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Advances in Multiregional Demography

Cover

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FOREWORD Demography is concerned with the evolution of human populations, their age and sex structure, and the way in which the components of change, births and deaths, alter this structure over time. Accordingly mathematical demographers have focused their attention on population *stocks* and on population *events*. The need to include several regional populations and the *flows* that interconnect them to form a national multiregional population *system* has led to the development of *multiregional* mathematical demography, which is concerned with the evolution of human populations over space as well as time.

The papers in this volume deal with problems concerning data and measurement, methods of constructing life tables, population projections, analyses of migration patterns and age profiles, aggregation procedures, and the evolutionary dynamics of populations experiencing changing rates of natural increase and migration. The authors are all members of an international group of scholars studying national problems of human settlement at the International Institute for Applied Systems Analysis (IIASA).

The first paper examines an important measurement problem in migration analysis: the transformation of data collected over one unit of time into information covering a different period of time. Data on migration often appear in the form of a response to the question: where did you live *n* years ago? In Canada and the USA, for example, *n* is usually taken to be five. Yet the data on births and deaths are reported annually. Thus it is necessary to reconcile one-year with five-year data. *Pavel Kitsul* of the Soviet Union and *Dimiter Philipov* of Bulgaria tackle this problem in their contribution to this volume. They outline an elegant mathematical procedure using matrix theory. The method is illustrated with data for a three-region disaggregation of the population of Great Britain.

Migration data and mortality data for a multiregional population system may be combined to produce estimates of the probabilities of population redistribution and survival. The demographer's normal method of assessing such probabilities is the life table. *Jacques Ledent* of France considers two alternative methods of constructing multiregional life tables, and demonstrates that a computational procedure based on probabilities specific to an individual's region of birth yields more accurate allocations of life expectancies than the more conventional Markov-based solution.

Dimiter Philipov of Bulgaria and *Andrei Rogers* of the USA, in work related to that of Ledent, have developed a procedure that generates multiregional population projections disaggregated by region of birth. They outline two classes of projections: *native-independent* projections, in which identical probabilities of transition are assigned to all residents of a region, and *native-dependent* projections, in which these probabilities are further disaggregated by region of birth. The results once again emphasize the importance of including region-of-birth-specific information in demographic analysis.

As part of its work on patterns of migration and settlement in individual nations, IIASA has introduced new techniques for inferring age-specific migration flows from aggregated data. *Frans Willekens* of Belgium, *András Pór* of Hungary, and *Richard Raquillet* of France report on their collaborative work dealing with this topic. They outline a general estimation procedure that incorporates both maximum-likelihood and minimum chi-square estimates. Data for Austria and Sweden are used to illustrate the methodology.

A common demographic approach in mortality studies is the decomposition of mortality rates by cause of death. *Andrei Rogers* of the USA and *Luis Castro* of Mexico use an analogous method to analyze migration rates. They show that different age profiles are associated with different causes of migration. Using data for Czechoslovakia, they demonstrate the ways in which the *levels* and *age profiles* of different cause-specific migration schedules contribute to the aggregate age patterns of migration which change over time and space.

The theory of stable population dynamics has been developed quite thoroughly in the demographic literature, but it is virtually all based on the assumption that fertility, mortality, and migration rates remain unchanged. The case of changing rates has received relatively little attention; not much is known about the influence of variable rates on the age composition and regional distribution of populations. *Young Kim* of the Republic of Korea considers how multiregional zero-growth populations evolve over time when experiencing variations in birth, death, and migration rates. Her paper identifies ways in which the age structure in each region is influenced by the pattern of recent rates and how the effect of the initial composition decreases over time until it is finally lost. Data for India and the Soviet Union illustrate some of the key concepts.

The seventh and last paper in this collection develops a formalism for determining the relationships between a linear Markovian population model and the corresponding aggregated model. *Robert Gibberd* of Australia first shows that an aggregated population model is generally non-Markovian. He then suggests several Markovian approximations, including two which provide upper and lower bounds for the aggregated population distribution. Australian migration data are used to illustrate the results.

It is hoped that the publication of this collection of papers will stimulate further contributions in the field of multiregional demographic analysis.

Andrei Rogers
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THE ONE-YEAR/FIVE-YEAR MIGRATION PROBLEM*

Pavel Kitsul and Dimiter Philipov

1 THE PROBLEM

The analysis of mobility is often restricted by the unavailability of data. Frequently models use cross-sectional data to approximate longitudinal patterns. Problems also arise because the cross-sectional data may refer to different periods of time.

In the case of migration, registration statistics in many countries can be used to produce origin–destination tables of migration flows over a period of one year. Censuses usually also provide such flow data, but over a five- or ten-year period. Statisticians are thus faced with two sets of data, which give different information that may be difficult to reconcile (Rees 1979b). Is one set of data more accurate than the other, or do they reveal different patterns of migration?

This paper investigates the problem of reconciling demographic data collected over different periods of time. The migration example discussed above can be incorporated at an early stage in the construction of the simplest multiregional model: the multiregional life table.

Consider a multiregional population, disaggregated by age, and for which the necessary data on regional populations, births, deaths, and interregional migrations are readily available. Assume that the width of the age group is five years and that the periods of observation can be either one year or five years. Then the multiregional life-table probabilities of migrating can be computed according to eqn. (1) (Rogers and Ledent 1976, Willekens and Rogers 1978)

$$\mathbf{P}_5(x) = [\mathbf{I} + \tfrac{5}{2}\mathbf{M}_1(x)]^{-1}[\mathbf{I} - \tfrac{5}{2}\mathbf{M}_1(x)] \tag{1}$$

where $\mathbf{P}_5(x)$ is the matrix of probabilities $p_{ij}^{(5)}(x)$ that a person at exact age x in region i will be living in region j five years later; $\mathbf{I}$ is the identity matrix; $\mathbf{M}_1(x)$ is the matrix:

$$\mathbf{M}_1(x) = \begin{bmatrix} \left[M_{1\delta}(x) + \sum_{j\neq 1} M_{1j}(x) \right] & -M_{21}(x) & \cdots & -M_{n1}(x) \\ -M_{12}(x) & \left[M_{2\delta}(x) + \sum_{j\neq 2} M_{2j}(x) \right] & \cdots & -M_{n2}(x) \\ \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots \\ -M_{1n}(x) & -M_{2n}(x) & \cdots & \left[M_{n\delta}(x) + \sum_{j\neq n} M_{nj}(x) \right] \end{bmatrix}$$

where $M_{ij}(x)$ are the one-year observed gross migration rates for people aged x to

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$x + 4$ moving from region i to region j, and $M_{i\delta}(x)$ is the annual death rate in region i for individuals aged x to $x + 4$. The matrices $\mathbf{M}_1(x)$ and $\mathbf{P}_5(x)$ are of dimension $n \times n$, where n is the number of regions.

A factor of five is introduced into eqn. (1) to reconcile the one-year observed data with the five-year probabilities. It is assumed that the migrations are uniformly distributed over the five-year period (Ledent 1978).

When the observed data refer to a five-year period, the above assumption is not necessary. In this case, eqn. (2) can be used

$$\mathbf{P}_5(x) = [\mathbf{I} + \tfrac{1}{2}\mathbf{M}_5(x)]^{-1}[\mathbf{I} - \tfrac{1}{2}\mathbf{M}_5(x)] \tag{2}$$

where $\mathbf{M}_5(x)$ is a matrix constructed analogously to $\mathbf{M}_1(x)$ from five-year observed gross migration and death rates.

If the assumption that the migrations are uniformly distributed over the period studied is correct, eqns. (1) and (2) should give approximately equal results. In such a case eqn. (1) would be a good approximation to eqn. (2). Results computed for people of exact age 15 migrating within the subsequent five years to another region in Great Britain (East Anglia, South East England, and the rest of Britain) are given in Table 1 both for a one-year period of observation (1970) and for a five-year period

TABLE 1   Probabilities of a person at exact age 15 in one of three regions of Great Britain (East Anglia, South East England, or the rest of Britain) living in the same or another region five years later. Calculated using one-year observations and five-year observations and eqns. (1) and (2) respectively.[a]

| | Probability of living in region | | | Probability of death |
Region of origin	East Anglia	South East	Rest	
One-year observations (1970) and eqn. (1)				
East Anglia	0.838896	0.084048	0.073464	0.003591
South East	0.010098	0.917494	0.069230	0.003178
Rest of Britain	0.005401	0.047277	0.944153	0.003169
Five-year observations (1966–1971) and eqn. (2)				
East Anglia	0.898068	0.053417	0.044920	0.003595
South East	0.007041	0.948826	0.040965	0.003168
Rest of Britain	0.003073	0.030466	0.963210	0.003251

[a] Taken from Rees (1978, 1979a).

(1966–1971). The corresponding results for other ages are given in Appendix C. Two sets of data have been used for the estimations in this paper. The data from the first set refer to the five-year period from 1966 to 1971, and were taken from Rees (1978). The second set refer to the single year 1970, and can be found in Rees (1979a). In the second case the data were originally disaggregated for ten regions but were reaggregated to the three-region system considered here.

It is clear that the probability of leaving the region of origin is substantially higher when calculated using one-year observed data than when calculated using five-year data. Therefore, eqn. (1) must overestimate the probability of migration and underestimate the probability of living in the same region five years later. The

probabilities of remaining in the region of origin are represented by the elements of the main diagonal of each table. This is also true for other ages, as shown by the data in Appendix C.

The two sets of probabilities are shown to be significantly different by comparing the corresponding distribution of expectations of life given in Table 2 (see also Appendix D).

TABLE 2   Distribution of expectations of life at exact age 15 in three regions of Great Britain. Calculated using one-year observations and five-year observations and eqns. (1) and (2) respectively.

Region of origin	Number of years spent in region			Total
	East Anglia	South East	Rest	
One-year observations (1970) and eqn. (1)				
East Anglia	18.46	17.76	23.16	59.38
South East	2.82	34.36	22.14	59.32
Rest of Britain	1.62	11.48	45.70	58.80
Five-year observations (1966–1971) and eqn. (2)				
East Anglia	28.78	13.86	17.01	59.65
South East	2.48	40.97	16.01	59.46
Rest of Britain	1.29	8.22	49.25	58.76

The distribution of the expectation of life for an individual born in the first region, East Anglia, is markedly different in the two cases. Although not so large, the differences in the distribution of life expectancy for natives of the other two regions are also significant. The same holds true for other ages (Appendix D).

Now compare the probabilities for dying, as shown in Table 1. They are obviously so close that the probability of death calculated using one-year data and eqn. (1) is a good approximation to that calculated using five-year data and eqn. (2). However, eqn. (1) still contains the assumption that invalidated the corresponding approximation in the case of migration; namely, that the observed deaths/migrations are uniformly distributed over the five-year period.

One and the same assumption gives different results: in the case of deaths it is valid, but in the case of migrations it is unjustified. The reason for this difference is that migration may be repeated, unlike death. Migrants are usually identified by comparing their places of residence at the beginning and at the end of the period of interest. Therefore, multiple moves within this period are not counted.

An example is presented in Figure 1. Let an individual reside in region 1 at time 0. He will be a resident of the same region at the end of the first year, but at the end of the second year he will be a resident of region 2. At the end of the third and fourth years he will reside in region 3. Figure 1(a) assumes that he remains in region 3 until at least the end of the fifth year while Figure 1(b) assumes that he moves back to region 1 during this year.

In a one-year data collection system this individual would be registered as a migrant either twice (Figure 1a) or three times (Figure 1b). But if data are
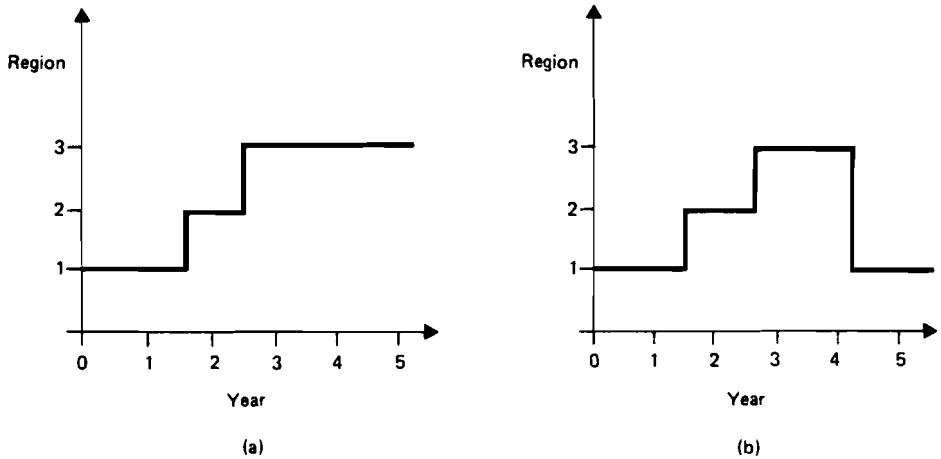
FIGURE 1   Migration of an individual among three regions over a period of five years.

collected over a five-year period, the same individual would register only one move in the case of Figure 1(a) and no move in the case of Figure 1(b).

In the above example, an additional move (from region 3 to region 1 in Figure 1(b)) was registered correctly by yearly observations but resulted in the measurement of one move *less* in the case of five-year observations. This is one type of move responsible for the inaccurate results produced by using a multiplicative factor of five. A detailed description of the ideas outlined above may be found in Rees (1977).

These ideas suggest that an individual's migratory behavior may be represented as a stochastic process. If each move is independent from every other move, and if the probability of a move does not depend on time, the process can be described as a homogeneous Markovian process.

The Markovian assumption gives rise to a new kind of estimating procedure, represented by eqn. (3)

$$\mathbf{P}_5(x) = \{[\mathbf{I} + \tfrac{1}{2}\mathbf{M}_1(x)]^{-1}[\mathbf{I} - \tfrac{1}{2}\mathbf{M}_1(x)]\}^5 \tag{3}$$

which is based on the equality

$$\mathbf{P}_5(x) = [\mathbf{P}_1(x)]^5 \tag{3a}$$

for any Markovian process. Here $\mathbf{P}_1(x)$ is the matrix of probabilities $p_{ij}^1(x)$ that an individual at exact age x in region i will be living in region j one year later. Thus defined, this probability has little demographic meaning, because of the inconsistency between the width of the age group (5 years) and time-period of interest (1 year), but its formal definition is correct. If the Markovian assumption proves to be valid, then $[\mathbf{P}_1(x)]^5$ is already demographically meaningful.*

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* However, if the matrices $\mathbf{P}_1(x)$ for $x = 1, 2, 3, \ldots$ are available, $\mathbf{P}_5(x)$ should be approximated by the matrix

$$\mathbf{P}_1(x+4) \cdot \mathbf{P}_1(x+3) \cdot \mathbf{P}_1(x+2) \cdot \mathbf{P}_1(x+1) \cdot \mathbf{P}_1(x).$$

The probabilities of people of exact age 15 living in the same or another region of Great Britain five years later have been calculated using eqn. (3) and are displayed in Table 3. These results are very similar to those obtained using eqn. (1). Hence the Markovian assumption has not introduced any significant improvement. This is also true for other ages (Appendix B).

TABLE 3   Probabilities of a person at exact age 15 in one of three regions of Great Britain living in the same or another region five years later. Calculated using the Markovian assumption.

	Probability of living in region			Probability of death
Region of origin	East Anglia	South East	Rest	
East Anglia	0.839297	0.083767	0.073345	0.003591
South East	0.010063	0.917623	0.069137	0.003178
Rest of Britain	0.005394	0.047212	0.944226	0.003169

Rogers (1965) and Rees (1977) have suggested that the Markovian assumption should be used in analyses of interregional migration. Rees has applied the approach to two sets of data for Great Britain: data from a questionnaire referring to the migration of heads of households, and census data on interregional migration. In the first case, the results obtained were satisfactory but in the second analysis, which included ten regions of Great Britain, the calculated rates differed significantly from the observed rates. After a detailed examination of the problem the author concluded that "... a more complex [than the Markovian] process is involved when an interregional framework is employed" (Rees 1977, p. 262).

The Markovian assumption is theoretically better than the assumption of a uniform distribution of migrations over time, because it allows return migration to be considered (see Figure 1b). It can therefore be thought of as dividing the population into two different groups. Ideas of this kind have been explored by Blumen *et al.* (1955), who gave rise to what is known today as the "mover–stayer" model. This model was later elaborated by Goodman (1961), Spilerman (1972), Boudon (1975), Bartholomew (1973), and others.

The mover–stayer model is based on the assumption that a certain part of the population has a zero probability of migration (*stayers*), while the rest of the population has a non-zero probability of migration (*movers*). Thus all the migrations are made by the "movers". The formal description of the model is

$$\mathbf{P}_5(x) = \alpha \boldsymbol{\pi}_5(x) + (1 - \alpha)\mathbf{I} \tag{4}$$

where $0 < \alpha < 1$, $\mathbf{P}_5(x)$ and $\boldsymbol{\pi}_5(x)$ are matrices representing probabilities of migration within the next 5 years for people at exact age x, and $\mathbf{I}$ is the identity matrix. $\mathbf{P}_5(x)$ and $\boldsymbol{\pi}_5(x)$ are defined similarly but are different in magnitude.

The Markovian assumption is now applied to the matrix $\boldsymbol{\pi}(x)$, instead of the matrix $\mathbf{P}(x)$. Therefore, if only $\boldsymbol{\pi}_1(x)$ were available, a possible approximation of eqn. (2) would be

$$\mathbf{P}_5(x) = \alpha [\boldsymbol{\pi}_1(x)]^5 + (1 - \alpha)\mathbf{I} \tag{5}$$

Note that for $\alpha = 1$, eqn. (5) reduces to eqn. (3a). Note also that, according to this presentation of the mover–stayer model, α does not depend on the region of origin or destination.

Instead of elaborating on the last equation we shall proceed further by considering a possible extension, the high- and low-intensity movers model.

