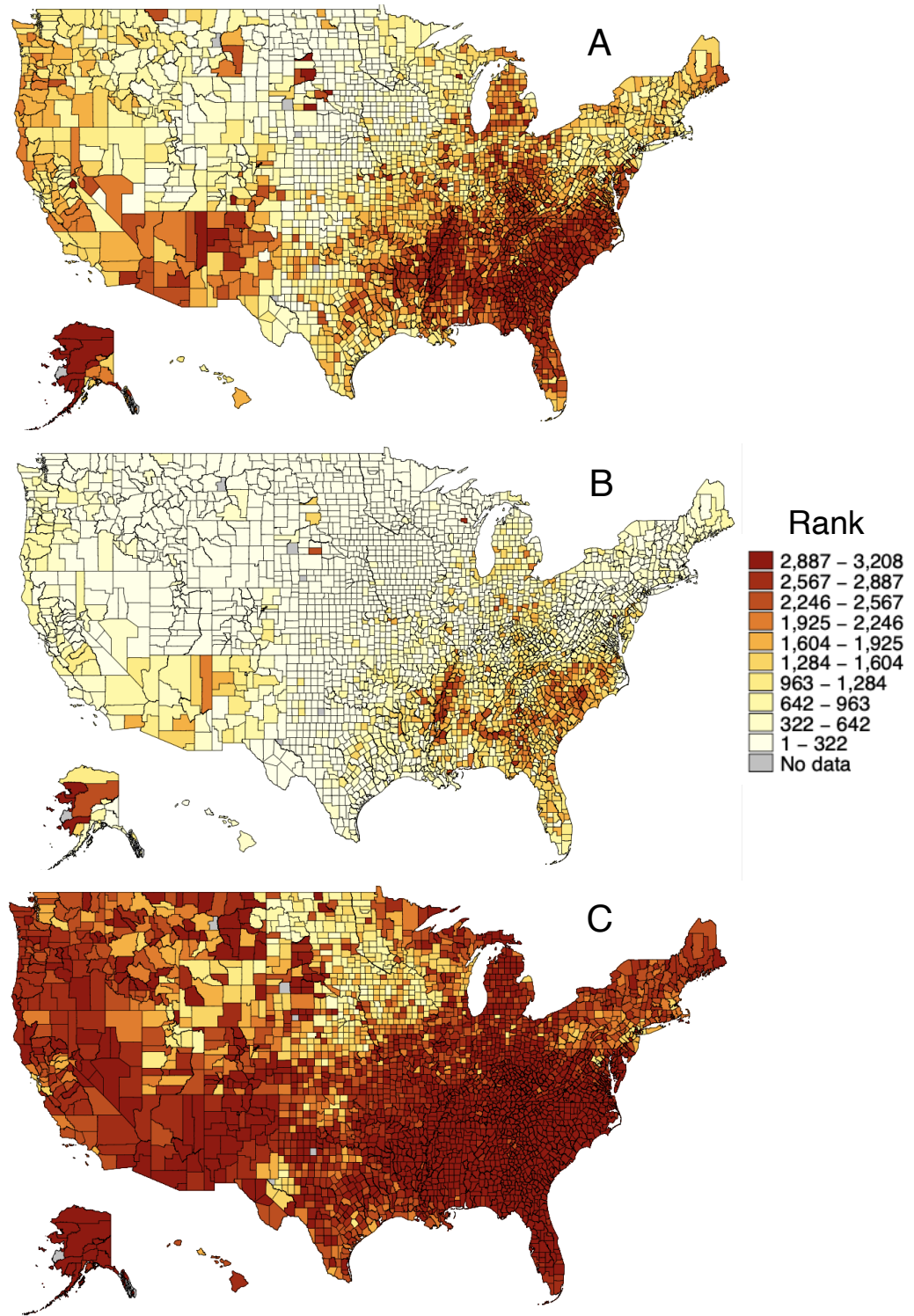


Figure 27: Ranking of counties by point estimates and lower and upper endpoints of simultaneous confidence sets. The heat maps are based on estimates of \bar{y}_{c25} , the mean percentile rank of child's average household income for 2014-2015, for the full set of counties. **Panel A:** the map is constructed by dividing the counties into deciles based on the estimated values of \bar{y}_{c25} , and shading the areas so that lighter colors correspond to higher absolute mobility. **Panel B:** each county is re-assigned to one of the ten groups used in **Panel A** according to the lower endpoint of its 95% simultaneous confidence set. **Panel C:** each county is re-assigned to one of the ten groups used in **Panel A** according to the upper endpoint of its 95% simultaneous confidence set.

