

Article

STATISTICAL INFERENCE ON THE CANADIAN MIDDLE CLASS

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Abstract: Conventional wisdom says that the middle classes in many developed countries have recently suffered losses, both in terms of the share of the total population belonging to the middle class, and also their share in total income. Here distribution-free methods are developed for inference on these shares, by means of deriving expressions for the asymptotic variances of sample estimates of them, and the covariance of the estimates. Asymptotic inference can be undertaken on the basis of asymptotic normality. Bootstrap inference can be expected to be more reliable, and appropriate bootstrap procedures are proposed. As an illustration, samples of individual earnings drawn from Canadian census data are used to test various hypotheses about the middle-class shares, and confidence intervals for them are computed. It is found that, for the earlier censuses, sample sizes are large enough for asymptotic and bootstrap inference to be almost identical, but that, in the twenty-first century, the bootstrap fails on account of a strange phenomenon whereby many presumably different incomes in the data are rounded to one and the same value. Another difference between the centuries is the appearance of heavy right-hand tails in the income distributions of both men and women.

Keywords: Middle class; Canada; bootstrap

JEL Classification: C10, C12, C15

1. Introduction

There has been much discussion in many countries about the fate of the middle class, variously defined. It appears clearly that middle classes in different developed countries have had rather different experiences; in particular the case of the USA, about which a lot has been written, for instance, [Heathcote, Perri, and Violante \(2010\)](#) is in no way typical or representative. Canada shares a long border with the USA, and has a culture more similar to the American one than any other country, but it maintains a separate identity, and differs from the US markedly on matters of social security and of immigration. Nevertheless, a couple of decades ago, it was pointed out by [Foster and Wolfson \(2010\)](#) that, in both countries, a decline of the middle class had led to a polarisation of the income distribution. In Canada specifically, the situation is reviewed by [Brzozowski, Gervais, Klein, and Suzuki \(2010\)](#), for inequality not only of income, but also of wealth and consumption. For the USA, an early article by [Wolfson \(1994\)](#) discusses polarisation, while [Wolff \(2013\)](#) describes the fate of the wealth of the middle class following the crisis of 2008. Some recent trends in income inequality in different European regions have been analysed by [Castells-Quintana, Ramos, and Royuela \(2015\)](#).

32 The study of income inequality, and its effects on growth, social stability, and many other
33 features of society, started more than half a century ago, with [Kuznets \(1955\)](#). A landmark
34 contribution to the measurement of income inequality was [Atkinson \(1970\)](#). A useful article is
35 [Cowell \(1999\)](#), which appears in the Handbook of Income Inequality Measurement, which contains
36 many chapters on different aspects of the topic, some purely theoretical, like the seminal contributions
37 of [Blackorby, Bossert, and Donaldson \(1999\)](#). An interesting recent paper, [Ryu \(2013\)](#), develops a sort
38 of inverted Gini index that emphasises the distribution of the poor, and describes ways of estimating
39 income distributions based on the principle of maximum entropy.

40 The Canadian Liberal federal government elected in late 2015 has made a point of trying to
41 improve the lot of the Canadian middle class, claiming, no doubt with some justice, that the share of
42 the middle class, however defined, has declined over the last several decades, both in terms of the
43 share of the population belonging to the middle class, and also its share in total national income.

44 [Beach \(2016\)](#), in his presidential address to the Canadian Economics Association, drew a
45 wide-ranging portrait of the evolution of Canadian middle-class fortunes since the 1970s. His analysis
46 tries to understand the different mechanisms that have shaped the economic environment in which
47 this evolution has taken place. He provides abundant statistical information on earnings in Canada,
48 duly separating the two sexes in his analysis, given that their position in the labour market has
49 changed very considerably in the last fifty years.

50 The aim of this paper is to bring some formal statistical analysis to bear on the Canadian
51 census data. The work of Davidson and Duclos¹ found in [Davidson and Duclos \(1997\)](#) and
52 [Davidson and Duclos \(2000\)](#) introduced a set of statistical procedures that permit distribution-free
53 inference on income data, many of which can be used directly for the analysis in this paper. Some
54 extensions of their methodology are developed here to deal with the specific problems addressed.

55 Formal analysis requires a formal definition of the middle class. An ideal definition would
56 have to be based on all sorts of socioeconomic characteristics of individuals and households, but
57 such a thing is well outside the scope of this paper. Instead, we consider definitions based solely
58 on household income. Usually different segments of the income distribution are defined by use of
59 quantiles, and income data are sometimes grouped by deciles or vigintiles. Thus a possible definition
60 of the middle class could be those households whose incomes lie between the second decile and the
61 eighth. Another approach would be to define the upper and lower bounds of middle-class incomes
62 as multiples of the mean or median income. However, given the stylised fact that the recent changes
63 in income inequality in most developed countries have favoured the rich and the super-rich, use of
64 the mean as a criterion for defining income classes is likely to distort inference. It is easy to see that a
65 substantial increase in the income of the upper 10% of the distribution, with no changes for the lower
66 90%, leads to an increase in mean income and no change in the median. Similarly, quantile-based
67 definitions of the middle class are unaffected by an increase in the income of the rich and only the
68 rich.

69 If the middle class is defined as the set of households with incomes between a the p_{lo} quantile
70 of the income distribution and the p_{hi} quantile, where a possible choice might be $p_{lo} = 0.2$ and
71 $p_{hi} = 0.8$, it is not possible to measure changes in the population share of the middle class, because
72 this share is always just $p_{hi} - p_{lo}$. It remains possible to measure changes in the income share.

73 In the next section, distribution-free plug-in estimators are presented for the population and
74 income shares of the middle class, according to three different sorts of definition of the middle class
75 – based on the median income, based on the mean income, and based on quantiles of the income
76 distribution. These estimators are shown to be consistent and asymptotically normal, and feasible
77 estimators are given for the asymptotic variance. Then, in Section 3, the evolution over time of the

¹ Currently (December 2017) Minister of Families, Children and Social Development in the Canadian federal government.

78 middle-class shares in Canada is analysed using census data from the 1971 census to that in 2006.
79 Section 4 concludes.

80 2. Asymptotic Analysis

81 We begin with a definition of the middle class as the section of the population with incomes
82 between a fraction a of median income and a multiple b of it. Typically, we might have $a = 0.5$,
83 $b = 1.5$. It is desired to estimate the size of this section of the population, and also to estimate its
84 share in total income. Other definitions will be considered later.