2 THE HIGH- AND LOW-INTENSITY MOVERS MODEL

The mover–stayer model was based on the existence of two homogeneous groups of individuals—movers and stayers. In the demographic literature, however, migrants themselves are often divided into two groups with respect to the "parity" or number of moves. One group comprises those migrants who move only once during the period of observation, and the other is composed of individuals who migrate more often. The latter are sometimes referred to as "chronic" migrants. Long and Hansen (1975) report that the rates of return migration to the southern states of the USA are much higher than those for first-time moves to the same destination. However, at the same time, the return migrants constitute only a small part of the total number of migrants (10–20%).

Spilerman (1972) has tried to extend the mover–stayer model by developing the suggestion made by Blumen *et al.* (1955) that a continuous range of intensities of migration should be considered. He proposes a solution to the problem on this basis. However, this model is Markovian and cannot be used in the present case. Boudon (1975) suggests that two homogeneous populations should be considered, both with probabilities of migration greater than zero. He focuses basically on inter-generational occupation tables. The solution of the resulting model is based on the maximum likelihood principle, which causes substantial computational difficulties when dealing with large numbers of equations and unknowns.

In this paper we shall assume, like Boudon, that the population consists of two groups with different intensities of migration, but we propose a different method of solution (matrix diagonalization). It is believed that this will bring the model closer to the demographic idea of migration propensities, and will provide more theoretical insight into methods of dealing with such problems as return migrants or chronic migrants.

Let $p_{ij}^1(x)$ be the probability that an individual at exact age x in region i will live in region j one year later. Let $\sum_{j=1}^{n} p_{ij}^1(x) = 1$, where n is the number of regions. This equation does not take into account the effect of mortality. This assumption is made for convenience, since the matrix of the $p_{ij}^1(x)$ will then be stochastic and its properties will be easier to describe and understand.

Note that the probabilities $p_{ij}^1(x)$ described here are linked with the estimated probabilities $\hat{p}_{ij}^1(x)$ from

$$\hat{\mathbf{P}}_1(x) = [\mathbf{I} + \tfrac{1}{2}\mathbf{M}_1(x)]^{-1}[\mathbf{I} - \tfrac{1}{2}\mathbf{M}_1(x)]$$

where $\hat{\mathbf{P}}_1(x) = [\hat{p}_{ij}^1(x)]$, by the equality

$$p_{ij}^1(x) = \frac{\hat{p}_{ij}^1(x)}{1 - \hat{p}_{i\delta}^1(x)}$$

where $\hat{p}_{i\delta}^1(x)$ is the estimated probability that a person at exact age x in region i will

be dead one year later. Bearing in mind that $\sum_{j=1}^{n} \hat{p}_{ij}^1(x) + \hat{p}_{i\delta}^1(x) = 1$, it must be true that $\sum_{j=1}^{n} p_{ij}^1(x) = 1$.

The formal description of the extension of the mover–stayer model considered here is based on the equality

$$p_{ij}^1(x) = \alpha_{ij}(x)\pi_{ij}(x) + [1 - \alpha_{ij}(x)]\rho_{ij}(x) \tag{6}$$

where π_{ij} and ρ_{ij} are probabilities with meanings analogous to that of p_{ij}^1, and $\alpha_{ij}(x)$ is a real parameter, $0 < \alpha < 1$. The equality shows that the probability $p_{ij}^1(x)$, which refers to the *total* population of region i at exact age x, is the weighted sum of two probabilities $\pi_{ij}(x)$ and $\rho_{ij}(x)$, which refer to subgroups of this regional population, with weights $\alpha_{ij}(x)$ and $[1 - \alpha_{ij}(x)]$ respectively. The model defined by the above probabilities is called the *high- and low-intensity movers model*, to differentiate it from the extension developed by Spilerman (1972).

In order to make use of this model to estimate $p_{ij}(x)$, it is necessary to know the values of $\alpha_{ij}(x)$, $\pi_{ij}(x)$, and $\rho_{ij}(x)$. Unfortunately, these data are unavailable. A number of further assumptions must therefore be made in order to find a convincing method of solving for α, π, and ρ.

We shall first assume that the parameter $\alpha_{ij}(x)$ does not depend on the regions i and j, i.e., that the two groups with different probabilities of migration are not separated on a regional basis. This means that factors other than the region of residence (for instance, social status and economic occupation) affect the probabilities of migration and the number of return migrants and chronic migrants. The validity of this and other assumptions is discussed later in the paper.

The matrix equivalent of eqn. (6) is

$$\mathbf{P}_1(x) = \alpha(x)\boldsymbol{\pi}_1(x) + [1 - \alpha(x)]\boldsymbol{\rho}_1(x) \tag{7}$$

where $\alpha(x)$ is a scalar depending on the age x. Note that $\alpha(x)$ and the elements of the two matrices $\boldsymbol{\pi}_1(x)$ and $\boldsymbol{\rho}_1(x)$ are all non-negative.

We shall further assume that the stochastic processes defined by the stochastic matrices $\boldsymbol{\pi}_1(x)$ and $\boldsymbol{\rho}_1(x)$ are Markovian. Thus we assume that these matrices satisfy the Kolmogoroff–Chapman equations (Chiang 1968, Karlin 1969). If so, the overall process, defined by $\mathbf{P}(x)$, is a mixture of two Markovian processes.

The mixture of two Markovian processes is generally not itself a Markovian process. Since $\alpha(x) = 1$ reduces the process to the Markovian process defined by $\mathbf{P}_1(x)$, the high- and low-intensity model is a non-Markovian extension of the Markovian model.

Equation (7) was based on a one-year period of observation. More generally, if the period of observation is τ years, the process can be represented by eqn. (8).

$$\mathbf{P}_\tau(x) = \alpha(x)\boldsymbol{\pi}_\tau(x) + [1 - \alpha(x)]\boldsymbol{\rho}_\tau(x) \tag{8}$$

The Markovian assumption for $\boldsymbol{\pi}_\tau$ and $\boldsymbol{\rho}_\tau$ gives the following relationships between processes involving different values of τ ($\tau = 1$ and $\tau = 5$, say):

$$\boldsymbol{\pi}_5(x) = [\boldsymbol{\pi}_1(x)]^5$$
$$\boldsymbol{\rho}_5(x) = [\boldsymbol{\rho}_1(x)]^5 \tag{9}$$

With a knowledge of eqns. (9), eqn. (8) can be used to form the system

$$\mathbf{P}_1(x) = \alpha(x)\boldsymbol{\pi}_1(x) + [1 - \alpha(x)]\boldsymbol{\rho}_1(x)$$
$$\mathbf{P}_5(x) = \alpha(x)[\boldsymbol{\pi}_1(x)]^5 + [1 - \alpha(x)][\boldsymbol{\rho}_1(x)]^5 \tag{10}$$

If this system can be solved with respect to the unknowns $\alpha(x)$ and the elements of $\boldsymbol{\pi}_1(x)$ and $\boldsymbol{\rho}_1(x)$, the one-year/five-year migration problem can be attacked using the newly formulated model. Hence we proceed to solve system (10) with respect to $\alpha(x)$, $\pi_{ij}(x)$, and $\rho_{ij}(x)$ for each $i,j = 1, 2, \ldots, n$. There are $2n^2 + 1$ unknowns in system (10), where n is the number of regions, and $2n^2 + 2n$ equations (the $2n^2$ comes from the dimension of the matrices, and the $2n$ from the restrictions $\sum_{j=1}^{n} \pi_{ij} = 1$ and $\sum_{j=1}^{n} \rho_{ij} = 1$).

In finding the solution of system (10) we are faced with a problem caused by the large number of non-linear equations. This non-linear system is also overdetermined. For instance, for $n = 3$ there are 19 unknowns and 24 equations. The two problems will be considered together.

Consider the system of Kolmogoroff differential equations (Chiang 1968)

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}\tau}\mathbf{P}(\tau) = \mathbf{P}(\tau)\boldsymbol{\mu}$$

with the initial condition

$$\mathbf{P}(0) = \mathbf{I}$$

The elements μ_{ij} of the matrix $\boldsymbol{\mu}$ represent the "intensity" or "force" of migration from region i to region j. The elements satisfy the conditions

$$\sum_{j=1}^{n} \mu_{ij} = 0$$

$$\mu_{ij} \geq 0 \quad \text{for } i \neq j$$

$$\mu_{ii} \leq 0$$

Some important properties of $\boldsymbol{\mu}$ are given by Chiang (1968).

The formal solution of the system of Kolmogoroff differential equations is

$$\mathbf{P}(\tau) = \mathrm{e}^{\mu\tau} \tag{11}$$

The definition of $\mathrm{e}^{\mu\tau}$ as a matrix function is given by Gantmacher (1959, Chapter V).

The matrices $\boldsymbol{\pi}_1(x)$ and $\boldsymbol{\rho}_1(x)$ represent Markovian processes and (for $\tau = 1$) they can therefore be written

$$\boldsymbol{\pi}_1(x) = \mathrm{e}^{\mu_\pi(x)}$$

$$\boldsymbol{\rho}_1(x) = \mathrm{e}^{\mu_\rho(x)}$$

Then system (10), with $\alpha(x)$ set equal to α, may be transformed to

$$\mathbf{P}_1(x) = \alpha\,\mathrm{e}^{\mu_\pi(x)} + (1-\alpha)\,\mathrm{e}^{\mu_\rho(x)}$$

$$\mathbf{P}_5(x) = \alpha\,\mathrm{e}^{5\mu_\pi(x)} + (1-\alpha)\,\mathrm{e}^{5\mu_\rho(x)} \tag{12}$$

Note that on the right-hand side of the equation the probabilities of migration have been replaced by the corresponding intensities of migration.

Next we introduce the assumptions

$$\boldsymbol{\mu}_\rho(x) = k(x)\boldsymbol{\mu}_\pi(x) \qquad 0 < k(x) < 1$$

$$k(x) = k \qquad\qquad\quad \text{for all } x \tag{13}$$

This means that the difference in the propensity to migrate for individuals from the two groups (weighted by the parameter α) is independent of the regions i and j. Introducing assumptions (13) into system (12) and denoting μ_π by μ we obtain

$$\mathbf{P}_1(x) = \alpha\, e^{\mu(x)} + (1-\alpha)\, e^{k\mu(x)}$$
$$\mathbf{P}_5(x) = \alpha\, e^{5\mu(x)} + (1-\alpha)\, e^{5k\mu(x)} \tag{14}$$

Introducing the assumptions (13) means that the number of unknowns is reduced from $2n^2+1$ in eqns. (10) to n^2+2 in eqns. (14), the number of equations being reduced to $2n^2+n$, as the restrictions $\sum_{j=1}^{n} \pi_{ij} = 1$ and $\sum_{j=1}^{n} \rho_{ij} = 1$ are replaced by $\sum_{j=1}^{n} \mu_{ij} = 0$.

For $n = 3$, there will be 11 unknowns and 21 equations. For $n > 3$, the number of equations will increasingly exceed the number of unknowns. Therefore, for $n \geq 3$, the solution must be found indirectly. We shall use the method of matrix diagonalization to decrease the dimension of the problem and the degree of its overdetermination.

Assume that there are n eigenvalues of $\mathbf{P}_1$ and that they are all different.* (This assumption is usual in the social sciences and adequately reflects real-world situations.) Then the transformation $\mathbf{T}_1$ which diagonalizes $\mathbf{P}_1$ is defined by the n different right eigenvectors. Analogously let $\mathbf{P}_5$ be diagonalized by $\mathbf{T}_5$. By $\mathbf{T}^{-1}$ we denote the inverse of the matrix $\mathbf{T}$. Hence, $\mathbf{T}_1^{-1}$ and $\mathbf{T}_5^{-1}$ are constructed by the left eigenvectors of $\mathbf{P}_1$ and $\mathbf{P}_5$, respectively. For more details about diagonalization see, for instance, Bellman (1960), Chiang (1968), or Gantmacher (1959).

Let $\mathbf{T}_1^{-1}\mathbf{P}_1\mathbf{T}_1 = \text{diag}\,(\mathbf{P}_1) = \Lambda_1$, where Λ_1 is a diagonal matrix of the eigenvalues of $\mathbf{P}_1$. Correspondingly, let $\text{diag}\,(\mathbf{P}_5) = \Lambda_5$. Introducing the diagonalization into eqns. (14) gives

$$\Lambda_1 = \mathbf{T}_1^{-1}[\alpha\, e^{\mu} + (1-\alpha)\, e^{k\mu}]\mathbf{T}_1$$
$$\Lambda_5 = \mathbf{T}_5^{-1}[\alpha\, e^{5\mu} + (1-\alpha)\, e^{5k\mu}]\mathbf{T}_5$$

and hence

$$\Lambda_1 = \alpha\mathbf{T}_1^{-1}\, e^{\mu}\mathbf{T}_1 + (1-\alpha)\mathbf{T}_1^{-1}\, e^{k\mu}\mathbf{T}_1$$
$$\Lambda_5 = \alpha\mathbf{T}_5^{-1}\, e^{5\mu}\mathbf{T}_5 + (1-\alpha)\mathbf{T}_5^{-1}\, e^{5k\mu}\mathbf{T}_5 \tag{14a}$$

It will be necessary to use a certain class of matrices, which are defined as follows:

The matrices $\mathbf{A}$ and $\mathbf{B}$ are *related*** if they can be diagonalized by the same transformation $\mathbf{T}$.

It is easy to show that if the matrices $\mathbf{A}$ and $\mathbf{B}$ are related, then the matric $\mathbf{C}$, where

$$\mathbf{C} = a\mathrm{f}(\mathbf{A}) + b\mathrm{g}(\mathbf{B})$$

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* To simplify the notation, age groups will no longer be denoted.
** The authors would like to thank A. Seifelnasr, who indicated that the word "similar" which was used here originally was inappropriate because this term is used in the literature to define another class of matrices.

and f($\cdot$) and g($\cdot$) are scalar functions and a and b are real numbers, is also related to **A** and **B** (Gantmacher 1959, Chapter V). In particular, if **v** is the diagonalized matrix diag (μ), then

$$\text{diag}(e^\mu) = e^v$$

Consider now the system (14a). Since the left-hand side of each equation is a diagonal matrix, the same will be true of the matrix sum on the right-hand side. But the matrices μ and $k\mu$ are related and therefore, from the equation above, the matrices e^μ and $e^{k\mu}$ are also related. Hence they are diagonalized by the same transformation **U**. Then **U** diagonalizes a linear combination of e^μ and $e^{k\mu}$, and hence diagonalizes $\mathbf{P}_1$ as well. Then $\mathbf{P}_1$ and e^μ, or $e^{k\mu}$, are also related. If so, the transformation $\mathbf{T}_1$ diagonalizes e^μ and $e^{k\mu}$.

Analogously, $\mathbf{T}_5$ diagonalizes the related matrices $\mathbf{P}_5$, $e^{5\mu}$, and $e^{5k\mu}$. Then eqns. (14a) can be represented as

$$\Lambda_1 = \alpha\, e^v + (1-\alpha)\, e^{kv}$$
$$\Lambda_5 = \alpha\, e^{5v} + (1-\alpha)\, e^{5kv} \tag{15}$$

bearing in mind the similarity between μ, $k\mu$, 5μ, and $5k\mu$, and applying successively the property of matrix functions cited above.

Note that e^μ and $e^{5\mu}$ (or $e^{k\mu}$ and $e^{5k\mu}$) are related, so that the transformations $\mathbf{T}_1$ and $\mathbf{T}_5$ should diagonalize them both. This implies that the matrices $\mathbf{P}_1$ and $\mathbf{P}_5$ should also be related, and be diagonalized by either $\mathbf{T}_1$ or $\mathbf{T}_5$. However, since transformations are unique, $\mathbf{T}_1$ and $\mathbf{T}_5$ should be equal. This condition is too rigid to be met in practice, but we can relax it a little by assuming that $\mathbf{T}_1$ and $\mathbf{T}_5$ are empirically close enough to meet the theoretical requirements, i.e., that when applied to the diagonal matrices Λ_1 and Λ_5, they yield the initial matrices $\mathbf{P}_1$ and $\mathbf{P}_5$, as shown in eqns. (16)

$$\hat{\mathbf{P}}_1 = \mathbf{T}_5 \Lambda_1 \mathbf{T}_5^{-1} \approx \mathbf{P}_1$$
$$\hat{\mathbf{P}}_5 = \mathbf{T}_1 \Lambda_5 \mathbf{T}_1^{-1} \approx \mathbf{P}_5 \tag{16}$$

If the expressions (16) do not hold, the whole theory developed up to now is not valid. This would mean that the Markovian assumptions or some of the assumptions made for the matrices π and ρ are not justified. The accuracy of eqns. (16) therefore provides a measure of the validity of the model considered here.* The numerical expressions for $\hat{\mathbf{P}}$ and $\mathbf{P}$ are compared in the next section; at the moment it is sufficient to state that $\hat{\mathbf{P}}$ and $\mathbf{P}$ are close enough to suggest that the model is valid. The observed and estimated results are given in full in Appendix B.

Let $\lambda_i(\mathbf{P}_1)$ be the ith eigenvalue of $\mathbf{P}_1$ and $\lambda_i(\mathbf{P}_5)$ the ith eigenvalue of $\mathbf{P}_5$. Let ν_i be the ith eigenvalue of μ. Then the system of matrix equations (15) can be presented as the non-linear system of equations

$$\left.\begin{array}{l} \lambda_i(\mathbf{P}_1) = \alpha\, e^{\nu_i} + (1-\alpha)\, e^{k\nu_i} \\ \lambda_i(\mathbf{P}_5) = \alpha\, e^{5\nu_i} + (1-\alpha)\, e^{5k\nu_i} \end{array}\right\} \quad i = 1, 2, \ldots, n \tag{17}$$

The matrices $\mathbf{P}_1$ and $\mathbf{P}_5$ are stochastic. Therefore their largest eigenvalue is equal to unity and the corresponding eigenvalue of μ is equal to zero. Hence, two of

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* Some theoretical aspects of this approximation are considered in Appendix A.

the equations from system (17) must be excluded. The number of the equations will then decrease to $2n - 2$. At the same time, the number of unknowns is $n + 1$ (since for some i, $\nu_i = 0$), which is a substantial decrease when compared with the $n^2 + 2$ resulting from eqns. (14).