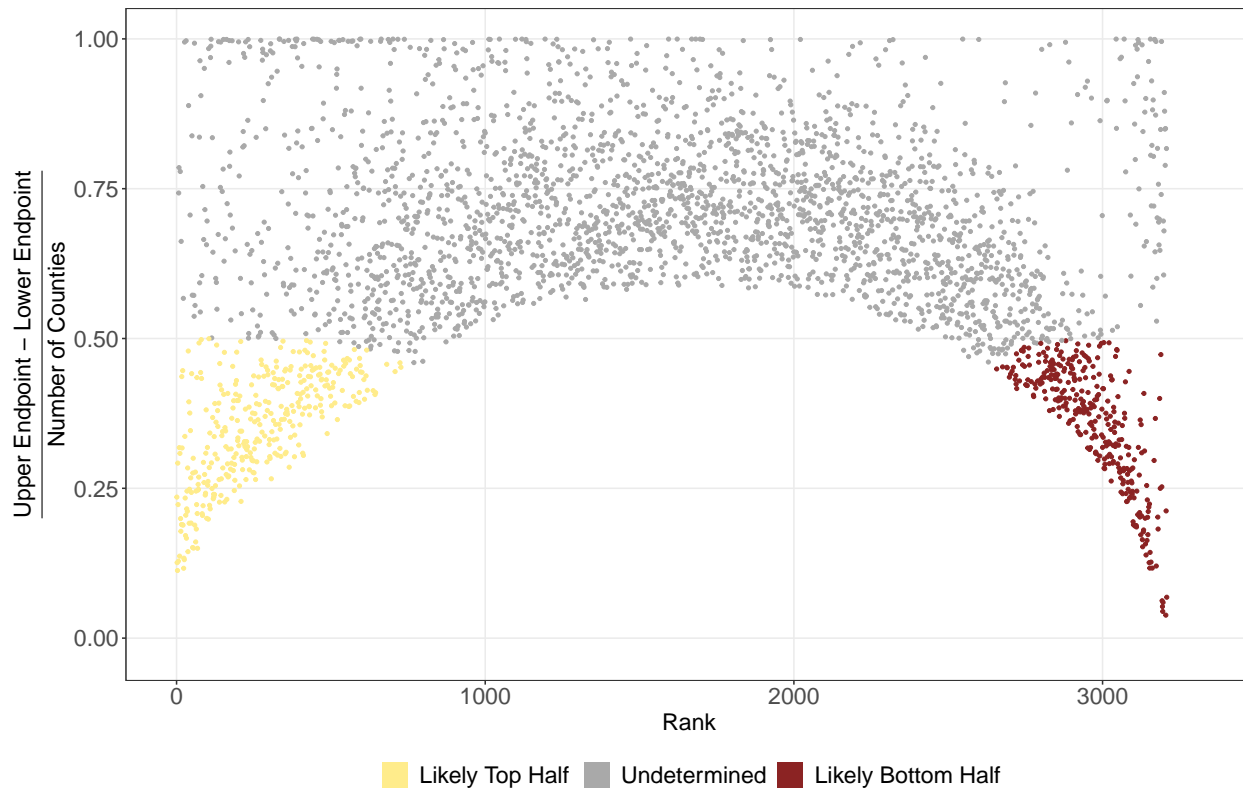


Figure 28: For each county, we compute the difference between the upper and the lower endpoint of the 95% simultaneous confidence set. Next, we plot these differences against the estimated ranks of the counties. To ease interpretation, we normalize the differences by the number of counties. Thus, a difference of 1 means one cannot tell whether a county has the highest or the lowest income mobility in the United States. By comparison, a difference of 0 means we can be confident in the exact rank of the county. Each dot in the graph represents a county. The county is assigned to a high mobility group (light color) if the upper endpoint of its simultaneous confidence set is in the top half of the national ranking. The county is assigned to a low mobility group (red color) if the lower endpoint of its simultaneous confidence set is in the bottom half of the national ranking. Grey colors represent the counties with simultaneous confidence sets such that the places cannot be assigned to either the high or the low mobility group.