85 2.1. Definition in terms of the median

86 Let m denote median income. Then the proportion of the population considered to be middle
87 class is $F(bm) - F(am)$, where F is the cumulative distribution function (CDF) of income in the
88 population. In order to estimate this quantity on the basis of a random sample of size N , it is necessary
89 to have an estimate of F , \hat{F} say, from which an estimate of m may be deduced, or else obtained directly
90 using order statistics, by use of the formula

$$\hat{m} = \begin{cases} y_{(n+1)} & \text{if } N = 2n + 1 \text{ (} N \text{ odd)} \\ (y_{(n)} + y_{(n+1)})/2 & \text{if } N = 2n \text{ (} N \text{ even)} \end{cases}$$

91 The natural choice for \hat{F} is the empirical distribution function (EDF):

$$\hat{F}(y) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N I(y_i \leq y), \quad (1)$$

92 where the y_i are the incomes observed in the sample, and I is the indicator function, equal to 1
93 is its argument is true, to 0 otherwise. If PS denotes the share of the middle class in the whole
94 population, then it can be estimated by

$$\widehat{PS} = \hat{F}(b\hat{m}) - \hat{F}(a\hat{m}) \quad (2)$$

95 The income share, IS say, that accrues to the middle class is by definition given by

$$\int_{am}^{bm} y dF(y)$$

96 divided by the mean income, denoted by μ , and equal to $\int_0^\infty y dF(y)$. The plug-in estimator of μ
97 is

$$\hat{\mu} = \int_0^\infty y d\hat{F}(y) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N y_i.$$

98 Consequently, a suitable estimate of IS is

$$\widehat{IS} \equiv \frac{1}{\hat{\mu}} \int_{a\hat{m}}^{b\hat{m}} y d\hat{F}(y). \quad (3)$$

99 For asymptotic statistical inference, we need estimates of the asymptotic covariance matrix of
100 $(\widehat{PS}, \widehat{IS})$. Consider first the asymptotic variance of \widehat{PS} , which is by definition the variance of the limit
101 in distribution as $N \rightarrow \infty$ of $N^{1/2}(\widehat{PS} - PS)$. We have

$$\widehat{PS} - PS = \hat{F}(b\hat{m}) - F(bm) - (\hat{F}(a\hat{m}) - F(am)). \quad (4)$$

102 Now

$$\hat{F}(b\hat{m}) - F(bm) = \int_0^{bm} d(\hat{F} - F)(y) + \int_{bm}^{b\hat{m}} dF(y) + \int_{bm}^{b\hat{m}} d(\hat{F} - F)(y).$$

103 The first two terms on the right-hand side are of order $N^{-1/2}$ if, as we can reasonably assume,
 104 things are regular enough for both $(\hat{F} - F)(y)$ and $\hat{m} - m$ to be of that order. The last term, on the
 105 other hand, is of order N^{-1} , and so can be dropped for the purposes of asymptotic analysis. The first
 106 term is

$$\frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N [\mathbf{I}(y_i \leq bm) - F(bm)], \quad (5)$$

107 and the second is

$$bf(bm)(\hat{m} - m) + O(N^{-1}), \quad (6)$$

108 where $f = F'$ is the density function. By the Bahadur (1966) almost-sure representation of
 109 quantiles, we have

$$\hat{m} - m = -\frac{1}{Nf(m)} \sum_{i=1}^N [\mathbf{I}(y_i < m) - \frac{1}{2}] + O(N^{-3/4}(\log N)^{1/2}(\log \log N)^{1/4}). \quad (7)$$

110 From (4), (5), (6), and (7), we conclude that

$$N^{1/2}(\widehat{PS} - PS) = N^{-1/2} \sum_{i=1}^N \left\{ [\mathbf{I}(am \leq y_i \leq bm) - (F(bm) - F(am))] - \frac{bf(bm) - af(am)}{f(m)} [\mathbf{I}(y_i < m) - \frac{1}{2}] \right\} + o_p(1).$$

111 It is convenient to make the following definition:

$$u_i = \mathbf{I}(am < y_i < bm) - \frac{bf(bm) - af(am)}{f(m)} \mathbf{I}(y_i < m). \quad (8)$$

112 Since the y_i are IID, as elements of a random sample, so are the u_i , so that, to leading order
 113 asymptotically,

$$N^{1/2}(\widehat{PS} - PS) = N^{-1/2} \sum_{i=1}^N (u_i - E(U)), \quad (9)$$

114 where U denotes a random variable that has the distribution of which the u_i are IID realisations.
 115 We may therefore apply the central-limit theorem to show that $N^{1/2}(\widehat{PS} - PS)$ is asymptotically
 116 normal, with expectation zero and variance equal to that of U . If we make the definition

$$\hat{u}_i = \mathbf{I}(a\hat{m} < y_i < b\hat{m}) - \frac{b\hat{f}(b\hat{m}) - a\hat{f}(a\hat{m})}{\hat{f}(\hat{m})} \mathbf{I}(y_i < \hat{m}),$$

117 where the density estimate \hat{f} could be a kernel density estimate, we can estimate $\text{var}(U)$ by

$$N^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^N \hat{u}_i^2 - \left[N^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^N \hat{u}_i \right]^2.$$

118 We now turn to $N^{1/2}(\widehat{IS} - IS)$. From (3), we see that

$$\widehat{IS} - IS = \frac{\mu \int_{a\hat{m}}^{b\hat{m}} y d\hat{F}(y) - \hat{\mu} \int_{am}^{bm} y dF(y)}{\mu \hat{\mu}}. \quad (10)$$

119 The numerator is clearly of order $N^{-1/2}$, while the denominator is $O_p(1)$, being equal to $\mu^2 +$
 120 $O_p(N^{-1/2})$. To leading order, therefore, we can replace the denominator by its leading term, namely μ^2 .
 121 Make the definition

$$\mu_{ab} = \int_{am}^{bm} y dF(y).$$

122 Now, by arguments like those used above for \widehat{PS} , we have to leading order that

$$\begin{aligned} \int_{a\hat{m}}^{b\hat{m}} y d\hat{F}(y) &= \int_{am}^{bm} y d\hat{F}(y) + \int_{a\hat{m}}^{am} y dF(y) + \int_{bm}^{b\hat{m}} y dF(y) \\ &= \int_{am}^{bm} y d\hat{F}(y) + m(b^2 f(bm) - a^2 f(am))(\hat{m} - m) \end{aligned} \quad (11)$$

123 and

$$\int_{am}^{bm} y d\hat{F}(y) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N [y_i \mathbf{I}(am < y_i < bm)]. \quad (12)$$

124 Note that

$$\hat{\mu} = \mu + \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N (y_i - \mu). \quad (13)$$

125 If we make the definition

$$v_i = \frac{1}{\mu^2} \left[\mu y_i \mathbf{I}(am < y_i < bm) - \mu_{ab} y_i - \frac{\mu m}{f(m)} (b^2 f(bm) - a^2 f(am)) \mathbf{I}(y_i < m) \right],$$

126 we see that, to leading order,

$$N^{1/2}(\widehat{IS} - IS) = N^{-1/2} \sum_{i=1}^N (v_i - \mathbf{E}(V)), \quad (14)$$

127 with V a random variable whose distribution is that of which the v_i are IID realisations. We may
 128 once more apply the central-limit theorem to conclude that $N^{1/2}(\widehat{IS} - IS)$ is asymptotically normal
 129 with variance equal to that of V .

130 Define

$$\hat{v}_i = \frac{1}{\hat{\mu}^2} \left[\hat{\mu} \mathbf{I}(a\hat{m} < y_i < b\hat{m}) - \hat{\mu}_{ab} y_i - \frac{\hat{\mu} \hat{m}}{\hat{f}(\hat{m})} (b^2 \hat{f}(b\hat{m}) - a^2 \hat{f}(a\hat{m})) \mathbf{I}(y_i < \hat{m}) \right]$$

131 where

$$\hat{\mu}_{ab} = N^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^N y_i \mathbf{I}(a\hat{m} < y_i < b\hat{m}).$$

132 It is then clear that we can estimate $\text{var}(V)$ by

$$N^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^N \hat{v}_i^2 - \left[N^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^N \hat{v}_i \right]^2, \quad (15)$$

133 and the covariance of U and V by

$$N^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^N \hat{u}_i \hat{v}_i - \left[N^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^N \hat{u}_i \right] \left[N^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^N \hat{v}_i \right]. \quad (16)$$

134 *Remark.* In some cases, the sample is not supposed to be completely random. Rather, observation i
 135 is associated with a weight p_i , defined such that $\sum_{i=1}^N p_i = N$. In that case, the empirical distribution
 136 function (1) should be replaced by

$$\hat{F}(y) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N p_i \mathbf{I}(y_i \leq y). \quad (17)$$

137 Similarly, the mean income should be defined as $\hat{\mu} = N^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^N p_i y_i$, the expectation of the
 138 EDF (17), and term i in the sums (9) and (14) should be weighted by p_i .