Let $n = 3$ (the case $n = 2$ is better handled by eqns. 14). There are 4 equations and 4 unknowns; therefore the system is well defined.

Let $n > 3$. There are then more equations than unknowns. Therefore, if the system is consistent, we can use the same method of solution as for $n = 3$.

The solution for the case $n = 3$ is considered below.

In order to simplify the notation, let $z_i = e^{\nu_i}$. Let $\lambda_1(\mathbf{P}_1)$ and $\lambda_1(\mathbf{P}_5)$ be equal to unity, hence $\nu_1 = 0$. Then eqns. (17) can be rewritten as

$$\left.\begin{array}{l} \lambda_i(\mathbf{P}_1) = \alpha z_i + (1 - \alpha)z_i^{k} \\ \lambda_i(\mathbf{P}_5) = \alpha z_i^5 + (1 - \alpha)z_i^{5k} \end{array}\right\} \quad i = 2, 3 \tag{18}$$

Let k be held fixed. System (18) can be rearranged as in eqns. (19)

$$\left.\begin{array}{l} \alpha = [\lambda_i(\mathbf{P}_1) - z_i^{k}]/(z_i - z_i^{k}) \\ \alpha = [\lambda_i(\mathbf{P}_5) - z_i^{5k}]/(z_i^5 - z_i^{5k}) \end{array}\right\} \quad i = 2, 3 \tag{19}$$

and hence

$$[\lambda_i(\mathbf{P}_1) - z_i^{k}]/(z_i - z_i^{k}) = [\lambda_i(\mathbf{P}_5) - z_i^{5k}]/(z_i^5 - z_i^{5k}) \qquad i = 2, 3$$

Note that the above equations are well defined, since the exclusion of the eigenvalue $\nu_1 = 0$ ensures that all the denominators are non-zero.

This leaves us with three unknowns: k, z_2, and z_3. An additional restriction is provided by the assumption that α does not depend on the regions. Therefore the solutions for z_2 and z_3 must be such that eqns. (19) yield the same value for α. The last condition is used to construct an algorithm for solving eqns. (18).

Step 1. Fix an arbitrary value for k such that $0 < k < 1$.
Step 2. Form the function

$$f(z_i) = [\lambda_i(\mathbf{P}_1) - z_i^{k}](z_i^5 - z_i^{5k}) - [\lambda_i(\mathbf{P}_5) - z_i^{5k}](z_i - z_i^{k})$$

for the given value of k.
Step 3. Find the roots of $f(z_i) = 0$ using the Newton–Raphson approximation

$$z_{n+1} = z_n - \frac{f(z_n)}{f'(z_n)}$$

starting with $z_0 = 0.01$. Recall that z_i is bounded in the interval $(0, 1)$ because $z_i = \exp(\nu_i)$ and $\nu_i < 0$.

Step 4. With the values of z_i, estimate α from eqns. (19). Let z_i provide an estimated value of α denoted by α_i.

Step 5. If $\alpha_2 \neq \alpha_3$, go back to Step 1. If $\alpha_2 = \alpha_3$ (up to a predefined tolerance level), the solution has been found.

The small initial value for z_0 is assumed in order to exclude the trivial root $z_i = 1$, which gives $1 = z_i = e^{\nu_i}$, i.e., $\nu_i = 0$.

The solution of eqns. (18) and the values of α, k, ν_2, and ν_3 can be used to construct the matrices $\boldsymbol{\pi}$ and $\boldsymbol{\rho}$. Thus the initial system (10) can be constructed numerically.

It is possible to find an approximate solution by minimizing a function F of four variables:

$$F(z_2, z_3, \alpha, k) = \sum_{i=2}^{3} \{[\lambda_i(\mathbf{P}_i) - \alpha z_i - (1-\alpha)z_i^k]^2$$

$$+ [\lambda_i(\mathbf{P}_5) - \alpha z_i^5 - (1-\alpha)z_i^{5k}]^2\}$$

This method of solution was found to give the same results as the one described above, and is to be preferred if library nonlinear-optimization routines are available.

3   NUMERICAL VERIFICATION

Consider the two matrices $\mathbf{P}_1$ and $\mathbf{P}_5$ for the group aged 15–19 years in the three regions of Great Britain considered in the first section. Let the effect of mortality be eliminated, so that the two matrices are stochastic, that is, with row elements summing to unity. Their numerical expressions are then

$$\mathbf{P}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 0.96614 & 0.01829 & 0.01556 \\ 0.00220 & 0.98320 & 0.01460 \\ 0.00114 & 0.00997 & 0.98889 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\mathbf{P}_5 = \begin{bmatrix} 0.90131 & 0.05361 & 0.04508 \\ 0.00706 & 0.95184 & 0.04109 \\ 0.00308 & 0.03056 & 0.96635 \end{bmatrix}$$

The eigenvalues are: $\lambda_1(\mathbf{P}_1) = 1$; $\lambda_2(\mathbf{P}_1) = 0.96405$; $\lambda_3(\mathbf{P}_1) = 0.97419$; $\lambda_1(\mathbf{P}_5) = 1$; $\lambda_2(\mathbf{P}_5) = 0.89477$; $\lambda_3(\mathbf{P}_5) = 0.92473$.

The eigenvalues of each matrix are different, and therefore the eigenvectors are also different. The eigenvectors define the diagonalization transformations.

The system (15) now becomes

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1.0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0.96405 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0.97419 \end{bmatrix} = \alpha \exp \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \nu_2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \nu_3 \end{bmatrix} + (1-\alpha) \exp \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & k\nu_2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & k\nu_3 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1.0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0.89477 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0.92473 \end{bmatrix} = \alpha \exp \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 5\nu_2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 5\nu_3 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$+ (1-\alpha) \exp \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 5k\nu_2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 5k\nu_3 \end{bmatrix}$$

The equivalent of system (18), after removing the two trivial equalities, is

$$0.96405 = \alpha\, e^{\nu_2} + (1 - \alpha)\, e^{k\nu_2}$$

$$0.97419 = \alpha\, e^{\nu_3} + (1 - \alpha)\, e^{k\nu_3}$$

$$0.89477 = \alpha\, e^{5\nu_2} + (1 - \alpha)\, e^{5k\nu_2}$$

$$0.92473 = \alpha\, e^{5\nu_3} + (1 - \alpha)\, e^{5k\nu_3}$$

(18a)

We now search for a solution for α, k, ν_2, and ν_3. Replacing e^{ν_2} by z_2 and e^{ν_3} by z_3, system (18a) yields

$$\hat{\alpha}_2 = \frac{0.96405 - z_2^k}{z_2 - z_2^k} \qquad \hat{\alpha}_3 = \frac{0.97419 - z_3^k}{z_3 - z_3^k}$$

$$\hat{\alpha}_2 = \frac{0.89477 - z_2^{5k}}{z_2^5 - z_2^{5k}} \qquad \hat{\alpha}_3 = \frac{0.92473 - z_3^{5k}}{z_3^5 - z_3^{5k}}$$

(19a)

The algorithm at the end of the previous section was then applied. The unique value $k = 0.01$ was found to give $\hat{\alpha}_2 = \hat{\alpha}_3 = \alpha$. For this k, $\alpha = 0.0233$, $\nu_2 = -1.6848$, and $\nu_3 = -1.0051$ ($\nu_i = \ln z_i$).

The values of α and k imply that 2.3% of the group aged 15–19 have a "force" of migration one hundred times greater than that of the remaining 97.7% in this age group. Note that this large difference in the intensities or "force" of migration does not imply the same difference in the probabilities of migration! The probabilities of migration may be deduced from system (10) once π_1 and ρ_1 have been calculated using the relations

$$\pi_1 = e^{\mu}$$

$$\rho_1 = e^{k\mu}$$

(20)

Note that if P_1 is diagonalized by the transformation T_1, π_1 and ρ_1 are diagonalized by the same transformation (π_1 and ρ_1 are *related*). Then eqn. (20) yields

$$\text{diag}\,(\pi_1) = T_1^{-1}\pi_1 T_1 = T_1^{-1}\, e^{\mu}\, T_1 = e^{\nu}$$

$$\text{diag}\,(\rho_1) = T_1^{-1}\rho_1 T_1 = e^{k\nu}$$

Then

$$\text{diag}\,(\pi_1) = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & e^{\nu_2} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & e^{\nu_3} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\text{diag}\,(\rho_1) = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & e^{k\nu_2} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & e^{k\nu_3} \end{bmatrix}$$

π_1 and ρ_1 can be found from the last two expressions by applying the reverse transformations

$$\pi_1 = T_1\, \text{diag}\,(\pi_1) T_1^{-1}$$

$$\rho_1 = T_1\, \text{diag}\,(\rho_1) T_1^{-1}$$

The estimated values for π_1 and ρ_1 are

$$\pi_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 0.23138 & 0.38506 & 0.38360 \\ 0.04575 & 0.58615 & 0.36809 \\ 0.02863 & 0.25083 & 0.72054 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\rho_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 0.98373 & 0.00952 & 0.00675 \\ 0.00116 & 0.99271 & 0.00614 \\ 0.00048 & 0.00421 & 0.99531 \end{bmatrix}$$

While ρ_1 has a similar structure to $\mathbf{P}_1$, this is not true of π_1. The elements on the main diagonal of π_1 reflect the probabilities that the high-intensity movers will remain in the same region for one year. The values are much lower than the typical values for an average population. Note that these probabilities are very dependent on the size of the regional population; this explains why the comparatively small region of East Anglia is connected with high out-migration probabilities.

The following expressions may be derived for $(\pi_1)^5$ and $(\rho_1)^5$:

$$(\pi_1)^5 = \mathbf{T}_1 \, \mathrm{diag}\,[(\pi_1)^5]\mathbf{T}_1^{-1}$$

$$(\rho_1)^5 = \mathbf{T}_1 \, \mathrm{diag}\,[(\rho_1)^5]\mathbf{T}_1^{-1}$$

where

$$\mathrm{diag}\,[(\pi_1)^5] = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & e^{5\nu_2} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & e^{5\nu_3} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\mathrm{diag}\,[(\rho_1)^5] = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & e^{5k\nu_2} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & e^{5k\nu_3} \end{bmatrix}$$

Using the expression

$$\mathbf{P}_5(x) = \alpha[\pi_1(x)]^5 + (1-\alpha)[\rho_1(x)]^5$$

where $x = 15$, we obtain the final numerical estimate of $\mathbf{P}_5(15)$

$$\mathbf{P}_5(15) = \begin{bmatrix} 0.90092 & 0.05367 & 0.04541 \\ 0.00645 & 0.95098 & 0.04257 \\ 0.00332 & 0.02909 & 0.96760 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= 0.0233 \begin{bmatrix} 0.04468 & 0.38844 & 0.56692 \\ 0.04450 & 0.38908 & 0.56640 \\ 0.04397 & 0.38425 & 0.57179 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$+ 0.9767 \begin{bmatrix} 0.92142 & 0.04566 & 0.03292 \\ 0.00554 & 0.96443 & 0.03003 \\ 0.00234 & 0.02058 & 0.97707 \end{bmatrix}$$

Using the expression

$$\mathbf{P}_1(x) = \alpha\pi_1(x) + (1-\alpha)\rho_1(x)$$

where $x = 15$, we obtain the final numerical estimate of $\mathbf{P}_1(15)$

$$\mathbf{P}_1(15) = \begin{bmatrix} 0.96614 & 0.01830 & 0.01556 \\ 0.00220 & 0.98320 & 0.01460 \\ 0.00114 & 0.00997 & 0.98889 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= 0.0233 \begin{bmatrix} 0.23138 & 0.38506 & 0.38360 \\ 0.04575 & 0.58615 & 0.36809 \\ 0.02863 & 0.25083 & 0.72054 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$+ 0.9767 \begin{bmatrix} 0.98373 & 0.00952 & 0.00675 \\ 0.00116 & 0.99271 & 0.00614 \\ 0.00048 & 0.00421 & 0.99531 \end{bmatrix}$$

Note that the estimated matrix $\mathbf{P}_5(15)$ is very close to the observed matrix $\mathbf{P}_5(15)$ given at the beginning of Section 3, while the estimated and observed matrices $\mathbf{P}_1(15)$ are exactly the same.

The matrix $[\boldsymbol{\pi}_1(15)]^5$ in the numerical expression for $\mathbf{P}_5(15)$ above is of particular interest because each column contains three numbers which are approximately equal. This is a consequence of the fact that $\boldsymbol{\pi}_1$ refers to the group with an intensity of migration approximately one hundred times greater than that of the other group. Since $[\boldsymbol{\pi}_1]^\tau = e^{\mu\tau}$ and $[\boldsymbol{\rho}_1]^\tau = e^{k\mu\tau}$, both processes tend to the same asymptote, but the first approaches it much more quickly. This is illustrated in Figure 2, where $[\mathbf{a}]_{ij}$ denotes an element from the ith row and jth column of a matrix $\mathbf{a}$.
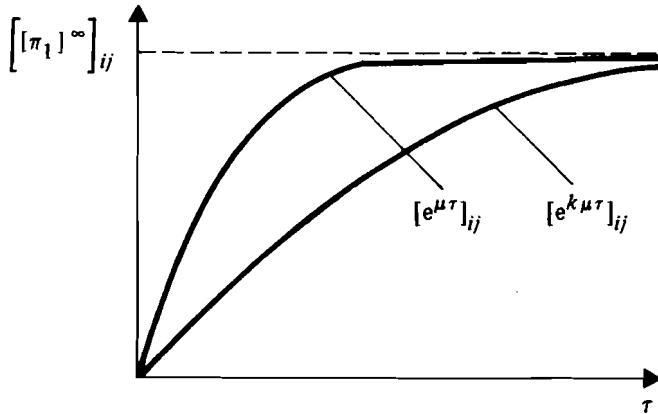
FIGURE 2   Asymptotic behavior of $e^{\mu\tau}$ and $e^{k\mu\tau}$.

$[\boldsymbol{\pi}_1]^5$ is seen to be very close to the asymptotic distribution described by $[\boldsymbol{\pi}_1]^\infty$. But $[\boldsymbol{\pi}_1]^\infty$ defines the stable state of the high-intensity movers, and therefore, even if this part of the population is not stable in the initial period of time, it should reach spatial stability over a period of 5–10 years. Since real demographic processes are quite homogeneous over such a short period of time, it is reasonable to suppose that the spatial distribution of the high-intensity movers is approximately stable at the initial point of time.

Because the matrices $\mathbf{P}_1$, π_1 and ρ_1 are related, $\mathbf{P}_1^\infty = \pi_1^\infty = \rho_1^\infty$. This proves that the process described by the high- and low-intensity movers model retains the important demographic properties of stabilization and ergodicity, although the model is not Markovian.

Only one age group (15–19 years) has been considered up to now. We therefore decided to repeat the procedure for the other fourteen age groups, solving system (18) with respect to α, k, ν_2, and ν_3 using the algorithm described earlier in this paper. The method of solution failed twice, for the age groups 50–54 and 70–74, although the solutions obtained for ages greater than 50 were generally not satisfactory. The results are shown in Table 4.

It is believed that this procedure gives bad results for the older population primarily because of the method of solution. When trying to solve system (18) for ages greater than 50, it was observed that α and k tended to zero. However, as $k \to 0$ the high- and low-intensity movers model tends to the mover–stayer model, and $\alpha \to 0$ reduces it still further to a Markovian process. It is therefore possible that the more sophisticated estimation procedures employed in the high- and low-intensity movers model are more inaccurate than those used in the simpler models when the migration movements are very low. This could explain to some extent the differences between the solutions for the age groups 45–49 and under and 55–59 and over.

Consideration of the values of α, k, ν_2, and ν_3 for the first ten age groups in Table 4 leads to the following conclusions:

1. The values of k are quite similar, the mean being 0.01202.
2. The values of α generate a curve which resembles a migration curve. [Different migration schedules for Great Britain are given in Rees (1979b).]
3. The absolute values of each of the ν_i also generate a curve resembling a migration curve, although the resemblance is not as close as for the curve generated by α.

These features can be used in the implementation of the model, which is discussed in the next section.

TABLE 4   Values of α, k, ν_2, and ν_3 for different age groups.

Age group	α	k	ν_2	ν_3
0–4	0.03156	0.01279	−1.35706	−0.62757
5–9	0.02014	0.01280	−1.11350	−0.59498
10–14	0.01519	0.01311	−0.92648	−0.54148
15–19	0.02338	0.01045	−1.67540	−1.04744
20–24	0.04147	0.00787	−2.72179	−1.62251
25–29	0.04166	0.01436	−1.35777	−0.78607
30–34	0.02259	0.01248	−1.33867	−0.82405
35–39	0.02244	0.01286	−0.91052	−0.53732
40–44	0.01020	0.01000	−1.02088	−0.66838
45–49	0.01601	0.01350	−0.51931	−0.34236
50–54[a]	—	—	—	—
55–59	0.00288	0.001830	−2.05199	−3.57241
60–64	0.00336	0.002410	−1.53867	−3.01742
65–69	0.00972	0.007235	−0.44394	−0.78785
70–74[a]	—	—	—	—

[a] Solution not found.

4 IMPLEMENTATION OF THE MODEL

The previous two sections described the mathematical and numerical aspects of the high- and low-intensity movers model. The numerical results justify the assumptions made, and therefore verify the model itself. However, the numerical results were derived from two sets of data—one-year and five-year observations—both disaggregated by age.

In the general case, we must assume that only one set of data is available, and then use it to obtain approximations for the other set. Since one-year data are usually available in most countries, we will assume these to be given. Before considering the numerical results any further, however, the theoretical background must be developed.