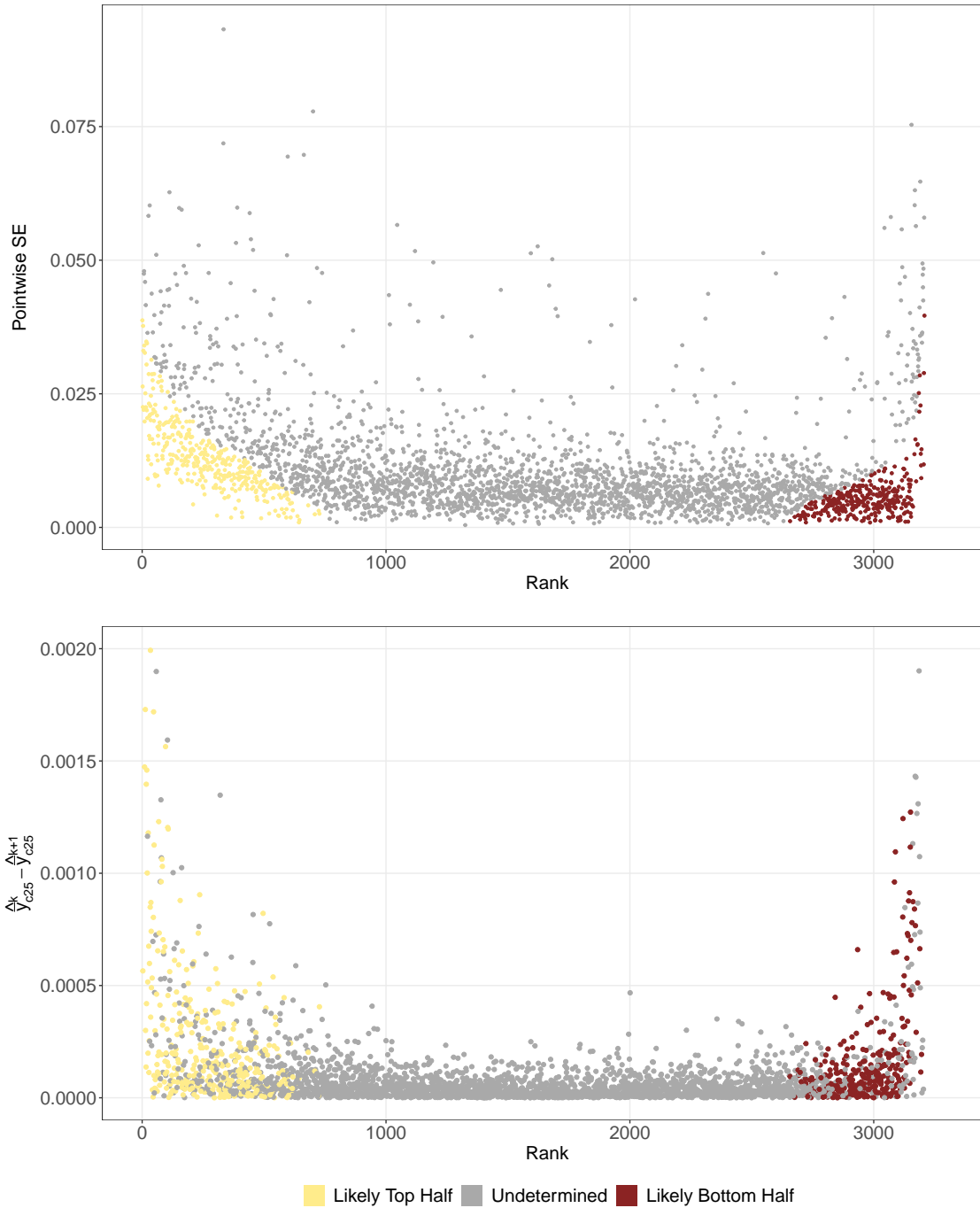


Figure 29: **Top Panel** for each county we plot the standard error (“SE”) against the rank of the county. **Bottom Panel** for each county we compute the difference in estimated mobility (\hat{y}_{c25}) between the county (\hat{y}_{c25}^k) and the next county (\hat{y}_{c25}^{k+1}) in the estimated ranking. Next, we plot these differences against the estimated ranks of the counties. Each dot on both panels represents a county. The county is assigned to a high mobility group (light color) if the upper endpoint of its simultaneous confidence set is in the top half of the national ranking. The county is assigned to a low mobility group (red color) if the lower endpoint of its simultaneous confidence set is in the bottom half of the national ranking. Grey colors represent the counties with simultaneous confidence sets such that the places cannot be assigned to either the high or the low mobility group. We emphasize two points: 1) the middle of the ranking does not have particularly large SEs; 2) in the middle of the ranking estimates of mobility are more similar.