139 The use of non-uniform weights also has consequences for the bootstrap, as discussed later.

140 2.2. Definition in terms of the mean

141 Although for the current study, it is not very sensible to define the range of middle-class incomes
 142 as delimited by multiples of the mean income, it may be useful in other circumstances to be able
 143 to perform inference on shares thus defined. Let a and b , $a < b$, define the middle class as those
 144 households that have incomes between $a\mu$ and $b\mu$. The population share is then

$$PS = F(b\mu) - F(a\mu), \quad \text{with} \quad \widehat{PS} = \hat{F}(b\hat{\mu}) - \hat{F}(a\hat{\mu}) = N^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^N \mathbf{I}(a\hat{\mu} < y_i < b\hat{\mu}).$$

145 From this, we see that

$$\widehat{PS} - PS = \hat{F}(b\hat{\mu}) - F(b\mu) - (\hat{F}(a\hat{\mu}) - F(a\mu)).$$

146 Now, as usual neglecting terms of order N^{-1} , we see that

$$\begin{aligned} \hat{F}(b\hat{\mu}) - F(b\mu) &= \int_0^{b\hat{\mu}} d(\hat{F} - F)(y) + \int_{b\mu}^{b\hat{\mu}} dF(y) \\ &= N^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^N [\mathbf{I}(y_i < b\mu) - F(b\mu)] + bf(b\mu)(\hat{\mu} - \mu) \\ &= N^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^N [\mathbf{I}(y_i < b\mu) + bf(b\mu)y_i - (F(b\mu) + bf(b\mu)\mu)], \end{aligned} \quad (18)$$

147 where $f = F'$ is the density, and the last equality makes use of (13). The terms in (18) clearly
 148 have expectation zero.

149 It is straightforward now to see that, to leading order,

$$N^{1/2}(\widehat{PS} - PS) = N^{-1/2} \sum_{i=1}^N (u_i - \mathbf{E}(U)),$$

150 with $u_i = \mathbf{I}(a\mu < y_i < b\mu) + y_i(bf(b\mu) - af(a\mu))$ and U a random variable with the distribution
 151 of which the u_i are realisations. The asymptotic variance of $N^{1/2}(\widehat{PS} - PS)$ can therefore be estimated
 152 by

$$N^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^N \hat{u}_i^2 - \left[N^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^N \hat{u}_i \right]^2,$$

153 where $\hat{u}_i = \mathbf{I}(a\hat{\mu} < y_i < b\hat{\mu}) + y_i(b\hat{f}(b\hat{\mu}) - a\hat{f}(a\hat{\mu}))$, with \hat{f} a kernel density estimator.

154 For the income share, we have

$$IS = \frac{1}{\mu} \int_{a\mu}^{b\mu} y dF(y) \quad \text{with} \quad \widehat{IS} = \frac{1}{\hat{\mu}} \int_{a\hat{\mu}}^{b\hat{\mu}} y d\hat{F}(y).$$

155 Analogously to (10), we have

$$\widehat{IS} - IS = \frac{\mu \int_{a\hat{\mu}}^{b\hat{\mu}} y d\hat{F}(y) - \hat{\mu} \int_{a\mu}^{b\mu} y dF(y)}{\mu \hat{\mu}}.$$

156 Now, as in (11) and (12), to leading order we have

$$\begin{aligned} \int_{a\hat{\mu}}^{b\hat{\mu}} y d\hat{F}(y) &= \left[\int_{a\mu}^{b\mu} + \int_{a\hat{\mu}}^{a\mu} + \int_{b\mu}^{b\hat{\mu}} \right] y d\hat{F}(y) \\ &= N^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^N y_i \mathbf{I}(a\mu < y_i < b\mu) + \mu (b^2 f(b\mu) - a^2 f(a\mu)) (\hat{\mu} - \mu) \\ &= N^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^N \left[y_i \mathbf{I}(a\mu < y_i < b\mu) + \mu (b^2 f(b\mu) - a^2 f(a\mu)) (y_i - \mu) \right] \end{aligned}$$

157 Here let us redefine μ_{ab} as:

$$\mu_{ab} = \int_{a\mu}^{b\mu} y dF(y).$$

158 Then

$$N^{1/2}(\widehat{IS} - IS) = N^{-1/2} \sum_{i=1}^N (v_i - \mathbf{E}(V)),$$

159 where

$$\begin{aligned} v_i &= \frac{y_i}{\mu^2} \left[\mu \mathbf{I}(a\mu < y_i < b\mu) + \mu^2 (b^2 f(b\mu) - a^2 f(a\mu)) - \mu_{ab} \right] \quad \text{and} \\ \hat{v}_i &= \frac{y_i}{\hat{\mu}^2} \left[\hat{\mu} \mathbf{I}(a\hat{\mu} < y_i < b\hat{\mu}) + \hat{\mu}^2 (b^2 \hat{f}(b\hat{\mu}) - a^2 \hat{f}(a\hat{\mu})) - \hat{\mu}_{ab} \right] \end{aligned}$$

160 with obvious definitions of \hat{f} and $\hat{\mu}_{ab}$. Except for notational changes, the estimates (15) and (16)
161 hold for this case as well.

162 2.3. Definition by quantiles

163 Let the two proportions, p_{lo} and p_{hi} , with $p_{lo} < p_{hi}$, define the middle class as the set of
164 households whose incomes lie between the quantiles q_{lo} and q_{hi} , where $F(q_{lo}) = p_{lo}$ and $F(q_{hi}) =$
165 q_{hi} . Then the share of the population that belongs to the middle class is fixed at $p_{hi} - p_{lo}$. The income
166 share is

$$IS = \frac{1}{\mu} \int_{q_{lo}}^{q_{hi}} y dF(y),$$

167 and it can be estimated by

$$\widehat{IS} = \frac{1}{\hat{\mu}} \int_{\hat{q}_{lo}}^{\hat{q}_{hi}} y d\hat{F}(y),$$

168 where $q_{\hat{l}o}$ and $q_{\hat{h}i}$ are the p_{l_o} and p_{h_i} quantiles of the EDF \hat{F} .
 169 By an asymptotic argument like those used in the preceding subsection, it can be seen that

$$\widehat{IS} - IS = \frac{1}{\mu^2} \left[\mu \int_{q_{\hat{l}o}}^{q_{\hat{h}i}} y d\hat{F}(y) - \hat{\mu} \int_{q_{l_o}}^{q_{h_i}} y dF(y) \right] + O_p(N^{-1}). \quad (19)$$