In Section 2 it is shown that starting with the matrix equation

$$\mathbf{P}_1(x) = \alpha(x)\boldsymbol{\pi}_1(x) + [1 - \alpha(x)]\boldsymbol{\rho}_1(x)$$

it is possible to construct the system of scalar equations

$$\begin{aligned}\lambda_2(\mathbf{P}_1) &= \alpha\ e^{\nu_2} + (1 - \alpha)\ e^{k\nu_2} \\ \lambda_3(\mathbf{P}_1) &= \alpha\ e^{\nu_3} + (1 - \alpha)\ e^{k\nu_3}\end{aligned} \tag{21}$$

omitting the dependence on age x for clarity. System (21) contains two equations and four unknowns, α, k, ν_2, and ν_3; two of the unknowns must therefore be specified exogenously. This is in fact the basis for the implementation of the model.

Recalling the conclusions drawn from Table 4 at the end of the previous section, it seems reasonable to search for values of α and k which might be applicable to the total population aggregated by age (α_{tot} and k_{tot}, respectively). Then two approaches are possible: keep these values constant for all ages, or disaggregate them in accordance with the results from Table 4 [i.e., k_{tot} may be kept constant, and α_{tot} may be used to generate a set $\alpha(x)$ for all x, such that the $\alpha(x)$ form a curve similar to that of the observed migration rates, and the arithmetic mean of $\alpha(x)$ is equal to α_{tot}].

In either case, it is only necessary to obtain values for α_{tot} and k_{tot}. The derivation of these values will be discussed later in this section, but for the moment let us suppose they are available. In this case, k_{tot} and α_{tot}, or $\alpha(x)$, can be used to solve system (21) for $\nu_2(x)$ and $\nu_3(x)$. System (22) can then be solved with respect to the unknowns $\lambda_2(\mathbf{P}_5)$ and $\lambda_3(\mathbf{P}_5)$

$$\begin{aligned}\lambda_2(\mathbf{P}_5) &= \alpha\ e^{5\nu_2} + (1 - \alpha)\ e^{5k\nu_2} \\ \lambda_3(\mathbf{P}_5) &= \alpha\ e^{5\nu_3} + (1 - \alpha)\ e^{5k\nu_3}\end{aligned} \tag{22}$$

where the dependence on age x is again omitted. The diagonalized matrix $\Lambda_5 = \text{diag}\,(\mathbf{P}_5)$ therefore becomes available since it is already known that $\lambda_1(\mathbf{P}_5) = 1$. In order to find $\mathbf{P}_5$ it is necessary to know its diagonalizing transformation. But the discussion here suggests that $\mathbf{P}_5$ is a function of $\mathbf{P}_1$, i.e., $\mathbf{P}_5 = f(\mathbf{P}_1)$, where the function $f(\cdot)$ may be deduced from system (10). Therefore, $\mathbf{T}_1$ must diagonalize $\mathbf{P}_5$ and hence

$$\mathbf{P}_5 = \mathbf{T}_1\Lambda_5\mathbf{T}_1^{-1} \tag{23}$$

Note that eqn. (23) implies $\mathbf{T}_1 = \mathbf{T}_5$. This equality was discussed on page 10, and it was concluded that it should be approximately true (Appendix B). This then

implies that eqn. (23) is also an approximation. According to the structure of the model, this approximation should yield better results than those discussed in the first section.

It is still unclear how values for α and k may be obtained, even for the total population. One possible method is to look at sociological studies: α can be deduced from information on which section of the population migrates more frequently, and k can be estimated from discussions of the difference in migration frequency between the two groups. (It should be borne in mind that k indicates differences in the intensity, and not the probability, of migration.)

However, there is another, more preferable, way of deriving α and k. Many countries hold censuses or enquiries every five or ten years, and these yield data on interregional migration flows aggregated by age (the migration-flow matrix). Since the mid-period multiregional population data are usually available, it is possible to estimate a matrix of origin–destination migration rates for the total population, aggregated by age. Let this matrix be $\mathbf{M}_5(\text{tot})$. The numerical form of $\mathbf{M}_5(\text{tot})$ for Great Britain was estimated to be

$$\mathbf{M}_5(\text{tot}) = \begin{bmatrix} 0.92659 & 0.03618 & 0.03724 \\ 0.00694 & 0.95628 & 0.03678 \\ 0.00267 & 0.01750 & 0.97982 \end{bmatrix} \tag{24a}$$

The corresponding matrix for a one-year period is

$$\mathbf{M}_1(\text{tot}) = \begin{bmatrix} 0.97494 & 0.01290 & 0.01217 \\ 0.00214 & 0.98606 & 0.01180 \\ 0.00075 & 0.00581 & 0.99344 \end{bmatrix} \tag{24b}$$

Note that these matrices have the same structure as those given at the beginning of Section 3. Their eigenvalues are: $\lambda_1(\mathbf{M}_5) = 1$; $\lambda_2(\mathbf{M}_5) = 0.91973$; $\lambda_3(\mathbf{M}_5) = 0.94296$; $\lambda_1(\mathbf{M}_1) = 1$; $\lambda_2(\mathbf{M}_1) = 0.97286$; $\lambda_3(\mathbf{M}_1) = 0.98159$. Applying the procedures described in Section 3, the unknown parameters are found to have the values

$$\alpha_{\text{tot}} = 0.02198, \qquad k_{\text{tot}} = 0.01049,$$
$$\nu_2(\text{tot}) = -1.1735 \qquad \nu_3(\text{tot}) = -0.7092 \tag{25}$$

These values will be used to derive the age-specific migration-rate matrices, $\mathbf{M}_5(x)$. This can be done in two different ways. First, the parameters α and k are kept constant at the values given in eqns. (25) for all x. Consider the case when $x = 15$. New values for ν_2 and ν_3 may be estimated from system (21). In a similar way, values for $\lambda_2[\mathbf{M}_5(15)]$ and $\lambda_3[\mathbf{M}_5(15)]$ (0.89003 and 0.92254, respectively) are calculated using system (22). The diagonalized matrix $\Lambda_5(15) = \text{diag}[\mathbf{M}_5(15)]$ then becomes available, since $\lambda_1[\mathbf{M}_5(15)] = 1$. Finally, the transformation $\mathbf{T}_1(15)$, which diagonalizes $\mathbf{M}_1(15)$, may be used to obtain $\mathbf{M}_5(15)$

$$\mathbf{M}_5(15) = \mathbf{T}_1(15)\Lambda_5(15)\mathbf{T}_1^{-1}(15) = \begin{bmatrix} 0.89647 & 0.05640 & 0.04714 \\ 0.00679 & 0.94911 & 0.04411 \\ 0.00343 & 0.03015 & 0.96642 \end{bmatrix} \tag{26a}$$

The second way of deriving the matrices $\mathbf{M}_5(x)$ for each x is to keep k constant at k_{tot} once again, but to use α_{tot} and the observed migration schedules to yield values

$\alpha(x)$ for each x. Suppose that the migration schedule is given by the age-specific rates $m_1(x)$, which can be estimated at the national level. Let n be the number of age groups. Then, from the expressions for the means

$$\sum_x [m_1(x)]/n = m_1, \qquad \sum_x [\alpha(x)]/n = \alpha_{tot}$$

we obtain

$$\alpha(x) = \alpha_{tot} m_1(x)/m_1$$

For $x = 15$, $\alpha(15)$ was estimated to be 0.03404. This value of α and k_{tot} from eqns. (25) were used to derive the matrix

$$\mathbf{M}_5(15) = \begin{bmatrix} 0.91063 & 0.04545 & 0.04294 \\ 0.00555 & 0.95367 & 0.04078 \\ 0.00317 & 0.02783 & 0.96900 \end{bmatrix} \tag{26b}$$

Each of the matrices in eqns. (26a) or (26b) can be rearranged as on p. 1, and then substituted into eqn. (2), which yields the desired matrix $\mathbf{P}_5(15)$. The results obtained are given in Table 5.

TABLE 5   Approximate probabilities of a person at exact age 15 in one of three regions of Great Britain living in the same or another region five years later. Calculated using eqns. (26a) and (26b).

Region of origin	Probability of living in region			Probability of death
	East Anglia	South East	Rest	
Calculated using eqn. (26a)				
East Anglia	0.898531	0.052791	0.045082	0.003595
South East	0.006347	0.948149	0.042336	0.003168
Rest of Britain	0.003291	0.028926	0.964532	0.003251
Calculated using eqn. (26b)				
East Anglia	0.911296	0.043880	0.041226	0.003598
South East	0.005237	0.952348	0.039248	0.003167
Rest of Britain	0.003050	0.026778	0.966927	0.003251

Both methods yield estimated probabilities very close to the probabilities calculated using eqn. (2) and shown in Table 1, and produce much better results than eqn. (1) (also shown in Table 1). It is worth noting that α_{tot} gives better results than $\alpha(x)$ even though the numerical values of the $\alpha(x)$ are substantially different. This shows that the high- and low-intensity movers model is relatively insensitive to the values of its parameters.

Table 6 gives the expectations of life at age 15 estimated using eqns. (26a) and (26b) as described above.

Again, in both cases, the results are very close to the values calculated using eqn. (2) given in Table 2, and α_{tot} yields better results than $\alpha(x)$.

These numerical results have been calculated using data for age 15, but the general conclusions are also valid for all other ages. For convenience to the reader,

TABLE 6 Distribution of expectations of life at exact age 15 in three regions of Great Britain.
Calculated using eqns. (26a) and (26b).

| Region of origin | Number of years spent in region | | | Total |
	East Anglia	South East	Rest	
Calculated using eqn. (26a)				
East Anglia	27.69	14.69	17.25	59.63
South East	2.33	40.65	16.47	59.45
Rest of Britain	1.17	8.52	49.07	58.76
Calculated using eqn. (26b)				
East Anglia	30.40	13.03	16.25	59.68
South East	2.11	41.91	15.45	59.47
Rest of Britain	1.11	7.86	49.77	58.74

the complete set of expectations of life is given in Appendix D, together with the levels of migration. The latter are the regional distributions of life expectancy at age 0, and represent a measure of the accuracy of the approximations made in the various methods (see the introductory remarks to Appendix D).

We conclude that the model suggested here provides a reasonable approximation to the problem considered. A number of assumptions were made in order to find a solution, but it has been shown that these assumptions are justified. The assumption that certain variables, α and k, are independent of the regions of origin or destination may be used to show that differences in the population arising from the interpretation of α and k do not depend on regional factors.

The fact that the transformations T_1 and T_5 are approximately equal may be interpreted as a preserved ranking in the attraction of the regions for migrants. That is, the magnitude of the migration flows between various regions may be different in different periods of time, but their relative proportions will remain the same.

Finally, the fact that α and k are almost independent of the age groups was unexpected, but it has its demographic or social interpretation: the differences between the age-specific migration curves of "chronic" migrants and those of "all" migrants are insignificant when considering the one-year/five-year migration problem.

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APPENDIX A

In the text it was shown that the empirical transition matrices $\mathbf{P}_1$ and $\mathbf{P}_5$ can be diagonalized by approximately equal matrices $\mathbf{T}_1$ and $\mathbf{T}_5$, such that

$$\mathbf{P}_1 \approx \mathbf{T}_5^{-1}(\mathbf{T}_1\mathbf{P}_1\mathbf{T}_1^{-1})\mathbf{T}_5 \qquad (A1)$$

$$\mathbf{P}_5 \approx \mathbf{T}_1^{-1}(\mathbf{T}_5\mathbf{P}_5\mathbf{T}_5^{-1})\mathbf{T}_1 \qquad (A2)$$

This empirical fact led to the conclusion that the $n(n-1)$-dimensional problem of estimating the five-year transition matrix from the one-year matrix (or vice versa) can be reduced to the $(n-1)$-dimensional problem of estimating the eigenvalues $\lambda_i(\mathbf{P}_5)$ [or $\lambda_i(\mathbf{P}_1)$], $i = 2, 3, \ldots, n$; $\lambda_1 = 1$. Further, we will consider only the case when all the λ_i are real and positive. For simplicity let $n = 3$. This case is presented graphically in Figure A1.

If the matrices $\mathbf{P}_1$ and $\mathbf{P}_5$ are known, it is then necessary to describe the empirical points $[1, \lambda_2(1), \lambda_2(5)]$ and $[1, \lambda_3(1), \lambda_3(5)]$ as functions of time.

In this paper we suggested making use of the approximating function

$$\lambda_i(\tau) = \alpha\,e^{\tau\nu_i} + (1-\alpha)\,e^{\tau k\nu_i} \qquad (A3)$$
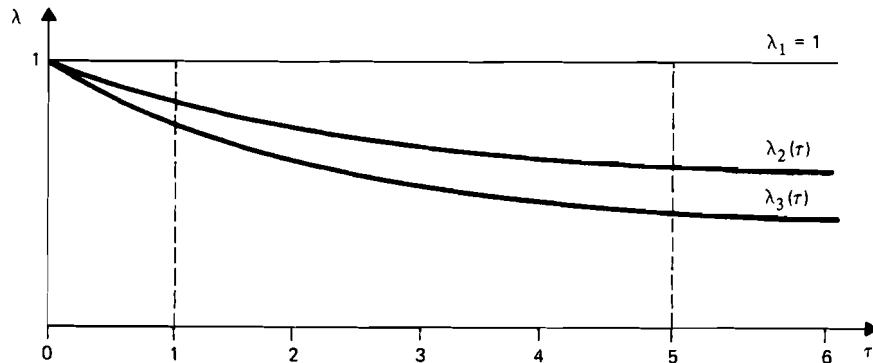
FIGURE A1   Dependence of eigenvalues λ of a transition matrix on time τ.

where α and k are known (or can be found from aggregate data, in which case they will also be approximated).

Decreasing the dimension of the problem from $n(n-1)$ to $(n-1)$ inevitably presents additional theoretical difficulties. In this case, the problems are

1. Is it always possible to solve eqn. (A3) for $\tau = 1$ if α and k are given?
2. Are 1, e^{ν_2}, and e^{ν_3} eigenvalues of any stochastic matrix?
3. Are 1, e^{ν_2}, and e^{ν_3} eigenvalues of any continuous-time Markovian transition matrix?
4. Are 1, e^{ν_2}, and e^{ν_3} eigenvalues of any stochastic matrix which can be diagonalized by a given transformation T_1?

The answers to these questions are given below.

1. *Equation (A3) has a unique non-negative solution.* It is easy to see that the function

$$f(\nu) = \alpha \, e^{\nu} + (1-\alpha) \, e^{k\nu}$$

is monotonically decreasing, $f(0) = 1$, $\lim_{\nu \to -\infty} f(\nu) = 0$, and, hence, for $0 < \lambda \leq 1$, the equation $f(\nu) = \lambda$ has a unique non-negative solution.

2. *Theorem.* (Suleimanova 1949). The set of $n+1$ real numbers $\{1, \lambda_2, \lambda_3, \ldots, \lambda_n\}$, where $|\lambda_i| < 1$ for $i = 2, 3, \ldots, n$ is a set of eigenvalues of a positive stochastic matrix provided that the sum of the modulus of the negative numbers of the set is less than unity.

3. The problem of representing some stochastic matrix as a continuous-time Markovian transition matrix (embedding problem) can be avoided by considering an integer $1/k$ and discrete time. The necessary conditions for such embedding can be found in Singer and Spilerman (1976).

4. If the transformation T_1 of the matrix P_1 is such that λ_1 is equal to 1, then it is easy to show that the matrix

$$\pi = T_1^{-1} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & & & & \\ & e^{\nu_2} & & & \\ & & e^{\nu_3} & & \\ & & & \ddots & \\ & & & & e^{\nu_n} \end{pmatrix} T_1 \qquad\qquad (A4)$$

has the property $\sum_{i=1}^{n} \pi_{ij} = 1$. This is so because the eigenvector corresponding to λ_1 has components always equal to $(1, 1, 1, \ldots, 1)$. It is necessary only to check whether $\pi > 0$.

Empirical results show that in our case π is always positive and hence stochastic. In the general case it is necessary to prove that the transformation

$$\rho^{-1}(\mathbf{P})$$

where

$$\rho(x) = \alpha x + (1 - \alpha)x^k$$

leaves the matrix π positive, where

$$\pi = \rho^{-1}(\mathbf{P})$$

and this problem is still unresolved.