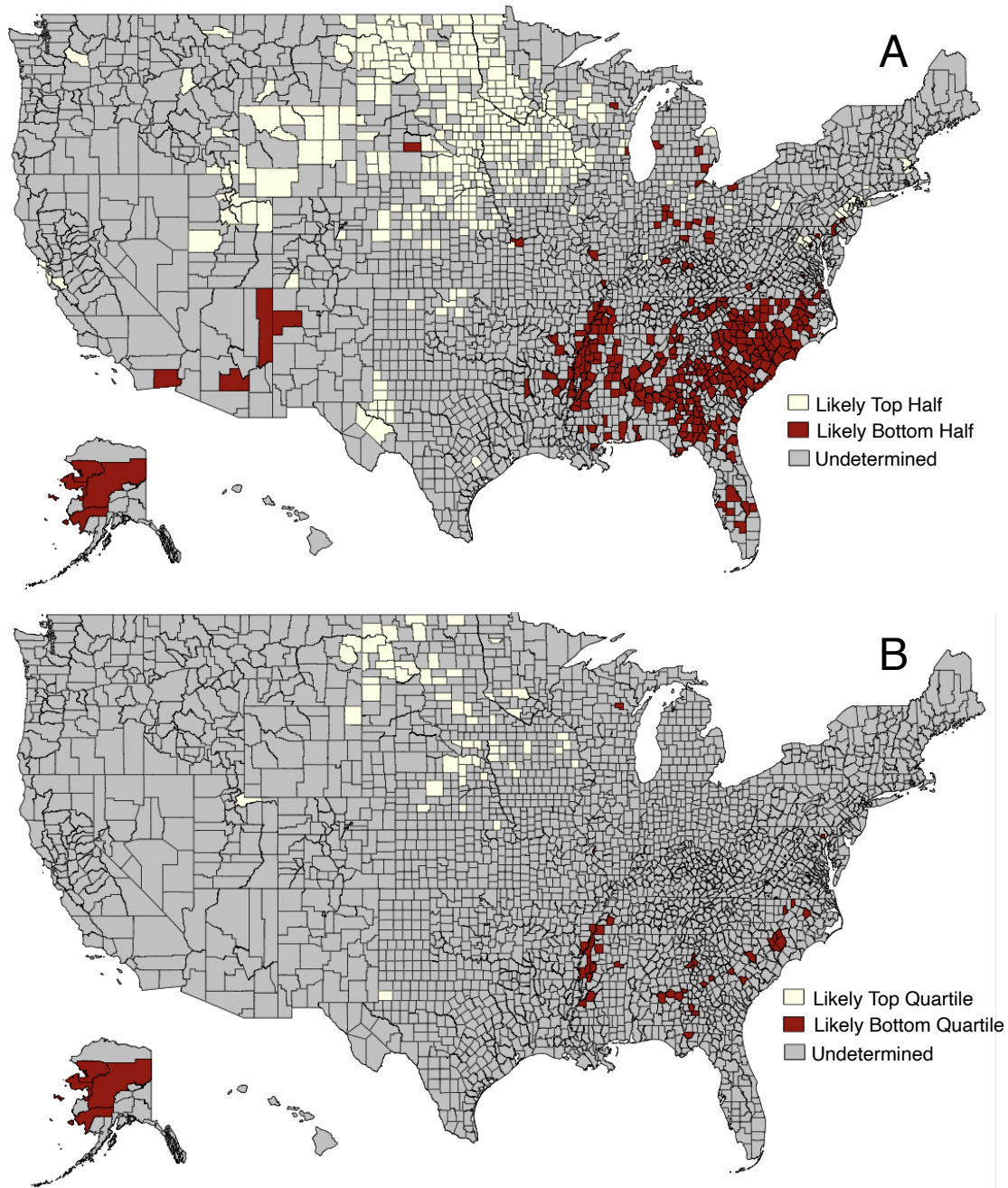


Figure 30: The heat map in **Panel A** is constructed by assigning the counties to groups depending on the lower and upper endpoints of the simultaneous confidence sets. A county is assigned to a high mobility group, **Likely Top Half**, if the upper endpoint of its simultaneous confidence set is in the top half of the national ranking of counties, i.e. when the confidence set lies entirely in the top half of the ranking, indicating high mobility. A county is assigned to a low mobility group, **Likely Bottom Half**, if the lower endpoint of its simultaneous confidence set is in the bottom half of the national ranking of counties, i.e. when the confidence set lies entirely in the bottom half of the ranking, indicating low mobility. Grey colors represent the counties with simultaneous confidence sets such that the places cannot be assigned to either the high or the low mobility group, i.e. the **Undetermined** counties. The heat map in **Panel B** is constructed in the same way, except the high and low mobility groups are now defined in terms of top and bottom quartiles in the national ranking of the counties. Thus, we refer to these groups as **Likely Top Quartile** and **Likely Bottom Quartile**.