170 Neglecting terms of order N^{-1} , we have

$$\begin{aligned} \int_{q_{\hat{l}o}}^{q_{\hat{h}i}} y d\hat{F}(y) &= \int_{q_{l_o}}^{q_{h_i}} y d\hat{F}(y) + \int_{q_{\hat{l}o}}^{q_{l_o}} y d\hat{F}(y) + \int_{q_{h_i}}^{q_{\hat{h}i}} y d\hat{F}(y) \\ &= N^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^N y_i \mathbf{I}(q_{l_o} < y_i < q_{h_i}) - q_{l_o}(p_{l_o} - \hat{F}(q_{l_o})) + q_{h_i}(p_{h_i} - \hat{F}(q_{h_i})) \\ &= p_{h_i}q_{h_i} - p_{l_o}q_{l_o} + N^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^N \left[y_i \mathbf{I}(q_{l_o} < y_i < q_{h_i}) - q_{h_i} \mathbf{I}(y_i < q_{h_i}) + q_{l_o} \mathbf{I}(y_i < q_{l_o}) \right]. \end{aligned}$$

171 Define

$$\mu_{lh} = \int_{q_{l_o}}^{q_{h_i}} y dF(y).$$

172 Since

$$\mathbf{E}(Y \mathbf{I}(q_{l_o} < Y < q_{h_i})) = \mu_{lh}, \quad \mathbf{E}(\mathbf{I}(Y < q_{l_o})) = p_{l_o}, \quad \text{and} \quad \mathbf{E}(\mathbf{I}(Y < q_{h_i})) = p_{h_i},$$

173 where Y is a random variable that has the distribution of which the y_i are realisations, it follows
 174 that

$$\int_{q_{\hat{l}o}}^{q_{\hat{h}i}} y d\hat{F}(y) = \mu_{lh} + N^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^N (w_i - \mathbf{E}(W)),$$

175 where

$$w_i = y_i \mathbf{I}(q_{l_o} < y_i < q_{h_i}) - q_{h_i} \mathbf{I}(y_i < q_{h_i}) + q_{l_o} \mathbf{I}(y_i < q_{l_o}),$$

176 and W is a random variable that has the distribution of which the w_i are realisations. From (19)
 177 it can now be seen that

$$N^{1/2}(\widehat{IS} - IS) = N^{-1/2} \sum_{i=1}^N (v_i - \mathbf{E}(V)),$$

178 where

$$v_i = \frac{w_i}{\mu} - \frac{y_i \mu_{lh}}{\mu^2},$$

179 the v_i being realisations of the distribution of V .

180 The asymptotic variance of the asymptotically normal random variable $N^{1/2}(\widehat{IS} - IS)$ is
 181 therefore equal to the variance of V . This variance can be estimated in a distribution-free manner
 182 by

$$N^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^N \hat{v}_i^2 - \left[N^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^N \hat{v}_i \right]^2,$$

183 with

$$\hat{v}_i = \frac{1}{\hat{\mu}} \{y_i \mathbf{I}(\hat{q}_{lo} < y_i < \hat{q}_{hi}) - \hat{q}_{hi} \mathbf{I}(y_i < \hat{q}_{hi}) + \hat{q}_{lo} \mathbf{I}(y_i < \hat{q}_{lo})\} - \frac{y_i \hat{\mu}_{lh}}{\hat{\mu}^2}.$$

184 2.4. Accuracy measured by simulation

185 Since everything in this section is asymptotic, it may be helpful to look briefly at evidence for
 186 finite-sample behaviour as revealed by simulation. For the case in which middle class incomes are
 187 defined as lying between specified multiples of the median income, random samples of different
 188 numbers of observations were drawn from the lognormal distribution, with an underlying standard
 189 normal distribution. The proportions a and b were set equal to 0.5 and 1.5 respectively. The values of
 190 the mean, median, and the population and income shares can be computed analytically, and are:

$$m = 1, \quad \mu = 1.648721, \quad PS = 0.413324, \quad IS = 0.230863.$$

191 For each of 9999 samples, and for each sample size, $n = 101, 201, 501, 1001$, the estimates of these
 192 four quantities were obtained. The variances of the estimates of the shares, and their covariance, were
 193 estimated by the sample variances and covariance from the 9999 samples. These were compared
 194 with the estimates of the asymptotic variances and covariances, averaged over the samples. For the
 195 purposes of the comparison, the variances were multiplied by the sample size. Results are in Table 1.

Table 1. Comparison of finite-sample and asymptotic variance; median definition

	n	$\text{var}(\widehat{PS})$	$\text{var}(\widehat{IS})$	$\text{cov}(\widehat{PS}, \widehat{IS})$
Sample variances	101	0.239325	0.224096	0.176514
Averaged estimates	101	0.261119	0.218908	0.202878
Sample variances	201	0.244931	0.222913	0.180768
Averaged estimates	201	0.249148	0.207283	0.189229
Sample variances	501	0.245171	0.219862	0.180843
Averaged estimates	501	0.240752	0.200225	0.180011
Sample variances	1001	0.246202	0.218693	0.179762
Averaged estimates	1001	0.236738	0.197485	0.175393

196 With the middle class defined using the mean income, the proportions a and b were set to 0.4
 197 and 1.6. The mean and median are as before, and the exact shares are

$$PS = 0.495379 \quad \text{and} \quad IS = 0.409690.$$

198 The results are in Table 2.

Table 2. Comparison of finite-sample and asymptotic variance; mean definition

	n	$\text{var}(\widehat{PS})$	$\text{var}(\widehat{IS})$	$\text{cov}(\widehat{PS}, \widehat{IS})$
Sample variances	101	0.289240	0.270821	0.251248
Averaged estimates	101	0.269630	0.262705	0.236283
Sample variances	201	0.295019	0.270204	0.254169
Averaged estimates	201	0.268601	0.259170	0.234529
Sample variances	501	0.290917	0.268718	0.237937
Averaged estimates	501	0.273562	0.259882	0.251659
Sample variances	1001	0.292915	0.268624	0.251931
Averaged estimates	1001	0.279508	0.262628	0.242509

199 Finally, using quantiles, the results in Table 3 are for the middle class contained between the
 200 0.2 quantile and the 0.8 quantile. (Recall that the population share is by definition always $0.8 - 0.2 =$
 201 0.6 .)

Table 3. Comparison of finite-sample and asymptotic variance; quantile definition

	n	$\text{var}(\widehat{IS})$
Sample variances	101	0.137487
Averaged estimates	101	0.124903
Sample variances	201	0.145837
Averaged estimates	201	0.137819
Sample variances	501	0.147931
Averaged estimates	501	0.149558
Sample variances	1001	0.149601
Averaged estimates	1001	0.154112

202 The variances and covariance estimates derived in this section are clearly asymptotically correct,
 203 but are naturally not exact for finite n .

204 3. Inference

205 The results of the previous section allow us to construct asymptotic confidence intervals for the
 206 population and income shares of the middle class, according to the different definitions considered.
 207 But, because we can also construct asymptotically pivotal functions, it is possible to construct
 208 bootstrap confidence intervals, and to perform bootstrap tests of specific hypotheses about these
 209 shares.