APPENDIX B

This Appendix contains data which verify the assumption that the transition matrices $\mathbf{P}_1(x)$ and $\mathbf{P}_5(x)$ can be diagonalized by the same transformation matrix $\mathbf{T}(x)$ for each age group. The following matrices are compared:

$\mathbf{P}_5$ (five-year observed migration probabilities)

$\hat{\mathbf{P}}_5 = \mathbf{T}_1 \Lambda_5 \mathbf{T}_1^{-1}$ (five-year estimated migration probabilities)

$\mathbf{P}_1$ (one-year observed migration probabilities)

$\hat{\mathbf{P}}_1 = \mathbf{T}_5 \Lambda_1 \mathbf{T}_5^{-1}$ (one-year estimated migration probabilities)

Migration probabilities calculated using the "Markovian" approximation

$$\mathbf{P}_5 = (\mathbf{P}_1)^5$$

$$\mathbf{P}_1 = (\mathbf{P}_5)^{1/5}$$

are also given (fifth degree and fifth root).

age group 1 (0–4 years)

five-year obs.			five-year est.			fifth degree		
0.88975	0.05502	0.05523	0.88912	0.05138	0.05950	0.82383	0.08312	0.09305
0.00893	0.94485	0.04623	0.00916	0.94525	0.04559	0.01490	0.91527	0.06983
0.00447	0.01899	0.97654	0.00314	0.02010	0.97677	0.00484	0.03087	0.96430

one-year obs.			one-year est.			fifth root		
0.96181	0.01835	0.01984	0.96203	0.01975	0.01823	0.97671	0.01091	0.01238
0.00331	0.98213	0.01456	0.00318	0.98200	0.01481	0.00195	0.98868	0.00937
0.00102	0.00646	0.99253	0.00149	0.00606	0.99244	0.00065	0.00414	0.99522

age group 2 (5–9 years)

five-year obs.			five-year est.			fifth degree		
0.91464	0.03916	0.04620	0.91401	0.04079	0.04520	0.87660	0.05936	0.06404
0.00720	0.95475	0.03805	0.00639	0.95703	0.03658	0.00932	0.93954	0.05114
0.00259	0.01564	0.98178	0.00277	0.01710	0.98013	0.00391	0.02394	0.97216

one-year obs.			one-year est.			fifth root		
0.97393	0.01269	0.01338	0.97413	0.01222	0.01365	0.98215	0.00854	0.00932
0.00200	0.98745	0.01056	0.00226	0.98676	0.01098	0.00134	0.99118	0.00748
0.00081	0.00495	0.99424	0.00075	0.00453	0.99472	0.00057	0.00350	0.99593

age group 3 (10–14 years)

five-year obs.			five-year est.			fifth degree		
0.92914	0.03458	0.03628	0.92893	0.03424	0.03683	0.90449	0.04674	0.04877
0.00570	0.96346	0.03084	0.00540	0.96311	0.03149	0.00740	0.95134	0.04127
0.00227	0.01593	0.98181	0.00233	0.01530	0.98237	0.00307	0.02007	0.97686

one-year obs.			one-year est.			fifth root		
0.98008	0.00984	0.01008	0.98014	0.00993	0.00993	0.98534	0.00711	0.00755
0.00156	0.98997	0.00847	0.00164	0.99006	0.00830	0.00112	0.99245	0.00642
0.00063	0.00412	0.99525	0.00061	0.00429	0.99509	0.00048	0.00312	0.99640

age group 4 (15–19 years)

five-year obs.			five-year est.			fifth degree		
0.89593	0.05704	0.04704	0.89551	0.05717	0.04733	0.83971	0.08572	0.07457
0.00755	0.94978	0.04267	0.00688	0.94890	0.04421	0.01030	0.91949	0.07021
0.00318	0.03178	0.96504	0.00344	0.03023	0.96634	0.00548	0.04795	0.94657

one-year obs.			one-year est.			fifth root		
0.96553	0.01869	0.01578	0.96567	0.01866	0.01566	0.97812	0.01208	0.00981
0.00225	0.98296	0.01479	0.00246	0.98326	0.01427	0.00146	0.98941	0.00913
0.00115	0.01010	0.98874	0.00107	0.01062	0.98831	0.00071	0.00625	0.99305

age group 5 (20–24 years)

five-year obs.			five-year est.			fifth degree		
0.86049	0.07308	0.06643	0.86276	0.07901	0.05823	0.74953	0.13111	0.11936
0.01060	0.92992	0.05948	0.01089	0.92545	0.06366	0.01763	0.85576	0.12662
0.00410	0.04145	0.95445	0.00345	0.03990	0.95665	0.00768	0.07882	0.91350

one-year obs.			one-year est.			fifth root		
0.94359	0.03039	0.02601	0.94287	0.02865	0.02849	0.97080	0.01709	0.01211
0.00412	0.96806	0.02782	0.00405	0.96979	0.02617	0.00236	0.98432	0.01332
0.00164	0.01735	0.98101	0.00188	0.01810	0.98002	0.00071	0.00836	0.99093

age group 6 (25–29 years)

five-year obs.			five-year est.			fifth degree		
0.87004	0.06207	0.06790	0.86996	0.06733	0.06271	0.78704	0.11137	0.10159
0.01085	0.92755	0.06160	0.00967	0.92711	0.06322	0.01602	0.88154	0.10244
0.00384	0.03156	0.96460	0.00404	0.03085	0.96512	0.00654	0.05000	0.94346

one-year obs.			one-year est.			fifth root		
0.95297	0.02530	0.02173	0.95298	0.02318	0.02384	0.97244	0.01451	0.01306
0.00365	0.97442	0.02193	0.00411	0.97457	0.02132	0.00209	0.98474	0.01317
0.00139	0.01071	0.98790	0.00130	0.01098	0.98772	0.00084	0.00643	0.99273

age group 7 (30–34 years)

five-year obs.			five-year est.			fifth degree		
0.90142	0.04568	0.05290	0.90127	0.04661	0.05212	0.85469	0.06812	0.07719
0.00842	0.94319	0.04839	0.00825	0.94423	0.04751	0.01204	0.91742	0.07054
0.00293	0.02177	0.97530	0.00295	0.02263	0.97441	0.00440	0.03357	0.96203

one-year obs.			one-year est.			fifth root		
0.96897	0.01478	0.01625	0.96903	0.01449	0.01648	0.97938	0.00984	0.01079
0.00263	0.98262	0.01476	0.00268	0.98230	0.01503	0.00175	0.98846	0.00979
0.00091	0.00703	0.99205	0.00090	0.00677	0.99233	0.00061	0.00467	0.99472

age group 8 (35–39 years)

five-year obs.			five-year est.			fifth degree		
0.92492	0.03457	0.04051	0.92414	0.03547	0.04039	0.88834	0.05373	0.05793
0.00659	0.95708	0.03634	0.00582	0.95937	0.03481	0.00890	0.94221	0.04890
0.00223	0.01636	0.98141	0.00246	0.01763	0.97990	0.00347	0.02485	0.97168

one-year obs.			one-year est.			fifth root		
0.97654	0.01141	0.01205	0.97681	0.01118	0.01200	0.98432	0.00738	0.00830
0.00190	0.98801	0.01009	0.00217	0.98730	0.01054	0.00121	0.99167	0.00712
0.00072	0.00513	0.99415	0.00063	0.00478	0.99459	0.00050	0.00361	0.99589

age group 9 (40–44 years)

five-year obs.			five-year est.			fifth degree		
0.94373	0.02775	0.02853	0.94308	0.02762	0.02930	0.92505	0.03651	0.03844
0.00541	0.96619	0.02839	0.00504	0.96742	0.02753	0.00669	0.95723	0.03608
0.00224	0.01291	0.98485	0.00189	0.01383	0.98428	0.00249	0.01813	0.97939

one-year obs.			one-year est.			fifth root		
0.98451	0.00761	0.00788	0.98469	0.00766	0.00765	0.98833	0.00569	0.00597
0.00140	0.99122	0.00739	0.00149	0.99089	0.00762	0.00104	0.99335	0.00560
0.00051	0.00371	0.99578	0.00060	0.00347	0.99594	0.00038	0.00282	0.99680

age group 10 (45–49 years)

five-year obs.			five-year est.			fifth degree		
0.95535	0.02340	0.02125	0.95530	0.02250	0.02222	0.94190	0.03100	0.02710
0.00482	0.97118	0.02401	0.00444	0.96985	0.02572	0.00614	0.96158	0.03228
0.00238	0.01038	0.98724	0.00138	0.01000	0.98862	0.00166	0.01257	0.98576

one-year obs.			one-year est.			fifth root		
0.98808	0.00642	0.00550	0.98806	0.00666	0.00528	0.99089	0.00462	0.00450
0.00127	0.99215	0.00658	0.00136	0.99251	0.00613	0.00091	0.99387	0.00522
0.00034	0.00256	0.99710	0.00060	0.00264	0.99675	0.00028	0.00203	0.99769

age group 11 (50–54 years)

five-year obs.			five-year est.			fifth degree		
0.96875	0.01678	0.01448	0.96408	0.01508	0.02084	0.93340	0.03557	0.03103
0.00441	0.97358	0.02201	0.00242	0.97688	0.02070	0.00586	0.96359	0.03055
0.00227	0.00797	0.98976	0.00110	0.00777	0.99113	0.00153	0.01158	0.98689

one-year obs.			one-year est.			fifth root		
0.98629	0.00739	0.00632	0.98900	0.00864	0.00236	0.99271	0.00308	0.00422
0.00122	0.99256	0.00622	0.00207	0.99038	0.00755	0.00049	0.99532	0.00419
0.00031	0.00236	0.99733	0.00060	0.00258	0.99682	0.00022	0.00157	0.99821

age group 12 (55–59 years)

five-year obs.			five-year est.			fifth degree		
0.97825	0.01158	0.01016	0.97524	0.01531	0.00945	0.96624	0.01810	0.01565
0.00516	0.97224	0.02260	0.00491	0.97452	0.02058	0.00574	0.96667	0.02759
0.00153	0.00628	0.99220	0.00066	0.00640	0.99294	0.00119	0.00854	0.99027

one-year obs.			one-year est.			fifth root		
0.99314	0.00371	0.00314	0.99386	0.00286	0.00328	0.99499	0.00312	0.00189
0.00118	0.99321	0.00561	0.00129	0.99268	0.00604	0.00100	0.99484	0.00417
0.00024	0.00174	0.99803	0.00048	0.00168	0.99784	0.00013	0.00130	0.99857

age group 13 (60–64 years)

five-year obs.			five-year est.			fifth degree		
0.97819	0.00968	0.01213	0.97438	0.01610	0.00952	0.96503	0.01935	0.01562
0.00570	0.96726	0.02704	0.00664	0.97065	0.02272	0.00793	0.96163	0.03044
0.00116	0.00601	0.99283	0.00080	0.00596	0.99324	0.00138	0.00796	0.99066

one-year obs.			one-year est.			fifth root		
0.99289	0.00398	0.00313	0.99379	0.00245	0.00376	0.99481	0.00328	0.00190
0.00163	0.99217	0.00620	0.00143	0.99135	0.00722	0.00136	0.99404	0.00461
0.00027	0.00162	0.99810	0.00037	0.00160	0.99803	0.00016	0.00121	0.99863

age group 14 (65–69 years)

five-year obs.			five-year est.			fifth degree		
0.97596	0.00906	0.01498	0.97453	0.01192	0.01355	0.96548	0.01767	0.01684
0.00514	0.96885	0.02601	0.00472	0.96985	0.02543	0.00702	0.95750	0.03549
0.00160	0.00599	0.99240	0.00114	0.00601	0.99285	0.00140	0.00839	0.99020

one-year obs.			one-year est.			fifth root		
0.99299	0.00364	0.00338	0.99343	0.00272	0.00385	0.99485	0.00243	0.00273
0.00144	0.99132	0.00724	0.00155	0.99100	0.00744	0.00096	0.99388	0.00516
0.00028	0.00171	0.99801	0.00040	0.00172	0.99788	0.00023	0.00122	0.99855

age group 15 (70–74 years)

five-year obs.			five-year est.			fifth degree		
0.97468	0.00927	0.01605	0.97160	0.01105	0.01735	0.95386	0.02401	0.02213
0.00461	0.97831	0.01708	0.00199	0.98045	0.01756	0.00440	0.97284	0.02276
0.00172	0.00571	0.99257	0.00093	0.00556	0.99351	0.00114	0.00725	0.99161

one-year obs.			one-year est.			fifth root		
0.99059	0.00494	0.00448	0.99212	0.00390	0.00399	0.99425	0.00225	0.00350
0.00091	0.99449	0.00461	0.00214	0.99322	0.00464	0.00040	0.99605	0.00354
0.00023	0.00147	0.99830	0.00031	0.00166	0.99803	0.00019	0.00112	0.99869

APPENDIX C

This Appendix presents the probabilities of a person at exact age x in one of three regions of Great Britain (East Anglia, South East England, and the rest of Britain) living in the same or another region five years later.

The probabilities are calculated using four different methods:

1. Calculated using eqn. (2). These estimates are accepted in this paper as the correct ones.
2. Estimated using the parameters $\alpha(x)$ and k_{tot}, α being disaggregated by age such that the schedule is the observed migration schedule for Britain, and the area under the curve is equal to α_{tot}.
3. Estimated using the parameters α_{tot} and k_{tot}, where α_{tot} is aggregated by age.
4. Estimated using eqn. (1).

The results given by the second and third methods are approximately equal. Both are much closer to the correct values obtained by the first method than are the results obtained using the last method.

Probabilities of death and migration within the subsequent five years for a person aged x resident in East Anglia.

Calculated using eqn. (2)

age	death	migration from e.anglia to		
		e.anglia	s.east	r.brit
0	0.019077	0.878803	0.050263	0.051856
5	0.001796	0.916665	0.037048	0.044531
10	0.001555	0.930246	0.033027	0.035172
15	0.003595	0.898068	0.053417	0.044920
20	0.004013	0.866501	0.067041	0.062445
25	0.003356	0.875430	0.057047	0.064167
30	0.004319	0.902390	0.042690	0.050601
35	0.006141	0.922117	0.032730	0.039012
40	0.010595	0.935395	0.026427	0.027583
45	0.018549	0.938719	0.022245	0.020486
50	0.028144	0.942074	0.015878	0.013903
55	0.048522	0.931112	0.010774	0.009592
60	0.079041	0.901212	0.008709	0.011038
65	0.129096	0.850309	0.007746	0.012849
70	1.000000	0.000000	0.000000	0.000000

Estimated using parameters k_{tot} and $\alpha(x)$

age	death	migration from e.anglia to		
		e.anglia	s.east	r.brit
0	0.019073	0.883325	0.045025	0.052577
5	0.001796	0.922943	0.035134	0.040127
10	0.001555	0.936659	0.029015	0.032771
15	0.003598	0.911296	0.043880	0.041226
20	0.004018	0.882393	0.056432	0.057157
25	0.003353	0.890947	0.053094	0.052606
30	0.004316	0.915103	0.036296	0.044285
35	0.006138	0.925940	0.031534	0.036388
40	0.010592	0.939213	0.023136	0.027059
45	0.018549	0.940257	0.020454	0.020740
50	0.028197	0.925367	0.023514	0.022921
55	0.048548	0.926070	0.012639	0.012743
60	0.079067	0.895656	0.013026	0.012251
65	0.129099	0.847444	0.010987	0.012469
70	1.000000	0.000000	0.000000	0.000000

Estimated using parameters k_{tot} and α_{tot}

age	death	migration from e.anglia to		
		e.anglia	s.east	r.brit
0	0.019085	0.873151	0.051594	0.056170
5	0.001796	0.924027	0.034317	0.039859
10	0.001555	0.939917	0.026843	0.031685
15	0.003595	0.898531	0.052791	0.045082
20	0.004000	0.826082	0.094781	0.075137
25	0.003356	0.858027	0.076874	0.061743
30	0.004317	0.907994	0.040963	0.046726
35	0.006138	0.926855	0.030814	0.036193
40	0.010590	0.941873	0.021251	0.026286
45	0.018546	0.942748	0.018184	0.020521
50	0.028188	0.929261	0.020337	0.022214
55	0.048547	0.926934	0.011493	0.013026
60	0.079066	0.896416	0.012007	0.012511
65	0.129101	0.847997	0.010167	0.012736
70	1.000000	0.000000	0.000000	0.000000

Calculated using eqn. (1)

age	death	migration from e.anglia to		
		e.anglia	s.east	r.brit
0	0.018940	0.810806	0.080174	0.090080
5	0.001843	0.876374	0.058454	0.063329
10	0.001657	0.903852	0.046153	0.048338
15	0.003591	0.838896	0.084048	0.073464
20	0.004028	0.751251	0.127714	0.117006
25	0.002720	0.788667	0.108686	0.099927
30	0.003434	0.853717	0.066789	0.076059
35	0.006096	0.884107	0.052742	0.057055
40	0.011283	0.915184	0.035784	0.037749
45	0.018095	0.925257	0.030197	0.026451
50	0.029244	0.906652	0.034231	0.029872
55	0.047840	0.920240	0.017128	0.014792
60	0.077441	0.890556	0.017734	0.014269
65	0.132126	0.838018	0.015340	0.014516
70	1.000000	0.000000	0.000000	0.000000

APPENDIX C (continued)

Probabilities of death and migration within the subsequent five years for a person aged x resident in South East England.

Calculated using eqn. (2)

age	death	migration from e.anglia	s.east	s.east to r.brit
0	0.020863	0.008171	0.927202	0.043764
5	0.001684	0.006789	0.954557	0.036970
10	0.001458	0.005433	0.963036	0.030073
15	0.003168	0.007041	0.948826	0.040965
20	0.003254	0.009658	0.930742	0.056346
25	0.003467	0.009916	0.928048	0.058569
30	0.004590	0.007838	0.941089	0.046483
35	0.006757	0.006217	0.951901	0.035125
40	0.011733	0.005153	0.955671	0.027443
45	0.019975	0.004582	0.952380	0.023062
50	0.031934	0.004181	0.942966	0.020920
55	0.053023	0.004801	0.921191	0.020985
60	0.085046	0.005125	0.885635	0.024193
65	0.133732	0.004395	0.839813	0.022060
70	1.000000	0.000000	0.000000	0.000000

Estimated using parameters k_{tot} and $\alpha(x)$

age	death	migration from e.anglia	s.east	s.east to r.brit
0	0.020860	0.008018	0.930649	0.040473
5	0.001684	0.005486	0.959888	0.032942
10	0.001458	0.004559	0.965485	0.028498
15	0.003167	0.005237	0.952348	0.039248
20	0.003254	0.007474	0.929418	0.059853
25	0.003467	0.007611	0.935941	0.052982
30	0.004590	0.006329	0.948042	0.041040
35	0.006756	0.005160	0.956572	0.031513
40	0.011733	0.004162	0.958370	0.025735
45	0.019977	0.004030	0.952138	0.023855
50	0.031938	0.003855	0.941627	0.022581
55	0.053023	0.003991	0.922484	0.020503
60	0.085028	0.005328	0.887998	0.021647
65	0.133744	0.004353	0.838682	0.023222
70	1.000000	0.000000	0.000000	0.000000

Estimated using parameters k_{tot} and α_{tot}

age	death	migration from e.anglia	s.east	s.east to r.brit
0	0.020860	0.009287	0.928479	0.041374
5	0.001684	0.005357	0.959990	0.032969
10	0.001458	0.004196	0.966404	0.027942
15	0.003168	0.006347	0.948149	0.042336
20	0.003263	0.012957	0.902510	0.081270
25	0.003468	0.011095	0.923058	0.062379
30	0.004590	0.007229	0.945432	0.042749
35	0.006756	0.005030	0.956674	0.031540
40	0.011732	0.003780	0.959332	0.025156
45	0.019976	0.003563	0.953380	0.023081
50	0.031938	0.003311	0.942816	0.021935
55	0.053020	0.003606	0.923694	0.019680
60	0.085024	0.004903	0.889201	0.020873
65	0.133736	0.004016	0.839950	0.022298
70	1.000000	0.000000	0.000000	0.000000

Calculated using eqn. (1)

age	death	migration from e.anglia	s.east	s.east to r.brit
0	0.018586	0.014359	0.899220	0.067835
5	0.001533	0.009175	0.938596	0.050695
10	0.001381	0.007299	0.950357	0.040962
15	0.003178	0.010098	0.917494	0.069230
20	0.003520	0.017154	0.855275	0.124051
25	0.003489	0.015630	0.880170	0.100711
30	0.004472	0.011791	0.914194	0.069542
35	0.006149	0.008730	0.936894	0.048227
40	0.011434	0.006551	0.946564	0.035451
45	0.019270	0.005977	0.943300	0.031453
50	0.031272	0.005636	0.933706	0.029386
55	0.052188	0.005428	0.916422	0.025961
60	0.083825	0.007268	0.881265	0.027643
65	0.133965	0.006090	0.829459	0.030486
70	1.000000	0.000000	0.000000	0.000000

Probabilities of death and migration within the subsequent five years for a person aged *x* resident in the "rest of Britain".