F.4 Heat Maps for the Movers Estimates of the Exposure Effects

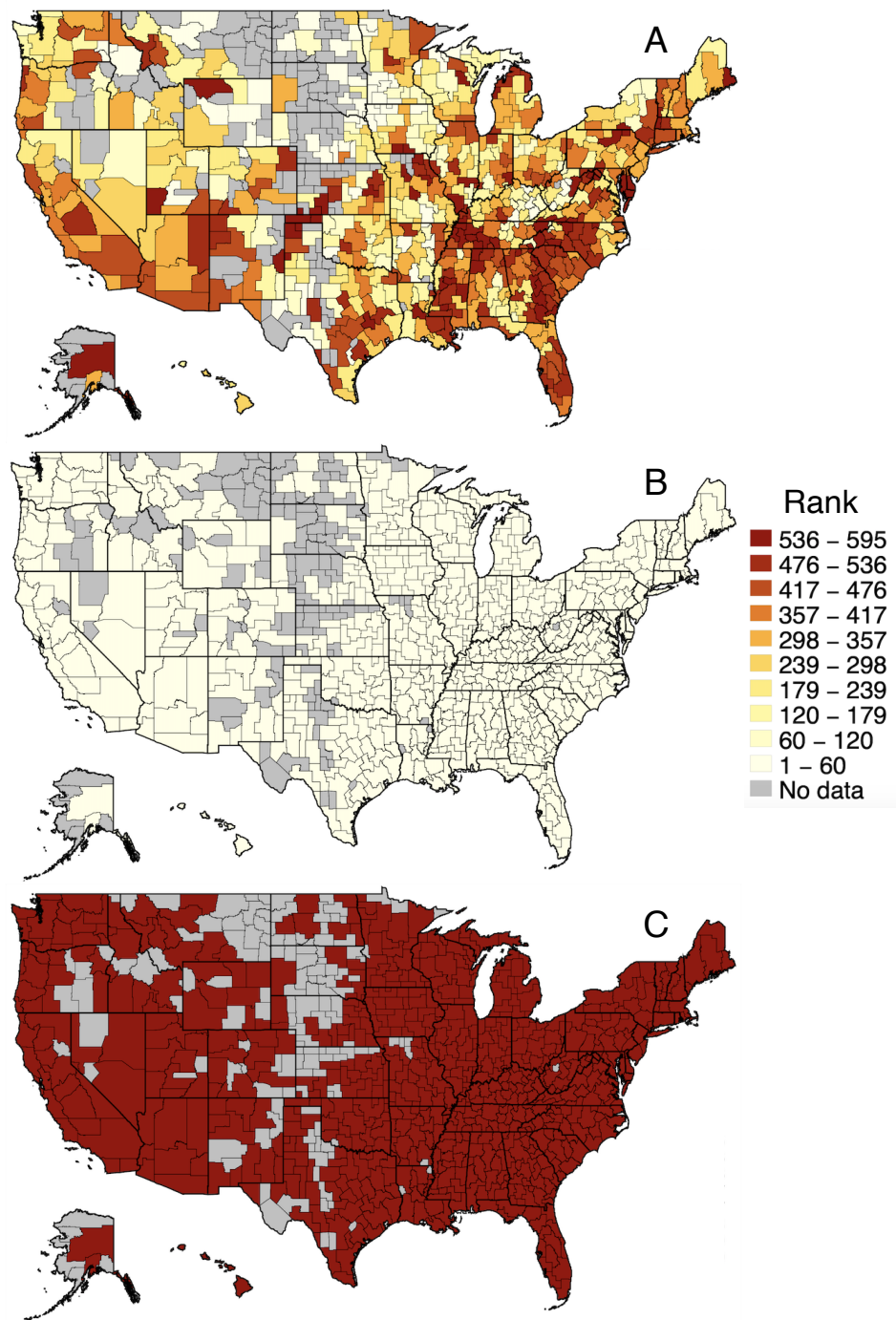


Figure 31: Ranking of Commuting Zones by point estimates and lower and upper endpoints of simultaneous confidence sets. The heat maps are based on movers estimates of the exposure effects μ_{c25} . **Panel A:** the map is constructed by dividing the CZs into deciles based on the estimated values of μ_{c25} , and shading the areas so that lighter colors correspond to higher values of exposure effects. **Panel B:** each CZ is re-assigned to one of the ten groups used in **Panel A** according to the lower endpoint of its 95% simultaneous confidence set. **Panel C:** each CZ is re-assigned to one of the ten groups used in **Panel A** according to the upper endpoint of its 95% simultaneous confidence set.