210 3.1. Data

211 The data used for the empirical analysis in this paper come from Canadian Census Public Use
 212 Microdata Files (PUMF) for Individuals for 1971, 1981, 1991, 2001, and 2006. [Beach \(2016\)](#) used these
 213 data, along with data from other sources, for his comprehensive account of the evolving fate of the
 214 Canadian middle class. In the Census files, the term earnings refers to annual earnings in the full year
 215 before the Census. Although the individuals of the samples provided for each of the census years
 216 are not identified by name, for obvious reasons, they are characterised by age (or age group), sex,
 217 and the number of weeks worked in the year. Income is split into wage income and income from
 218 self-employment. In the census data from 1991 onwards, individuals are assigned weights in order
 219 that the weighted sample should be more representative of the population than the unweighted one.
 220 However, the weights vary little in the samples, and, indeed, they are all identical in the 2006 data.
 221 They are therefore not taken into account in the subsequent analysis.

222 It is of interest to compare formally the fates of men and women. Accordingly, for each census
 223 year, two samples are treated separately, one with data on men, the other on women, only. In both
 224 cases, individuals younger than 15 years of age are dropped from the sample, as well as individuals
 225 who did not work in that year, or for whom the information on weeks worked is missing. In addition,
 226 income from wages and salaries and income from self-employment are simply combined to yield the
 227 income variable.

228 3.2. Confidence intervals

229 The confidence intervals given in this section are either asymptotic, using the estimates of
 230 asymptotic variances derived in the previous section, or bootstrap intervals, of the sort usually called
 231 percentile- t , or bootstrap- t ; see for instance [DiCiccio and Efron \(1996\)](#), [Davison and Hinkley \(1997\)](#),
 232 and [Hall \(1992\)](#) for a discussion of the relative merits of different types of bootstrap confidence
 233 interval.

234 A bootstrap- t interval is constructed as follows using a resampling bootstrap. For a suitable
 235 number B of bootstrap repetitions, a bootstrap sample is created by resampling from the original
 236 sample. Let the parameter of interest be denoted by θ , its estimate from the original sample by $\hat{\theta}$, and
 237 its standard error by $\hat{\sigma}_{\hat{\theta}}$. If the true, or population, value is θ_0 , an asymptotically pivotal quantity is

238 $\tau \equiv (\hat{\theta} - \theta_0) / \hat{\sigma}_\theta$. A bootstrap sample yields a parameter estimate θ^* and a standard error σ_θ^* . Then
 239 the bootstrap counterpart of τ is $\tau^* \equiv (\theta^* - \hat{\theta}) / \sigma_\theta^*$, since $\hat{\theta}$ is the “true” parameter value for the
 240 resampling bootstrap data-generating process (DGP).

241 If non-uniform weights are associated with the sample observations, then the resampling should
 242 also be non-uniform, whereby observation i is resampled with probability p_i/N , where p_i is the
 243 weight associated with the observation. This amounts to generating bootstrap samples from the
 244 weighted EDF (17). Then, each bootstrap sample is to be treated as though it were a genuinely random
 245 sample, so that the weights do not appear in the estimation of the shares or in their standard errors.
 246 However, since, in some of the samples analysed here there are no weights, and, even if they are
 247 present, they are very nearly, if not exactly, uniform, all of the empirical results are computed without
 248 use of weighting.

249 The distribution of τ^* is estimated by the empirical distribution of its B realisations. For an
 250 equal-tailed confidence interval of confidence level $1 - \alpha$, the $\alpha/2$ and $1 - \alpha/2$ quantiles of the
 251 distribution are estimated by the order statistics $\alpha(B + 1)/2$ and $(1 - \alpha/2)(B + 1)$ of the realisations
 252 of τ^* . Let these estimated quantiles be $q_{\alpha/2}^*$ and $q_{1-\alpha/2}^*$. The bootstrap- t confidence interval is then

$$[\hat{\theta} - \hat{\sigma}_\theta q_{1-\alpha/2}^*, \hat{\theta} - \hat{\sigma}_\theta q_{\alpha/2}^*].$$

253 This approach requires $\alpha(B + 1)/2$ to be an integer; see, among many other references,
 254 Davidson and MacKinnon (2006).

255 Tables 4, 5, 6, 7, and 8 present point estimates as well as asymptotic and bootstrap confidence
 256 intervals, at nominal confidence level of 95%, of the population and income shares, for the
 257 median-based definition of the middle class in 1971, 1981, 1991, 2001, and 2006.

Table 4. Estimates and confidence intervals; 1971

		\widehat{PS}	\widehat{IS}
Male 59123 obs median \$6000	point estimate asymptotic interval bootstrap interval	0.544 [0.539, 0.549] [0.540, 0.554]	0.492 [0.488, 0.496] [0.487, 0.497]
Female 32164 obs median \$2900	point estimate asymptotic interval bootstrap interval	0.399 [0.392, 0.407] [0.392, 0.410]	0.362 [0.355, 0.369] [0.353, 0.377]

Table 5. Estimates and confidence intervals; 1981

		\widehat{PS}	\widehat{IS}
Male 143248 obs median \$15715	point estimate asymptotic interval bootstrap interval	0.519 [0.515, 0.522] [0.515, 0.522]	0.481 [0.478, 0.484] [0.477, 0.485]
Female 101619 obs median \$7800	point estimate asymptotic interval bootstrap interval	0.390 [0.386, 0.394] [0.387, 0.393]	0.335 [0.331, 0.339] [0.331, 0.339]

Table 6. Estimates and confidence intervals; 1991

		\widehat{PS}	\widehat{IS}
Male 234636 obs median \$27000	point estimate	0.483	0.436
	asymptotic interval	[0.481, 0.486]	[0.434, 0.438]
	bootstrap interval	[0.481, 0.486]	[0.434, 0.439]
Female 196143 obs median \$15139	point estimate	0.390	0.318
	asymptotic interval	[0.386, 0.392]	[0.316, 0.321]
	bootstrap interval	[0.385, 0.391]	[0.314, 0.321]

Table 7. Estimates and confidence intervals; 2001

		\widehat{PS}	\widehat{IS}
Male 227828 obs median \$31700	point estimate	0.437	0.364
	asymptotic interval	[0.435, 0.440]	[0.363, 0.366]
	bootstrap interval	[0.429, 0.440]	[0.354, 0.368]
Female 202491 obs median \$20000	point estimate	0.414	0.333
	asymptotic interval	[0.411, 0.416]	[0.330, 0.335]
	bootstrap interval	[0.411, 0.416]	[0.330, 0.335]

Table 8. Estimates and confidence intervals; 2006

		\widehat{PS}	\widehat{IS}
Male 238356 obs median \$35000	point estimate	0.418	0.302
	asymptotic interval	[0.416, 0.420]	[0.300, 0.304]
	bootstrap interval	[0.400, 0.420]	[0.282, 0.305]
Female 202491 obs median \$24000	point estimate	0.415	0.320
	asymptotic interval	[0.413, 0.417]	[0.318, 0.322]
	bootstrap interval	[0.413, 0.445]	[0.318, 0.355]

258 *Remarks.* In many cases, the asymptotic and bootstrap intervals very nearly coincide. The bootstrap
 259 intervals are a bit wider for 1971. For 2001 and 2006, however, the bootstrap population-share and
 260 income-share intervals for males extend far to the left of the asymptotic ones. For females, the pattern
 261 is different. In 2001, the asymptotic and bootstrap intervals are very close, but, in 2006, the bootstrap
 262 intervals extend far to the right of the asymptotic ones.

263 The reason for these phenomena with the 2001 and 2006 data emerges from looking at the
 264 distributions of the bootstrap statistics, of which kernel density plots in 2006 for males and for females
 265 are shown in Figure 1 and Figure 2 respectively.