Calculated using eqn. (2)

age	death	migration from e.anglia	s.east	r.brit to r.brit
0	0.022136	0.004181	0.017998	0.955684
5	0.001871	0.002506	0.015177	0.980446
10	0.001633	0.002209	0.015518	0.980641
15	0.003251	0.003073	0.030466	0.963210
20	0.003800	0.003934	0.039181	0.953085
25	0.003777	0.003682	0.029948	0.962593
30	0.004903	0.002833	0.020878	0.971386
35	0.007725	0.002162	0.015796	0.974317
40	0.013437	0.002167	0.012477	0.971920
45	0.023507	0.002290	0.009976	0.964227
50	0.036279	0.002165	0.007582	0.953974
55	0.061317	0.001438	0.005829	0.931416
60	0.097875	0.001059	0.005380	0.895686
65	0.152017	0.001377	0.005082	0.841524
70	1.000000	0.000000	0.000000	0.000000

Estimated using parameters k_{tot} and $\alpha(x)$

age	death	migration from e.anglia	s.east	r.brit to r.brit
0	0.022139	0.002782	0.017830	0.957248
5	0.001871	0.002470	0.015382	0.980277
10	0.001633	0.002095	0.013823	0.982449
15	0.003251	0.003050	0.026778	0.966921
20	0.003801	0.003803	0.037141	0.955255
25	0.003778	0.003401	0.025834	0.966988
30	0.004904	0.002594	0.019444	0.973058
35	0.007725	0.002228	0.015956	0.974091
40	0.013437	0.001815	0.012860	0.971888
45	0.023511	0.001297	0.009262	0.965931
50	0.036282	0.001155	0.008531	0.954033
55	0.061318	0.000999	0.006328	0.931356
60	0.097873	0.001103	0.005652	0.895372
65	0.152017	0.001051	0.005482	0.841449
70	1.000000	0.000000	0.000000	0.000000

Estimated using parameters k_{tot} and α_{tot}

age	death	migration from e.anglia	s.east	r.brit to r.brit
0	0.022138	0.002882	0.018335	0.956644
5	0.001871	0.002461	0.015392	0.980277
10	0.001633	0.002038	0.013536	0.982793
15	0.003251	0.003291	0.028926	0.964532
20	0.003797	0.004592	0.050819	0.940792
25	0.003777	0.003927	0.030489	0.961807
30	0.004903	0.002671	0.020336	0.972089
35	0.007725	0.002237	0.015947	0.974091
40	0.013437	0.001795	0.012538	0.972229
45	0.023511	0.001305	0.008951	0.966232
50	0.036282	0.001136	0.008269	0.954313
55	0.061319	0.001035	0.006663	0.931584
60	0.097874	0.001138	0.005441	0.895547
65	0.152019	0.001084	0.005267	0.841631
70	1.000000	0.000000	0.000000	0.000000

Calculated using eqn. (1)

age	death	migration from e.anglia	s.east	r.brit to r.brit
0	0.021738	0.004690	0.029974	0.943598
5	0.001798	0.003871	0.023720	0.970611
10	0.001556	0.003043	0.019920	0.975481
15	0.003169	0.005401	0.047277	0.944153
20	0.003588	0.007540	0.077211	0.911661
25	0.003647	0.006435	0.049150	0.940768
30	0.004800	0.004348	0.033083	0.957769
35	0.007492	0.003422	0.024503	0.964583
40	0.013599	0.002444	0.017808	0.966149
45	0.023844	0.001625	0.012251	0.962281
50	0.038534	0.001478	0.011135	0.948853
55	0.061789	0.001125	0.008033	0.929053
60	0.098387	0.001260	0.007228	0.893125
65	0.153253	0.001212	0.007210	0.838325
70	1.000000	0.000000	0.000000	0.000000

APPENDIX D

This Appendix gives the distribution of expectations of life at exact age x in three regions of Great Britain. The data are calculated in four different ways, as in Appendix C. The expectations of life provide a better empirical verification of the discussion in the text than the probabilities of migration and death given previously.

The Appendix also includes the regional distribution of life expectancies at age 0, as a proportion of the total life expectancy. This is called the migration level.

Migration levels (regional distribution of life expectancy at exact age 0 as a proportion of total life expectancy).

Calculated using eqn. (2)

	e.anglia	s.east	r.brit
e.anglia	0.560325	0.035449	0.018489
s.east	0.198130	0.737912	0.116309
r.brit	0.241544	0.226639	0.865202
total	1.000000	1.000000	1.000000

Estimated using parameters k_{tot} and $\alpha(x)$

	e.anglia	s.east	r.brit
e.anglia	0.583179	0.030217	0.015845
s.east	0.185816	0.751615	0.111445
r.brit	0.231004	0.218168	0.872710
total	1.000000	1.000000	1.000000

Estimated using parameters k_{tot} and α_{tot}

	e.anglia	s.east	r.brit
e.anglia	0.545893	0.033476	0.016616
s.east	0.209131	0.734537	0.120364
r.brit	0.244976	0.231987	0.863019
total	1.000000	1.000000	1.000000

Calculated using eqn. (1)

	e.anglia	s.east	r.brit
e.anglia	0.408922	0.041217	0.023187
s.east	0.257889	0.643877	0.163357
r.brit	0.333190	0.314906	0.813456
total	1.000000	1.000000	1.000000

Distribution of life expectancy at exact age *x* for people born in East Anglia.

Calculated using eqn. (2)

age	total	e.anglia	s.east	r.brit
0	73.06435	40.93980	14.47626	17.64828
5	69.43669	36.94765	14.62970	17.85934
10	64.55702	32.71232	14.32012	17.52458
15	59.65361	28.78300	13.86263	17.00798
20	54.85471	25.22608	13.26733	16.36129
25	50.05791	22.07278	12.46714	15.51799
30	45.22318	19.29715	11.48181	14.44422
35	40.41728	16.82754	10.39531	13.19442
40	35.67406	14.58276	9.25866	11.83264
45	31.06776	12.52962	8.11201	10.42613
50	26.66482	10.65217	6.98460	9.02805
55	22.45778	8.91441	5.88743	7.65594
60	18.59584	7.34651	4.87481	6.37453
65	15.12872	5.95201	3.97142	5.20529
70	12.15285	4.76494	3.20632	4.18159

Estimated using parameters k_{tot} and $\alpha(x)$

age	total	e.anglia	s.east	r.brit
0	73.09180	42.62563	13.58164	16.88453
5	69.46439	38.65459	13.73097	17.07884
10	64.58482	34.38632	13.44905	16.74944
15	59.68147	30.39919	13.02908	16.25321
20	54.88312	26.75449	12.49320	15.63542
25	50.08735	23.47217	11.78339	14.83179
30	45.25232	20.53234	10.90085	13.81913
35	40.44584	17.87718	9.91503	12.65363
40	35.70110	15.44244	8.87327	11.38538
45	31.09241	13.20630	7.81328	10.07283
50	26.68634	11.15388	6.76988	8.76258
55	22.47504	9.26905	5.74510	7.46089
60	18.60916	7.58867	4.78855	6.23193
65	15.13769	6.09829	3.92913	5.11027
70	12.15793	4.82587	3.19806	4.13401

Estimated using parameters k_{tot} and α_{tot}

age	total	e.anglia	s.east	r.brit
0	73.03786	39.87083	15.27450	17.89253
5	69.41029	35.87259	15.44019	18.09751
10	64.53058	31.64669	15.13105	17.75284
15	59.62715	27.69015	14.69195	17.24505
20	54.82837	24.08595	14.12933	16.61309
25	50.03131	20.95878	13.31690	15.75563
30	45.19673	18.30097	12.25106	14.64470
35	40.39109	15.95318	11.06757	13.37034
40	35.64829	13.80612	9.84316	11.99900
45	31.04238	11.82975	8.61960	10.59303
50	26.63955	10.01059	7.43094	9.19802
55	22.43355	8.33453	6.27926	7.81976
60	18.57315	6.83635	5.21392	6.52289
65	15.10771	5.50704	4.26024	5.34044
70	12.13194	4.37217	3.44912	4.31064

Calculated using eqn. (1)

age	total	e.anglia	s.east	r.brit
0	72.80315	29.77078	18.77510	24.25727
5	69.16043	25.73113	18.93327	24.49603
10	64.28154	21.89120	18.44443	23.94591
15	59.38100	18.45856	17.76056	23.16188
20	54.57787	15.47465	16.90228	22.20094
25	49.77751	13.07009	15.76754	20.93987
30	44.92973	11.18631	14.39406	19.34936
35	40.11012	9.62420	12.92924	17.55667
40	35.36221	8.25938	11.44214	15.66070
45	30.77094	7.04332	9.97619	13.75143
50	26.37483	5.93988	8.56031	11.87464
55	22.21351	4.94600	7.21045	10.05706
60	18.37084	4.06105	5.96118	8.34861
65	14.91985	3.27413	4.85012	6.79560
70	11.98053	2.60649	3.92115	5.45289

APPENDIX D (*continued*)

Distribution of life expectancy at exact age x for people born in South East England.

Calculated using eqn. (2)

age	total	e.anglia	s.east	r.brit
0	72.76063	2.57926	53.69096	16.49041
5	69.25768	2.61335	49.91430	16.73003
10	64.37093	2.56135	45.36145	16.44813
15	59.46222	2.48366	40.96908	16.00947
20	54.64418	2.38796	36.80819	15.44803
25	49.81932	2.26641	32.85591	14.69700
30	44.98650	2.11804	29.13494	13.73352
35	40.18504	1.95048	25.63597	12.59859
40	35.44996	1.77230	22.32324	11.35442
45	30.85555	1.59060	19.20091	10.06404
50	26.46224	1.40968	16.27994	8.77262
55	22.28231	1.23027	13.55335	7.49869
60	18.44316	1.05817	11.09296	6.29203
65	14.99926	0.89583	8.93211	5.17132
70	12.02812	0.75029	7.11128	4.16656

Estimated using parameters k_{tot} and $\alpha(x)$

age	total	e.anglia	s.east	r.brit
0	72.76698	2.19881	54.69272	15.87545
5	69.26402	2.22518	50.92850	16.11033
10	64.37720	2.17621	46.34756	15.85343
15	59.46841	2.10607	41.91064	15.45170
20	54.65029	2.02167	37.69820	14.93042
25	49.82510	1.91699	33.69706	14.21106
30	44.99222	1.79054	29.92350	13.27818
35	40.19072	1.64767	26.35215	12.19090
40	35.45534	1.49471	22.95306	11.00757
45	30.86038	1.33819	19.73841	9.78378
50	26.46599	1.18213	16.72888	8.55498
55	22.28550	1.02862	13.92323	7.33364
60	18.44527	0.88313	11.39010	6.17204
65	14.99966	0.74464	9.15718	5.09784
70	12.02564	0.61683	7.26773	4.14108

Estimated using parameters k_{tot} and α_{tot}

age	total	e.anglia	s.east	r.brit
0	72.74550	2.43525	53.43427	16.87598
5	69.24203	2.46342	49.64874	17.12988
10	64.35522	2.40892	45.07616	16.87014
15	59.44641	2.33465	40.64504	16.46672
20	54.62826	2.24561	36.44219	15.94046
25	49.80346	2.12610	32.50816	15.16919
30	44.97081	1.97334	28.86644	14.13102
35	40.16946	1.80167	25.44020	12.92759
40	35.43467	1.62196	22.17944	11.63327
45	30.84056	1.44174	19.09189	10.30692
50	26.44775	1.26500	16.19757	8.98518
55	22.26844	1.09366	13.49517	7.67961
60	18.43030	0.93320	11.05284	6.44426
65	14.98720	0.78243	8.89777	5.30700
70	12.01601	0.64498	7.07244	4.29859

Calculated using eqn. (1)

age	total	e.anglia	s.east	r.brit
0	72.79819	3.00049	46.87308	22.92462
5	69.12948	3.02074	42.92278	23.18596
10	64.23332	2.93499	38.53592	22.76242
15	59.32033	2.81985	34.36416	22.13633
20	54.50202	2.68534	30.48161	21.33507
25	49.68726	2.52106	26.96223	20.20396
30	44.85318	2.32707	23.80667	18.71943
35	40.04630	2.11663	20.90770	17.02197
40	35.29754	1.89919	18.18192	15.21644
45	30.70520	1.68388	15.62465	13.39666
50	26.31229	1.47354	13.23545	11.60331
55	22.15569	1.27213	11.02200	9.86156
60	18.32352	1.08362	9.01872	8.22118
65	14.88562	0.90651	7.25817	6.72094
70	11.94291	0.74655	5.79005	5.40631

Distribution of life expectancy at exact age x for people born in the "rest of Britain".

Calculated using eqn. (2)

age	total	e.anglia	s.east	r.brit
0	71.96190	1.33051	8.36979	62.26160
5	68.53434	1.34994	8.51325	58.67115
10	63.65786	1.32549	8.40152	53.93085
15	58.75750	1.29045	8.21698	49.25008
20	53.94091	1.24672	7.94257	44.75162
25	49.13517	1.19011	7.52361	40.42144
30	44.31017	1.11931	6.97281	36.21805
35	39.51413	1.03806	6.34748	32.12859
40	34.79619	0.95081	5.68466	28.16071
45	30.22595	0.86057	5.00967	24.35571
50	25.87470	0.76876	4.34338	20.76256
55	21.73273	0.67466	3.69290	17.36516
60	17.95303	0.58378	3.09287	14.27637
65	14.58047	0.49951	2.55763	11.52333
70	11.68486	0.42570	2.10235	9.15681

Estimated using parameters k_{tot} and $\alpha(x)$

age	total	e.anglia	s.east	r.brit
0	71.94492	1.13994	8.01793	62.78704
5	68.51715	1.15864	8.15388	59.20464
10	63.64065	1.14079	8.04166	54.45820
15	58.74026	1.11224	7.86004	49.76799
20	53.92361	1.07444	7.60031	45.24886
25	49.11797	1.02334	7.20830	40.88632
30	44.29305	0.95847	6.69441	36.64017
35	39.49707	0.88367	6.11145	32.50195
40	34.77940	0.80264	5.48742	28.48933
45	30.20950	0.71847	4.84514	24.64590
50	25.85888	0.63433	4.20931	21.01524
55	21.71770	0.55159	3.58729	17.57882
60	17.93922	0.47417	3.00984	14.45521
65	14.56795	0.40186	2.49125	11.67485
70	11.67320	0.33647	2.04715	9.28958

Estimated using parameters k_{tot} and α_{tot}

age	total	e.anglia	s.east	r.brit
0	71.96233	1.19575	8.66171	62.10488
5	68.53492	1.21545	8.81093	58.50854
10	63.65845	1.19724	8.69739	53.76382
15	58.75809	1.16848	8.51504	49.07458
20	53.94149	1.13023	8.25159	44.55966
25	49.13568	1.07687	7.82424	40.23458
30	44.31060	1.00737	7.24297	36.06027
35	39.51449	0.92694	6.58950	31.99805
40	34.79636	0.84035	5.89883	28.05717
45	30.22581	0.75099	5.19515	24.27967
50	25.87410	0.66206	4.50344	20.70860
55	21.73193	0.57490	3.83035	17.32668
60	17.95193	0.49349	3.20769	14.25076
65	14.57885	0.41759	2.64964	11.51162
70	11.68218	0.34908	2.17223	9.16087

Calculated using eqn. (1)

age	total	e.anglia	s.east	r.brit
0	72.04422	1.67049	11.76890	58.60482
5	68.58958	1.69563	11.95382	54.94012
10	63.70807	1.66608	11.76848	50.27349
15	58.80295	1.62132	11.48491	45.69672
20	53.98223	1.56295	11.07999	41.33929
25	49.16759	1.48281	10.44365	37.24113
30	44.33633	1.38078	9.60925	33.34629
35	39.53420	1.26460	8.69119	29.57841
40	34.80239	1.14097	7.73416	25.92726
45	30.23069	1.01562	6.77442	22.44065
50	25.87479	0.89212	5.84091	19.14176
55	21.76488	0.77351	4.94922	16.04214
60	17.97826	0.66222	4.12198	13.19406
65	14.59352	0.55830	3.38529	10.64993
70	11.69842	0.46493	2.76441	8.46908

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CONSTRUCTING MULTIREGIONAL LIFE TABLES USING PLACE-OF-BIRTH-SPECIFIC MIGRATION DATA

Jacques Ledent

1 INTRODUCTION

The ordinary life table is a device for following a closed group of people, born at the same time, as it decreases in size until the death of its last member. The emphasis is put on the nonreversible transition from one state (being alive) to another (being dead). A straightforward extension of this model is the multiple-decrement life table which recognizes transitions to more than one final absorbing state (e.g., decrements due to various causes of death).

However, when recurrent, non-final transitions occur, the latter model does not permit one to follow persons who have moved from one state to another and to analyze their subsequent experiences. Such a problem may be handled with the help of more-complex life tables which recognize entries, or increments into states, as well as exits, or decrements from states. Because of their general nature, such life tables, known as increment–decrement life tables, are valuable in the analysis of marital status, labor-force participation, birth parity, and interregional migration; in the last case, they are often referred to as multiregional life tables (Rogers 1973).