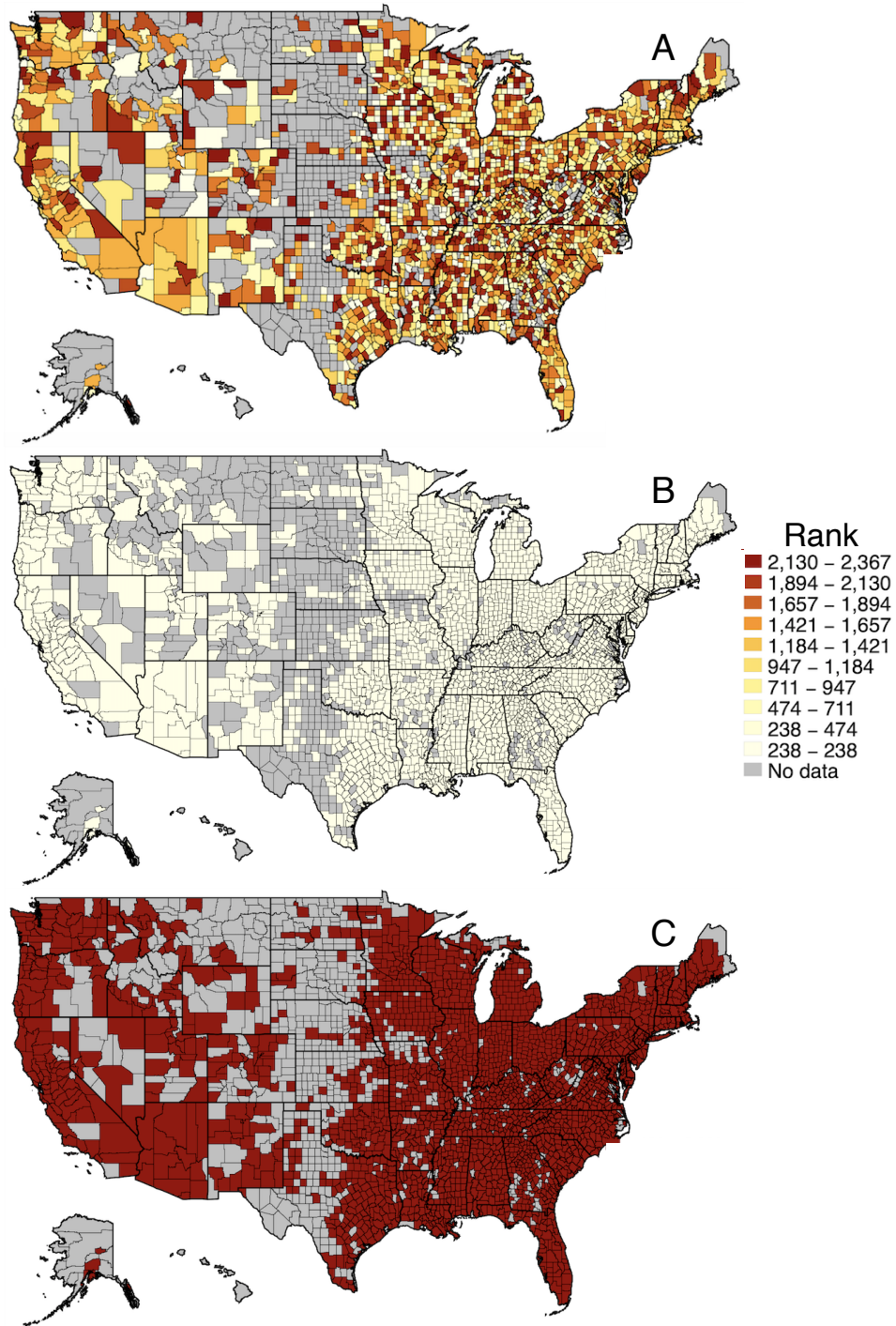


Figure 32: Ranking of counties by point estimates and lower and upper endpoints of simultaneous confidence sets. The heat maps are based on movers estimates of the exposure effects μ_{c25} . **Panel A:** the map is constructed by dividing the counties into deciles based on the estimated values of μ_{c25} , and shading the areas so that lighter colors correspond to higher values of exposure effects. **Panel B:** each county is re-assigned to one of the ten groups used in **Panel A** according to the lower endpoint of its 95% simultaneous confidence set. **Panel C:** each county is re-assigned to one of the ten groups used in **Panel A** according to the upper endpoint of its 95% simultaneous confidence set.

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