266 One might expect the plots to resemble roughly a plot of the standard normal density. This
 267 would be the case if the long right-hand tail for men, and the long left-hand tail for women, each
 268 with a second mode, are neglected. It is well known that the resampling bootstrap can give highly
 269 misleading results with heavy-tailed data; see for instance Davidson (2012).

270 By looking at kernel density plots in Figure 3 of the sample income distributions for men and
 271 women in 2006, one can see evidence of the heavy right-hand tails for both sexes.

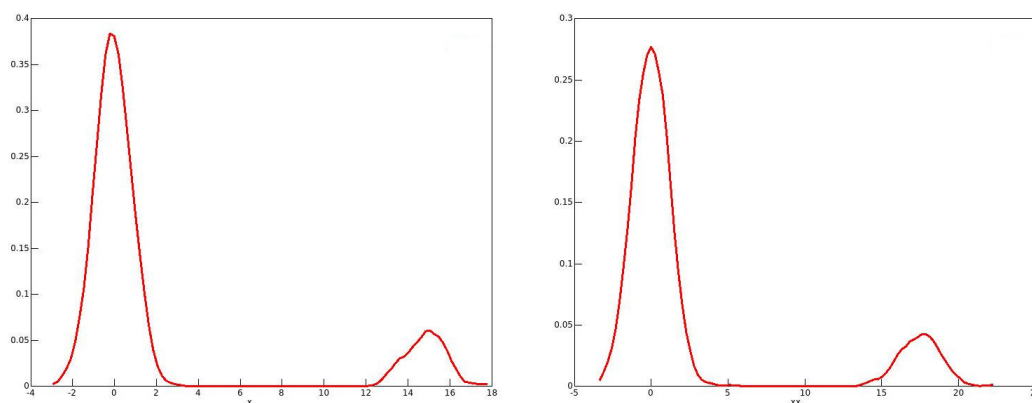


Figure 1. Kernel density plots of bootstrap statistics; 2006 males

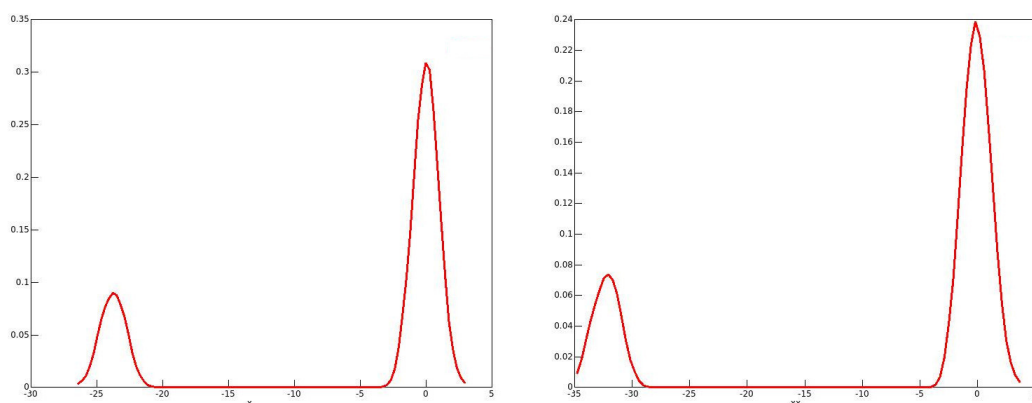


Figure 2. Kernel density plots of bootstrap statistics; 2006 females

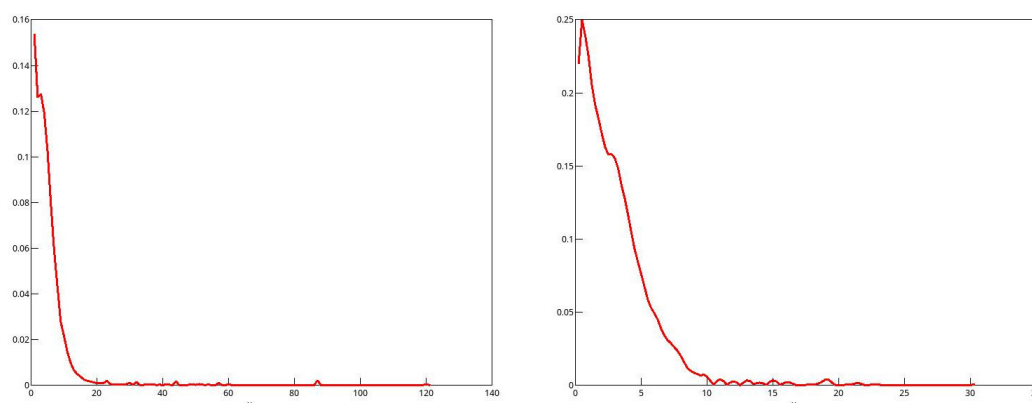


Figure 3. Kernel density plots of income distributions in 2006

272 In addition, for all of the twenty-first century data, there is clear evidence of top-coding, since,
 273 in all cases, there are several observations equal to the largest income in the sample, while the next
 274 highest income is much lower. For instance, in the 2006 male sample, out of the 238,356 observations,

275 there are 121 equal to the highest income of \$1,202,480, while the next highest income in the sample
276 is \$872,522.

277 However, there is no reason to think that top-coding would have any effect on the estimated
278 population shares, since their exact values do not matter. They do, of course, for the income
279 shares, and so these are overestimated with top-coding. It turns out that the reason for the bimodal
280 distributions of the bootstrap statistics is quite unrelated to top-coding. A closer look at the data for
281 2006 shows that a phenomenon that we may call “heaping” occurs in the data. What this means is that,
282 for each recorded income, there are multiple instances, with comparatively large gaps between the
283 distinct recorded incomes. While there is some measure of a similar heaping in the twentieth-century
284 data, the phenomenon is much less marked. As an example, there is only one observation in the 1971
285 male data equal to the maximum value.

286 The consequences of this heaping are most salient with the 2006 data. For men, the median
287 income is \$35,000, and there are no fewer than 3,228 observations of incomes apparently exactly equal
288 to \$35,000. The upper and lower limits for middle-class incomes that have been used in this study
289 are \$52,500 and \$17,500 respectively. There are no observations of incomes equal to either of these
290 limits, and this follows inevitably from the fact that *all* incomes no greater than \$200,000 are recorded
291 as exact integer multiples of \$1,000.

292 The data for women present a different picture, because the limits of \$12,000 and \$36,000 are
293 integer multiples of \$1,000, and all incomes no greater than \$100,000 are recorded as integer multiples
294 of \$1,000. The maximum income of \$310,136 is assigned to 99 observations; the median of \$24,000 to
295 3,316 observations, the lower limit of \$12,000 to 4,282 observations, and the upper limit of \$36,000 to
296 2,694 observations. The second highest recorded income is \$306,763.

297 What this has meant for the bootstrap is that, of the 999 bootstrap repetitions with the data
298 for men, all but 146 had a median of \$35,000, the others having a median of \$36,000. For the latter,
299 the limits for middle-class income were \$18,000 and \$54,000, and including the 2,052 observations
300 of \$54,000 in the numbers of the middle class greatly increases the population and income shares in
301 those bootstrap samples relative to the shares of the 853 samples with a median of \$35,000. At the
302 other end, increasing the limit from \$17,500 to \$18,000 made no difference to the numbers, since there
303 are no observations recorded in the interior of the range of the increase.