Among such generalized life tables, a distinction is often made between uniradix increment–decrement life tables, for which the initial cohort is concentrated in a unique state, and multiradix increment–decrement life tables, for which the initial cohort is allocated to several, if not all, of the intercommunicating states.

The key feature of all increment–decrement life tables—whether uniradix or multiradix—lies in their formulation as simple Markov-chain models. As a consequence, such generalized life tables rely on stringent assumptions (population homogeneity and Markovian behavior) which are far from reflecting reality and thus often lead to faulty results (Ledent 1980a). This is especially true in the case of multiregional life tables since, as is well known, individuals with identical demographic characteristics (age, sex, and race) can exhibit quite different propensities for migration depending on past events in their lives.

In particular, consider perhaps the most interesting results that may be drawn from a multiregional life table, namely, the number of years (both total and distributed according to the regions in which they are to be spent) that an individual born in any of the regions can expect to live. These results are likely to be highly inaccurate if they are derived from a multiregional life table calculated with the traditional approach (that is, as a multiradix increment–decrement life table based on the type of migration data commonly available). This inaccuracy arises because the application, in the traditional approach, of the same age schedules of mobility to

the individuals of a given region (regardless of their region of birth) ignores the generally well-established fact that migration propensities are heavily dependent on the birthplace of the individuals concerned. (For a quantitative observation of this effect in the United States, see Long and Hansen 1975; see also Ledent 1981).

Therefore, to provide more-acceptable values of the regional expectations of life at birth (both total values and regional shares), multiregional life tables should rely on interregional migration data cross-classified by place of birth. This paper demonstrates the construction of such multiregional life tables, which involves the calculation of a uniradix increment–decrement life table for each of the regional shares of the initial cohort. It also compares such an approach (hereafter called the place-of-birth-dependent approach) with the traditional approach based on commonly available migration data (the place-of-birth-independent approach). An illustration is provided by applying it to a system consisting of the four US Census Regions observed during the period 1965–1970, for females only; the necessary migration data can be readily derived from published census information (US Bureau of the Census 1973).

The rest of this paper is divided into five sections. Section 2, intended as a background section, presents a brief reminder of the theory and mathematical treatment of increment–decrement life tables. Section 3 is a discussion of the issue at hand, i.e., the influence of the population-homogeneity assumption on the calculation of such tables: the discussion is centered on the particular role of the birthplace in migration decisions. Section 4 reports on the implementation of the place-of-birth-dependent approach and Section 5 provides some perspectives on the contrast which this approach offers with respect to the usual place-of-birth-independent approach. Finally, Section 6 summarizes and presents the general conclusions of the paper. The general method used to construct the various increment–decrement life tables considered in this paper is described in the Appendix.

2 INCREMENT–DECREMENT LIFE TABLES: A REMINDER

Although some of the issues underlying the construction of increment–decrement life tables were considered long ago, it is only recently that thorough and systematic discussion of the methodological and empirical problems raised by such construction has appeared in the literature. Nevertheless, in less than a decade, the contributions of a number of researchers (Rogers 1973, 1975; Schoen and Nelson 1974; Rogers and Ledent 1975, 1976; Schoen 1975; Hoem and Fong 1976; Schoen and Land 1977; Ledent 1978, 1980a; Krishnamoorthy 1979) have led to the development of a formal mathematical treatment which now gives increment–decrement life tables a status comparable to that of the ordinary life table.

Perhaps the single most important factor responsible for this development was the realization that an increment–decrement life table can be regarded as a generalized life table in which elements in matrix format are substituted for the scalar elements of the ordinary life table (Rogers and Ledent 1975, 1976; Rogers 1975).

In this section we present an overview of a mathematical treatment of increment–decrement life tables that parallels the classical exposition of the ordinary life table: the correspondence between the formulas relevant to the ordinary and the increment–decrement life tables, respectively, is stressed in Table 1. Equation

TABLE 1   A tabular comparison of the theoretical exposition of ordinary and increment–decrement life tables[a].

Ordinary life table		Increment–decrement life table	
$\mu(y) = \lim\limits_{dy \to 0} \dfrac{d(y)}{l(y)\,dy}$	(1)	${}^{i}\mu^{j}(y) = \lim\limits_{dy \to 0} \dfrac{{}^{i}d^{j}(y)}{l^{i}(y)\,dy}$	(1')
$l(y+dy) = l(y) - d(y)$	(2)	$l^{i}(y+dy) = l^{i}(y) - \sum\limits_{\substack{j=1 \\ j \neq i}}^{r+1} {}^{i}d^{j}(y) + \sum\limits_{\substack{j=1 \\ j \neq i}}^{r} {}^{j}d^{i}(y)$	(2')
$\dfrac{d}{dy}\,l(y) = -\mu(y)l(y)$	(3)	$\dfrac{d}{dy}\,\mathbf{l}(y) = -\boldsymbol{\mu}(y)\mathbf{l}(y)$	(3')
$l(y) = \Omega(y)l(0)$	(4)		
$\Omega(y) = \exp\left[-\displaystyle\int_{0}^{y} \mu(t)\,dt\right]$	(5)	$\mathbf{l}(y) = \boldsymbol{\Omega}(y)\mathbf{l}(0)$	(4')
$l_{x+n} = p_x l_x$	(6)	$\mathbf{l}_{x+n} = \mathbf{p}_x \mathbf{l}_x$	(6')
$p_x = \Omega(x+n)/\Omega(x)$	(7)	$\mathbf{p}_x = \boldsymbol{\Omega}(x+n)\boldsymbol{\Omega}(x)^{-1}$	(7')
$L_x = \displaystyle\int_{0}^{n} l(x+t)\,dt$	(8)	$\mathbf{L}_x = \displaystyle\int_{0}^{n} \mathbf{l}(x+t)\,dt$	(8')
$T_x = \displaystyle\int_{0}^{\infty} l(x+t)\,dt$	(9)	$\mathbf{T}_x = \displaystyle\int_{0}^{\infty} \mathbf{l}(x+t)\,dt$	(9')
$e_x = T_x/l_x$	(10)	$\mathbf{e}_x = \mathbf{T}_x \mathbf{l}_x^{-1}$	(10')

[a] Taken from Ledent (1980a, p. 536 and 542).

numbers (1)–(10) and (1')–(10') used below refer to the numbered equations in Table 1.

Suppose we have a system of $r+1$ states (r intercommunicating states plus the state of death) in which the initial cohort is allocated among s states ($1 \leqslant s \leqslant r$): let $l^{i}(0)$ be the "radix" of state i. The principal problem here is one of estimating the state-specific curves of survivors $l^{i}(y)$ at each age y. Such estimation is centered around the differential equation (3'); it presents a vector notation of the r scalar equations arrived at by substituting the equations (1') defining the instantaneous mobility rates into the accounting equations (2') showing the increments and decrements to each $l^{i}(y)$ group. [Note that eqn. (3') is a straightforward vector extension of the basic differential equation (3) of the ordinary life table.]

Equation (3') admits r linearly independent solutions, which can be expressed as eqn. (4'), a straightforward matrix extension of the ordinary life table solution, eqn. (4). These independent solutions of eqn. (3') are the r stationary populations that are generated by an arbitrary radix in each of the r states (regardless of whether some of the states are initially empty or not).

The matrix $\boldsymbol{\Omega}(y)$ is a proper transition probability matrix showing the state-specific survival probabilities at age y of the members of each radix. [Note that unlike its counterpart in the ordinary life table, this matrix cannot be simply expressed in terms of the instantaneous mobility rates, but has to be determined by the

infinitesimal calculus of Volterra (Schoen and Land 1977).] The number of survivors l_x, at fixed ages $0, n, 2n, \ldots$, may be derived by applying in succession, as shown in eqn. (6'), a set of age-specific transition probability matrices $\mathbf{p}_x$ (generalizing the age-specific survival probabilities p_x of the ordinary life table).

Now, it is possible to define multistate life-table functions generalizing the usual statistics found in a life table. Equation (8') defines the multistate life-table function $\mathbf{L}_x$ whose (i, j)th element represents the number of people born in state j and alive in state i of the life table between ages x and $x + n$, or alternatively, the number of person-years lived in state i between those ages by the members of the jth radix. From there, it is possible to define generalized T-statistics [eqn. (9')] and, finally, generalized e-statistics [eqn. (10')]: the (i, j)th element of $\mathbf{e}_x$ denotes the number of future years that an x-year-old individual present in state j can expect to spend in state i.

Another generalization of interest is that of the mortality rates m_x and survivorship proportions s_x of the ordinary life table, because the calculation of applied increment–decrement life tables is centered around the equalization of the life-table values of the generalized m- or s-statistics with their observed counterparts. The relevant approaches are known as the movement and transition approaches, and were devised by Schoen (1975) and by Rogers (1973, 1975), respectively.

On the one hand, interstate "passage" can be observed as a move, that is, an instantaneous event similar to a death. This leads to the movement approach—consistent with the approach taken in the ordinary life table—in which the linkage with the observed population is ensured through an equalization of the life-table mortality and mobility rates with their observed counterparts. On the other hand, interstate "passage" can be observed as a change in an individual's state of presence between two points in time (regardless of the number of moves made in the meantime). This is the essence of the transition approach, in which the linkage with the observed population is ensured through an equalization of the life-table survivorship proportions with their observed counterparts.

These two alternative approaches are not competitive but complementary, in that the choice of either is dictated by the type of data at hand (for a detailed comparison, see Ledent 1980a). In fact, in most applications of increment–decrement life tables to real situations, the movement approach is the more relevant. The major exception, which requires the use of the transition approach, occurs in the field of interregional migration when data are obtained from population censuses that describe changes of residence between two points in time.

3   THE ISSUE ADDRESSED IN THIS PAPER

The most important feature of increment–decrement life tables is the formulation of their underlying model as a simple Markov-chain model. It follows that all the individuals of a given age present at the same time in a given state have identical propensities for moving out of that state (the population-homogeneity assumption) and that these propensities are independent of the past history of the individuals concerned (the Markovian assumption).

Clearly, in some instances, such an assumption is far from being realistic. Take, for example, the case of interregional migration in which the place of birth of the prospective migrant heavily influences his decision to move and his choice of destination. For example, in their study of migration flows to the South from the rest of the USA, Long and Hansen (1975) present convincing evidence that the probability of moving to the South is considerably higher for those born in the South than for those born elsewhere. Also, the present author (Ledent 1981) has described some more general evidence of the influence of the place of birth on migration patterns, with reference to a four-region disaggregation of the USA.

The migration data set used in this paper was obtained by reordering data taken from the volume *Lifetime and Recent Migration* published by the US Bureau of the Census (1973). The lengthy Table 11 of that volume provides estimates of the numbers of residents in each Federal state in 1970, cross-classified by place of birth and place of residence in 1965 (ten geographical units have been used: the state of residence in 1970 and the nine US Census Divisions). These estimates are provided for each sex and for each race and are subdivided into ten age groups: 0–4, 5–9, 10–14, 15–19, 20–24, 25–29, 30–39, 40–49, 50–59, 60 and over (all ages referring to 1965). The data concerning females in the ten age groups were aggregated and rearranged to show the changes of residence (cross-classified by place of birth) which were made between 1965 and 1970 in the US Census four-region system. The interregional migration streams thus obtained for the highly migratory group of women aged 20–24 in 1965 are shown in Table 2. For example, 73,703 women in that age group moved from the South region to the North Central region. Of that total, 43,047 were born in the South, and 30,656 elsewhere. Interestingly enough, most of the non-Southern-born migrants—24,847 or 81%—were born in the North Central region.

These figures do indeed show large differences in the propensity to migrate according to the place of birth. If we ignore for a moment the place of birth, then the average female 20–24-year-old Southern resident has a 0.0392 probability of moving to the North Central region over a five-year period; however, when place of birth is taken into account, we find that the probability is either lower (0.0260 for the Southern-born) or higher (for the non-Southern-born) than the average value. For the case of those born outside the South, the probability reaches 0.0449 and 0.0495, for women born in the Northeast and the West, respectively, but increases to almost 25% (0.2491) for those born in the North Central region. More generally, someone living outside his or her region of birth appears to have a high probability of returning there. (For a detailed analysis of this subject, see Ledent 1981.)

Clearly, the large mobility differentials according to place of birth, just described, sharply contradict the population-homogeneity assumption which underlies the calculation of a multiregional life table from migration data relating to the total national population. Thus, we may reasonably predict that statistics on expectations of life at birth obtained from such multiregional life tables will be inaccurate, because they are based on average mobility propensities rather than on mobility propensities specific to the regional shares of the initial cohort.

However, the availability of interregional migration data cross-classified by place of birth, such as those shown in Table 2, immediately suggests the possibility of circumventing or, more exactly, reducing the effects of the population-homogeneity assumption that underlies the calculation of a multiregional life table from aggregate

TABLE 2   Place-of-birth-specific interregional migration flows over the period 1965–1970, for females aged 20–24 in 1965[a].

From	To			
	Northeast	North Central	South	West
Born in the Northeast				
Northeast	1,110,763	18,637	36,184	24,299
North Central	10,491	33,482	3,597	3,256
South	21,675	4,051	59,628	4,808
West	9,562	2,331	3,798	46,020
Born in the North Central				
Northeast	21,364	7,887	3,297	2,887
North Central	16,550	1,285,304	38,998	48,157
South	3,546	24,847	64,224	7,117
West	2,833	23,586	7,282	133,306
Born in the South				
Northeast	83,292	3,112	3,847	2,905
North Central	2,919	159,435	28,663	6,217
South	23,652	43,047	1,553,583	23,064
West	2,218	4,876	33,119	108,464
Born in the West				
Northeast	7,088	660	891	3,595
North Central	834	22,878	2,134	8,216
South	976	1,758	23,212	9,554
West	5,611	10,563	13,470	579,719
Place of birth not considered				
Northeast	1,222,507	30,296	54,219	33,686
North Central	30,794	1,501,099	73,392	65,846
South	49,849	73,703	1,700,647	54,598
West	20,224	41,356	47,614	867,509

[a] Data obtained by aggregating data from the US Bureau of the Census (1973, Table 11).

(place-of-birth-independent) migration data. The main idea here is to construct separate uniradix increment–decrement life tables for each of the radices, i.e., the regional shares of the (arbitrary) initial cohort. In this way, multistate life-table statistics can be obtained which no longer relate to a single homogeneous population but to a population divided into r homogeneous groups (as many as there are regions), defined by place of birth.

4   AN ILLUSTRATION OF THE PLACE-OF-BIRTH-DEPENDENT APPROACH

Methodologically, the implementation of the approach just suggested does not raise any problem: it simply requires the calculation of r increment–decrement life tables instead of one (the fact that they are uniradix rather than multiradix incre-

ment–decrement life tables does not have any bearing on the actual calculation of the multistate life-table functions). Thus, in this section, we simply demonstrate this new approach by applying it to the set of US place-of-birth-specific migration data discussed in Section 3.

Because the migration information available here evidently concerns changes of residence between two points in time, the relevant approach here is the transition approach. The actual calculation method used (an overview is presented in the Appendix) combines the estimation of the age-specific survival probability using a method developed elsewhere by this author (Ledent 1980b) and the calculation of the number of person-years lived, L_x, from a linear integration approach (Rogers 1973, 1975).

Note that because no mortality information cross-classified by place of birth is available we simply use the same set of age-specific mortality rates: those observed for the population of each region regardless of the region of birth (US Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, selected years). Actually, this treatment hardly constitutes a problem. In effect, although it does not yield the most precise values for the multistate statistics referring to each regional cohort, the consideration of identical mortality rates for the calculation of the four uniradix increment–decrement life tables appears to be quite acceptable: the dependence of mortality on the place of birth is probably minimal as long as the spatial units considered are broad geographical areas (this is certainly less true in the case of rural–urban systems, especially in developing countries). Therefore, comparison of the multistate life-table statistics relating to each radix offers an assessment of the influence of differential mobility according to the place of birth, with the effect of mortality differentials removed.

Let us now examine the actual results obtained for the application described above. Table 3, which sets out the transition probabilities according to their region of birth for women exactly 20 years old, confirms the general observation that the probability of moving from region i to region j is smaller for those born in region i and much higher for those born in region j than for those who were born neither in region i nor in region j.

Table 4 shows the numbers of remaining years—disaggregated into periods specific to the regions in which they are spent—that 20-year-old residents of each region can expect to live, depending on their place of birth. For example, a resident of the South region who was born in the South is expected to survive a further 56.55 years, of which 49.29 years (about 87.2%) will be spent in the South. However, if this Southern resident had been born in another region, a much smaller part of her remaining lifetime (from 56.27 to 57.53 years according to the region of birth) would be spent in the South: 22.08 years if born in the Northeast, 20.09 years if born in the North Central region, and 16.45 years if born in the West.

Observe the regional variations in the total expectations of remaining life according to the place of birth, in spite of the fact that the mortality pattern is independent of the place of birth. For example, the total expectation of remaining life for a Southern resident is much higher (lower) if she was born in the West (Northeast) than if born in the South: this is indeed a consequence of the assumption underlying multiregional life tables that an in-migrant adopts the mortality regime of the region to which she has just moved.

TABLE 3   Place-of-birth-dependent approach: transition probabilities for females exactly 20 years old.