304 A similar analysis can be conducted with the data for women, but the reason for the bimodal
305 distributions of the bootstrap statistics is clear: it arises on account of the data heaping. With the 2001
306 data, a bimodal distribution might have been expected, but all but five out of 999 bootstrap samples
307 had a median equal to that of the original data, and, as expected, the distribution of the bootstrap
308 statistics is unimodal in that case.

309 The data for years before 2001 have a much lesser amount of heaping and have unimodal
310 bootstrap distributions. This no doubt implies that the bootstrap results are credible, although this
311 conclusion is not of much worth since the bootstrap and asymptotic confidence intervals are nearly
312 coincident.

313 3.3. *Smoothing*

314 An obvious remedy for the heaping in the later datasets is to smooth them. The smoothed sample
315 distribution may well be a better estimate of the population distribution than the heaped estimate,
316 since the heaping is manifestly an artefact of the way in which the datasets were constructed. As
317 always with smoothing, a troublesome question is the choice of bandwidth. Since the heaping occurs
318 at integer multiples of \$1,000, the bandwidth h should be of a comparable magnitude in order to
319 avoid an excessively discrete distribution. For $h = 1000$, the raw EDFs of the 2006 data for men and
320 women are plotted in Figure 4 along with the smoothed EDFs, for the range of incomes from half the
321 median to 1.5 times the median. The heaped nature of the data for both sexes is quite evident in the
322 green, unsmoothed, plots.

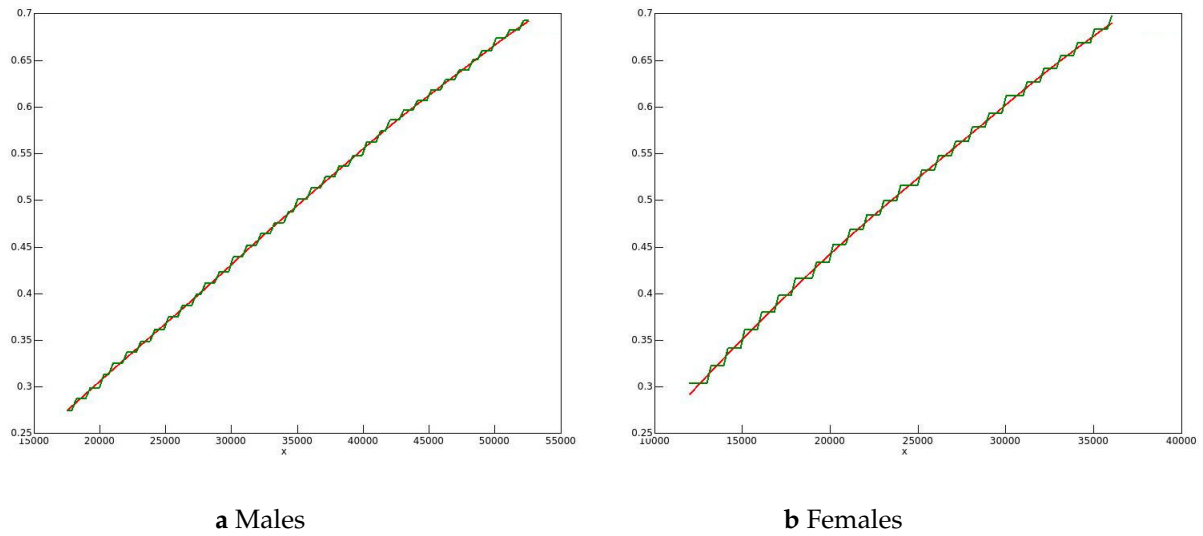
323 The (cumulative) kernel used for smoothing was the integrated Epanechnikov kernel. The
 324 smoothed estimate of the distribution is

$$F_{\text{sm}}(y) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N K(h^{-1}(y_i - y)), \quad (20)$$

325 where h is the bandwidth, and the cumulative kernel K is defined as

$$K(z) = I(|z| \leq \sqrt{5}) \left(\frac{3}{4\sqrt{5}} (z - z^3/15) + \frac{1}{2} \right) + I(z > \sqrt{5}). \quad (21)$$

326 where h is the bandwidth. Other choices of h greater than around 500 give qualitatively similar
 327 results.



a Males **b** Females

Figure 4. Smoothed (red) and unsmoothed (green) EDFs for 2006 data

328 For bootstrapping, resampling from the unsmoothed EDF is replaced by resampling from
 329 the smoothed EDF. Since the heaping phenomenon is banished by the smoothing, we can expect
 330 dramatically different results, in particular, a unimodal distribution of the bootstrap statistics. The
 331 CDF (20) describes a mixture distribution which assigns a weight of $1/N$ to the each of the
 332 distributions characterised by the terms in the sum. It is easily checked that K in (21) is a valid
 333 CDF, with support $[-\sqrt{5}, \sqrt{5}]$. The term indexed by i in (20) has support $[y_i - h\sqrt{5}, y_i + h\sqrt{5}]$.

334 In order to draw from the distribution (21), one starts from a uniform variate p from the $U(0,1)$
 335 distribution, and the draw is then $K^{-1}(p)$. The analytic form of K^{-1} is not, I think, well known. and
 336 so I give it here for reference. It is

$$K^{-1}(p) = 2\sqrt{5} \cos\left(\frac{1}{3}(2\pi - \cos^{-1}(1 - 2p))\right).$$

337 Thus, to draw from distribution (20), one may first draw the index i from the uniform distribution
 338 on $\{1, 2, \dots, N\}$, then draw p from $U(0,1)$, and get the draw

$$y^* = y_i + hK^{-1}(p).$$

339 The effect is to resample from the unsmoothed distribution and then add some smoothing “noise”
 340 from the Epanechnikov distribution.

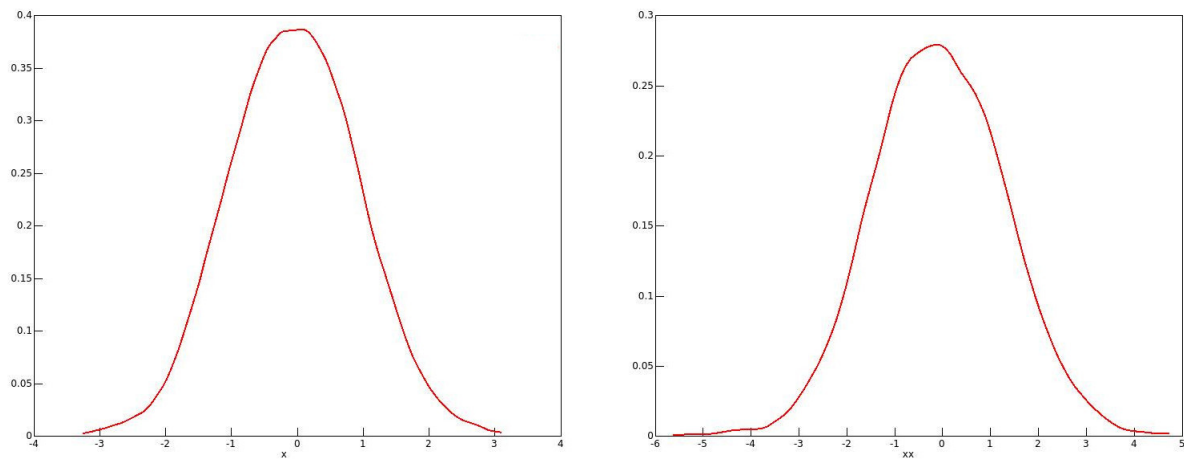
341 Although the smoothing preserves the mean of the distribution, it does not preserve the median,
 342 nor the population or income shares. If we accept the argument that the smoothed CDF is a better

343 estimate of the true distribution than the unsmoothed one, then the smoothed median, and the shares
 344 in the smoothed distribution are also better estimators. In addition, the smoothed shares are the “true”
 345 values for the bootstrap DGP, and so the bootstrap statistics should test the hypothesis that they are
 346 true, not the hypothesis that the unsmoothed shares are true.

347 With the 2006 data for men, the new estimates of the shares are 0.421 for the population and
 348 0.307 for income, slightly higher than the estimates from the raw data. The bootstrap confidence
 349 intervals are, for the population share, $[0.419, 0.423]$ and, for the income share, $[0.305, 0.310]$. They are
 350 of roughly the same width as the asymptotic intervals.

351 With the data for women, the new share estimates are 0.393 and 0.298, substantially lower than
 352 the unsmoothed estimates, and the confidence interval for the population share is $[0.390, 0.395]$, and,
 353 for the income share $[0.295, 0.301]$. Unsurprisingly, the smoothed share estimates are roughly in the
 354 middle of the respective intervals.

355 In Figures 5 and 6, kernel density plots are shown for the distribution of the bootstrap statistics,
 356 Figure 5 for men, Figure 6 for women. There is no trace of bimodality, and so it seems that smoothing
 357 has indeed corrected the heaping problem.



a Population share

b Income share

Figure 5. Kernel density plots of smoothed bootstrap statistics; 2006 males

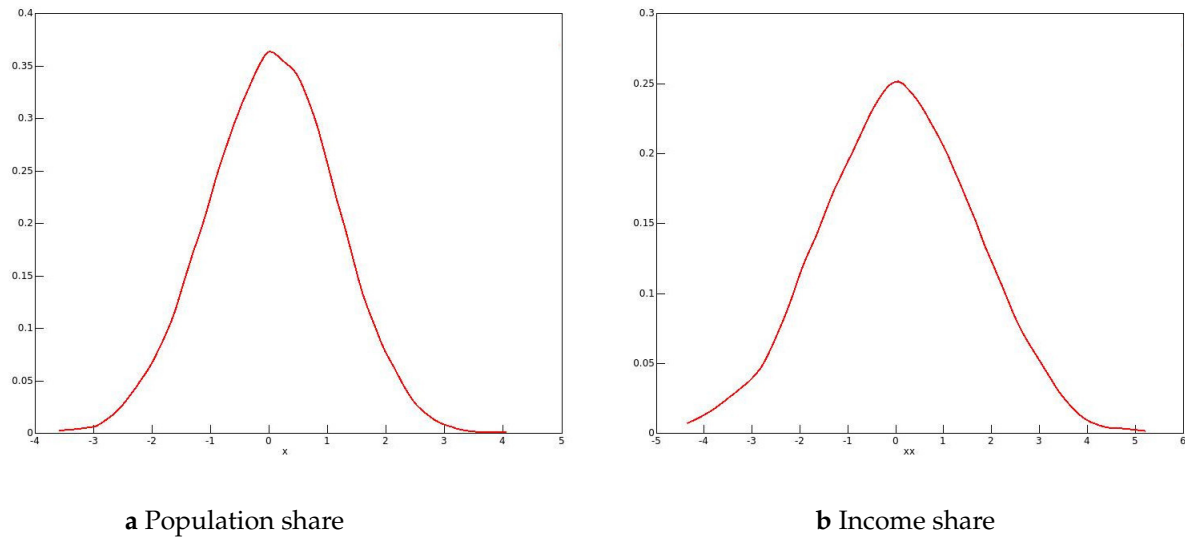


Figure 6. Kernel density plots of smoothed bootstrap statistics; 2006 females

358 3.4. Hypothesis tests

359 In this section are to be found the results of testing various hypotheses. All of the test statistics
 360 are asymptotic, as we have seen that when bootstrap inference differs greatly from asymptotic, the
 361 unsmoothed bootstrap, at least, is likely to be unreliable.

362 First are tests of hypotheses that the population and income shares for each sex did not change
 363 from one census until the next one. For instance, can one reject the hypothesis that the population
 364 share of the male middle class did not change from 1981 to 1991? Next are tests of hypotheses that
 365 the shares of men and women are the same in each census. For instance, can one reject the hypothesis
 366 that the income shares of men and women were the same in 2001?

367 The test results are expressed as asymptotic t statistics, rather than asymptotic P values, since in
 368 most cases the hypothesis is rejected strongly, and a P value very close to zero does not let one judge
 369 just how strong the rejection is. However, in some cases the hypotheses are not rejected, and in some
 370 other cases, the sign of the statistic differs from the signs of the other statistics for the same sort of
 371 hypothesis.

372 For the first group of tests, the results of which are found in Table 9, the sign of the statistic is
 373 positive if the decline in a share from the earlier to the later census is positive. A negative statistic
 374 indicates that the estimated share rose between the two censuses.

Table 9. t statistics for hypothesis of no change in share between consecutive censuses

Period	PS (men)	PS (women)	IS (men)	IS (women)
1971-1981	8.571726	2.299586	4.740735	6.571228
1981-1991	16.702812	0.311744	26.933620	6.875789
1991-2001	26.128047	-12.835861	53.350095	-7.954860
2001-2006	11.322294	-0.752581	43.943449	7.824492

375 *Remark.* All but two hypotheses of no change between two censuses are strongly rejected. The two
 376 exceptions concern the female population share, which did not change significantly either between
 377 1981 and 1991 or between 2001 and 2006. There are two significantly positive increases, for the female
 378 population and income shares from 1991 to 2001.

379 In Table 10 are found the statistics for testing the hypothesis that the share of men and women is
 380 the same for a given census. A positive statistic means that the estimated male share is greater than
 381 the female.

Table 10. *t* statistics for hypothesis of equal shares for men and women

Census	PS	IS
1971	32.526094	32.306558
1981	49.137099	60.112426
1991	50.265363	69.768414
2001	12.902812	20.345573
2006	7.824492	-12.143588

382 4. Conclusions

383 The main contribution of this paper is probably the theoretical part. The empirical results are
 384 not really surprising, although they do document clearly how the population and income shares of
 385 the male middle class have fallen over the period since 1970. In addition, one sees the results of the
 386 considerable increase in female labour market participation. Although the bootstrap has not shown
 387 itself especially useful for formal inference, the evolution over time of the distribution of the bootstrap
 388 statistics shows very clearly the increasing polarisation of Canadian society, with the growth of a
 389 heavy right-hand tail in the income distributions of both men and women.

390 The main obstacle to inference, whether asymptotic or bootstrap, with the twenty-first century
 391 data has been seen to be the problem of heaping, or excessively rounding, the data. The smoothing
 392 technique proposed here appears to lead to more reliable inference, but truly reliable inference would
 393 need better data.

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 398 Group (Bristol 2017) and the second Lebanese Econometric Study Group (Beirut 2017).

399 **Conflicts of Interest:** The author declares no conflict of interest.

400 Abbreviations

401 The following abbreviations are used in this manuscript:

402 CDF cumulative distribution function
 403 EDF empirical distribution function
 DGP Data-generating process

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