From	To				
	Northeast	North Central	South	West	Death
Born in the Northeast					
Northeast	0.9138	0.0206	0.0397	0.0228	0.003060
North Central	0.2114	0.6429	0.0726	0.0696	0.003389
South	0.2359	0.0475	0.6611	0.0517	0.003738
West	0.1264	0.0352	0.0538	0.7812	0.003390
Born in the North Central					
Northeast	0.5914	0.2639	0.0839	0.0490	0.003133
North Central	0.0137	0.9064	0.0357	0.0480	0.003418
South	0.0339	0.2438	0.6527	0.0659	0.003774
West	0.0173	0.1292	0.0468	0.8033	0.003409
Born in the South					
Northeast	0.7795	0.0372	0.1499	0.0303	0.003119
North Central	0.0164	0.7954	0.1496	0.0352	0.003443
South	0.0184	0.0332	0.9212	0.0234	0.003837
West	0.0167	0.0370	0.1613	0.7815	0.003435
Born in the West					
Northeast	0.5943	0.0583	0.0876	0.2568	0.003119
North Central	0.0271	0.6707	0.0673	0.2315	0.003421
South	0.0299	0.0498	0.6720	0.2446	0.003778
West	0.0104	0.0207	0.0277	0.9378	0.003406

5   COMPARISON BETWEEN THE PLACE-OF-BIRTH-DEPENDENT AND PLACE-OF-BIRTH-INDEPENDENT APPROACHES

This section tries to provide a meaningful comparison between the place-of-birth-dependent and place-of-birth-independent approaches to the construction of a multiregional life table. In principle, this requires firstly the aggregation of the separate uniradix increment–decrement life tables previously calculated and secondly the comparison of the results thus obtained with those of the multiradix increment–decrement life table based on the same set of data aggregated over all birthplaces.

There is, however, an interesting conclusion which we can derive even before aggregating the various uniradix life tables. This relates to the life expectancies at birth and their regional distributions. Instead of focusing on expectations of life at age 20, let us consider the analogous expectations of life at age zero. In this case, the only expectations of life with any meaning are those calculated for people born and resident in the same region. Each of the uniradix increment–decrement life tables calculated provides a value for the expectation of life at birth for females born in the region concerned, broken down into several numbers indicating the time to be spent in each region. The values obtained from each uniradix life table can then be grouped into a single matrix, such as the one shown in the first part of Table 5. It appears that

TABLE 4   Place-of-birth-dependent approach: totals and regional distributions of remaining life (in years) for females exactly 20 years old.

Region of residence	Number of years spent in region				
	Northeast	North Central	South	West	Total
Born in the Northeast					
Northeast	47.31	1.66	4.48	2.67	56.11
North Central	23.53	19.25	7.49	6.15	56.42
South	25.26	3.45	22.08	5.48	56.27
West	18.76	3.20	6.97	27.85	56.78
Born in the North Central					
Northeast	14.86	25.17	7.62	9.18	56.82
North Central	0.99	46.73	3.80	5.30	56.83
South	2.15	25.76	20.09	8.78	56.78
West	1.29	17.48	4.79	33.72	57.27
Born in the South					
Northeast	27.88	3.73	21.47	3.41	56.49
North Central	1.58	30.21	21.10	3.87	56.76
South	1.51	3.17	49.29	2.58	56.55
West	1.66	4.01	23.04	28.37	57.08
Born in the West					
Northeast	12.59	3.64	4.99	36.37	57.60
North Central	1.50	17.41	4.38	34.31	57.60
South	1.64	3.39	16.45	36.05	57.53
West	0.66	1.53	1.99	53.66	57.83

an American woman has a total expectation of life greater than 74 years (from 74.20 years if born in the South to 75.85 years if born in the West), of which more than 60 years are to be spent in the region of birth (from 60.21 years if born in the North Central region to 68.51 years if born in the West).

How do these expectations of life compare with those obtained with the place-of-birth-independent approach, that is, from the multiradix increment–decrement life table based on the same data set aggregated over all birthplaces? The matrix of expectations of life at birth produced by the latter approach is shown in the second part of Table 5; it indicates a much smaller proportion of total lifetime spent in the region of birth (from 64.7% to 70.1%) than does the place-of-birth-dependent approach where it ranges between 81.0% and 90.3%.

Thus, the substitution of place-of-birth-specific migration data for the more traditional place-of-birth-independent data increases the expected numbers of years to be spent in the region of birth by about ten years (9.69 years in the case of the Northeast, 9.78 years in the case of the North Central, 9.99 years in the case of the South) except in the case of the West where the increase is almost twice this size (19.81 years). This result is consistent with the earlier observation that, once an American woman—and most particularly one born in the West region—has moved out of her region of birth, she is very likely to return. In addition, note that the use of place-of-birth-specific migration data implies increased differentials between the

TABLE 5   Totals and regional distributions of expectations of life at birth (in years): comparison between the place-of-birth-dependent and place-of-birth-independent approaches.

Region of birth	Number of years spent in region				
	Northeast	North Central	South	West	Total
Place-of-birth-dependent approach					
Northeast	61.78	2.53	6.06	3.87	74.24
North Central	1.44	60.21	5.22	7.43	74.30
South	2.49	5.10	62.63	3.99	74.20
West	1.10	2.71	3.52	68.51	75.85
Place-of-birth-independent approach					
Northeast	52.09	5.80	10.99	5.56	74.43
North Central	4.10	50.43	11.38	8.36	74.26
South	5.55	8.83	52.64	7.23	75.25
West	4.45	9.25	12.88	48.70	75.27

total regional expectations of life, which take on values nearing those they would have if migration were ignored.

An equivalent and perhaps more telling way of assessing the impact on the calculation of a multiregional life table of using place-of-birth-specific migration data is to look at the changes in the regional percentage shares of the expectations of life at birth caused by using such data. From the values shown in Table 5, it can be readily established that the introduction of such disaggregated data cuts the proportion of lifetime to be spent outside the region of birth by about half, except in the case of the Western-born women for whom the cut amounts to slightly more than 70%: the proportion decreases from 30.0 to 16.8% for women born in the Northeast, from 32.1 to 19.0% for women born in the North Central, from 29.1 to 15.6% for Southern-born women, and from 35.3 to 9.7% for Western-born women.

We now turn to the aggregation of the four uniradix increment–decrement life tables—calculated for each regional share of the initial cohort—into a multiregional life table directly comparable to that obtained from the approach based on commonly available data. This aggregation raises the fundamental question of how to choose the most appropriate regional distribution of the initial cohort.

We suggest here that, since the mobility and mortality patterns studied in our USA illustration are those of a given period (1965–1970), the radices or regional shares of the initial cohort ought to be in proportion to the numbers of female births observed in each region over the same period. On this basis, the initial cohort, which we can arbitrarily set equal to 100,000 persons, should be allocated as follows: 22,735 (Northeast), 27,791 (North Central), 32,245 (South), and 17,229 (West).

The aggregated transition probabilities (for females of exact age 20) which result from such a regional allocation are shown in the first part of Table 6; the second part of the table shows the corresponding transition probabilities obtained with the place-of-birth-independent approach.

The two corresponding sets of transition probabilities are very similar, with significant discrepancies arising only in the probabilities of migration out of the West. The retention probability for the West region calculated using the place-of-birth-dependent approach is 0.9106 as compared with 0.8907 from the place-of-birth-

TABLE 6 Transition probabilities for females exactly 20 years old: comparison between the place-of-birth-dependent and place-of-birth-independent approaches.

From	To				
	Northeast	North Central	South	West	Death
Place-of-birth-dependent approach					
Northeast	0.8975	0.0262	0.0461	0.0272	0.003064
North Central	0.0191	0.8869	0.0448	0.0458	0.003418
South	0.0285	0.0444	0.8901	0.3320	0.003828
West	0.0156	0.0312	0.0392	0.9106	0.003408
Place-of-birth-independent approach					
Northeast	0.8959	0.0265	0.0480	0.0265	0.003065
North Central	0.0194	0.8839	0.0485	0.0448	0.003420
South	0.0289	0.0443	0.8921	0.0309	0.003829
West	0.0187	0.0395	0.0476	0.8907	0.003409

independent approach; this corresponds to an absolute difference of 19.9 per thousand, compared to a maximum difference of 3.0 per thousand for the other regions. Similar results may also be observed for all the other age groups.

By contrast, the expectations of life which we obtain by aggregating the four place-of-birth-specific increment–decrement life tables calculated for each radix are quite different from those derived from the place-of-birth-independent approach. For example, the aggregated expectations of life for females of exact age 20 indicate that the number of remaining years to be spent in the region of residence are as follows: 45.4 years (if resident in the Northeast), 44.3 (if resident in the North Central region), 45.8 (if resident in the South), and 49.4 (if resident in the West); these should be compared with the values of 42.0, 41.1, 43.3, and 40.6 years, respectively, obtained from the place-of-birth-independent approach (see Table 7).

TABLE 7 Totals and regional distributions of expectations of remaining life (in years) for females exactly 20 years old: comparison between the place-of-birth-dependent and place-of-birth-independent approaches.

Region of residence	Number of years spent in region				
	Northeast	North Central	South	West	Total
Place-of-birth-dependent approach					
Northeast	45.39	2.25	5.26	3.26	56.16
North Central	1.60	44.27	5.01	5.94	56.83
South	2.53	4.27	45.79	4.00	56.58
West	1.43	3.07	3.81	49.39	57.70
Place-of-birth-independent approach					
Northeast	41.95	3.44	7.26	3.61	56.26
North Central	2.57	41.05	7.52	5.66	56.80
South	3.46	5.38	43.32	4.40	56.56
West	2.80	5.87	8.10	40.62	57.39

Comparison of the results given in Tables 6 and 7 thus indicates that the place-of-birth-dependent approach leads to aggregate multistate life-table functions which are either similar to or largely different from those obtained from the place-of-birth-independent approach, depending on whether they relate to events occurring over a single age interval or over a longer period of time.

However, we should note that the results just derived rely on an aggregation of the four uniradix increment–decrement life tables calculated for each regional share of the initial cohort using one particular system of statistical weighting: the system seems intuitively reasonable, but arguments can be made for and against it. This raises the problem of whether alternative allocations of the initial cohort among the regions would lead to quite different aggregated multiregional life tables. In view of this uncertainty, we performed an alternative aggregation of the four uniradix increment–decrement life tables, this time using identical weights (radices). The multistate life-table functions thus obtained (which are not shown here) did not appear to differ very significantly from those calculated earlier. Thus we conclude that as long as the state allocation of the initial cohort consists of radices which more or less reflect the weights of the regions with regard to some meaningful socio-economic factor—these weights are expected to represent an allocation which does not depart too much from an allocation into r equal parts—very similar estimates of the aggregate multistate life-table functions should be produced.

To summarize briefly, unlike the place-of-birth-independent approach, the more desirable place-of-birth-dependent approach leads to aggregate multistate life-table functions which depend on the regional allocation of the initial cohort. However, as long as the radices are chosen on a reasoned basis, this "radix problem" does not exert an overly large influence on the values obtained.

6 SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

An important assumption common to all life-table models is the population-homogeneity assumption stemming from the Markovian formulation of the models. This assumption is in sharp contrast to the observation that, in the real world, equally aged individuals of a given status category (i.e., belonging to a given state of the system) generally exhibit quite different tendencies to move out of their current status category.

These mobility differentials can be related first to different personal characteristics (e.g., sex, race) or socioeconomic characteristics (e.g., occupation) which affect the level of mobility at a given instant. Thus, to obtain more accurate estimates of increment–decrement life tables, it is possible simply to calculate separate life tables for those groups of people which can be easily distinguished, such as men and women or whites and non-whites, etc.

Second, and more important in the case of increment–decrement life tables, mobility differentials may also depend on whether the phenomenon may be repeated or not, and on the frequency of this repetition. Unfortunately, such differentials cannot generally be attributed to an easily identifiable characteristic and it is generally not possible to calculate separate life tables for more homogeneous groups. An exception to this statement occurs in the analysis of migration, when adequate census data allow one to distinguish homogeneous groups of migrants on the basis of

their place of birth. In this case an alternative multiregional life table can be constructed as a set of uniradix increment–decrement life tables corresponding to each of the regional shares of the initial cohort.

Compared with the traditional approach to the calculation of a multiregional life table, this alternative approach appears to provide not only more detail (in the case of the transition probabilities) but also more accuracy (in the case of the expectations of life at birth): this improvement is the result of considering a more realistic migration pattern, one which explicitly accounts for return migration to the birthplace (a demographic phenomenon of considerable importance, as shown in Section 3).

However, we must note that the improvements in the calculation of multiregional life tables thus achieved represent only a partial step toward the total removal of the population-homogeneity assumption implicit in the traditional approach: this assumption is still present within the stationary population associated with each radix.

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APPENDIX A: A BRIEF DESCRIPTION OF THE METHOD OF CALCULATION

The general calculation procedure used to construct both the uniradix and the multiradix increment–decrement life tables considered in this paper consists of two main steps:

1. First, estimating a set of transition probabilities $\bar{\mathbf{p}}_x$ conditional on survival, from the observed transition proportions conditional on survival (obtained from the matrices shown in Table 3 by dividing each element by the sum of the elements in the same row).

2. Second, transforming the $\bar{\mathbf{p}}_x$ into the required set of transition probabilities $\mathbf{p}_x$ by introducing mortality information.

More specifically, this procedure means that $\mathbf{p}_x$ is derived from

$$\mathbf{p}_x = \bar{\mathbf{p}}_x \mathbf{p}_x^\sigma \tag{A1}$$

where $\bar{\mathbf{p}}_x$ is a matrix of transition probabilities conditional on survival, evaluated in terms of the observed transition proportions conditional on survival ($\bar{\mathbf{S}}_x$), and $\mathbf{p}_x^\sigma$ is a diagonal matrix of survival probabilities.

As a first approximation, $\bar{\mathbf{p}}_x$ can be estimated using the averaging formula proposed by Rees and Wilson (1977)

$$\bar{\mathbf{p}}_x = \tfrac{1}{2}(\bar{\mathbf{S}}_{x-n} + \bar{\mathbf{S}}_x) \tag{A2}$$

However, a better estimation can be performed by interpolating between the conditional transition proportions in a less crude fashion. Ledent (1980a) suggests that for each pair of states i and j ($j \neq i$), one could interpolate between the conditional transition proportions ${}^i\bar{S}_x^j$ by using cubic-spline functions, which are increasingly coming into use in the field of demography (McNeil *et al.* 1977). Since we are dealing here with a five-year time interval (1965–1970), the ordinate—for age y—of the continuous curve thus obtained represents the probability that an indivi-

dual present at age y in region i will be present in region j five years later. In this way, it is possible, for each region i, to estimate at evenly spaced ages, $0, 5, 10, 15, \ldots$, migration probabilities ${}^i\bar{p}_x^j (j = 1, 2, \ldots, r; \ j \neq i)$, from which retention probabilities ${}^i\bar{p}_x^i = 1 - \sum_{j=1, j \neq i}^r {}^i\bar{p}_x^j$ immediately follow.

The estimation of the set of survival probabilities $\mathbf{p}_x^\sigma$, assuming the availability of conventional mortality-rate data for each region, is not so straightforward, because the two-step estimation procedure suggested by eqn. (A1) requires the mortality pattern to be a characteristic of the place of residence at the exact age $x (x = 0, n, 2n, \ldots)$ immediately below the age at which death occurs (rather than a characteristic of the place of death between ages x and $x + n$, as for conventional mortality rates).

The methodology used for such an estimation relies on an iterative procedure based on the estimation of mortality rates dependent on the place of residence at age x from the conventionally observed mortality rates (for details of the iterative procedure, see Ledent 1980b). Then, the required set of survival probabilities is obtained by analogy with the survival probability p_x of an ordinary life table from the relation

$$\mathbf{p}_x^\sigma = \left(\mathbf{I} + \frac{n}{2} \hat{\mathbf{M}}_x^\delta \right)^{-1} \left(\mathbf{I} - \frac{n}{2} \hat{\mathbf{M}}_x^\delta \right) \tag{A3}$$

where $\hat{\mathbf{M}}_x^\delta$ is a diagonal matrix containing the mortality rates previously estimated.

Finally, combining the estimates of $\bar{\mathbf{p}}_x$ and $\mathbf{p}_x^\sigma$ as shown in eqn. (A1) leads to the required estimates of $\mathbf{p}_x$ and then, by using eqn. (6'), to the estimates of $\mathbf{l}_x$. The numbers of person-years lived, $\mathbf{L}_x$, are then simply obtained using the usual linear-integration method (Rogers 1973, 1975) by assuming

$$\mathbf{L}_x = \frac{n}{2} \left(\mathbf{l}_x + \mathbf{l}_{x+n} \right) \tag{A4}$$

The T-statistics are then calculated from

$$\mathbf{T}_x = \sum_{k=0}^{z - x/n} \mathbf{L}_{x+kn} \tag{A5}$$

where z denotes the last age group, and the expectations of life follow by use of eqn. (10').

MULTISTATE POPULATION PROJECTIONS

Dimiter Philipov and Andrei Rogers

1 INTRODUCTION

Much of mathematical demography is concerned with the measurement and projection of changes of state, or *status*, experienced by individuals during their lifetime, e.g., changes in marital status, in employment status, in educational status, and in residential location. The study of such transitions from state to state and the evolution of the associated status-specific populations is the focus of a growing body of methodological techniques and applications sometimes referred to as *multistate demography* (Rogers 1980).

Recent work in multistate mathematical demography has identified a unifying matrix-based generalization of classical techniques, which illuminates the common features of many of the well-known methods for dealing with transfers between multiple states of existence. For example, it is now understood that multiple decrement life tables, marital status life tables, tables of working life, tables of educational life, and multiregional life tables are all members of a general class of increment–decrement life tables known as *multistate life tables*. It has also become evident that projections of populations disaggregated by status can be carried out using a common methodology—*multistate projection*.

Although traditional single-state methods are more parsimonious in their data requirements and provide reasonably adequate results for many purposes, they cannot deal with interstate transitions differentiated by origins and destinations and must, therefore, account for changes in stocks by reference to *net* totals, e.g., net migration. In a recent paper we have shown that such an approach may introduce biases and inconsistencies into a projection and that multistate models have a decisive advantage over single-state models as a consequence of their ability to produce disaggregated projections that trace the evolution of subcategories of a population over time and space (Rogers and Philipov 1979). This feature of multistate projection methods is developed in this paper, in the particular context of *multiregional* demography.

2 STATIONARY AND STABLE POPULATION DISTRIBUTIONS

To make our argument less abstract, imagine a single-sex population (females) disaggregated into five-year age groups, and for simplicity consider its spatial distribution to extend over only two regions, North and South. For a numerical illustration let us draw on 1965–1970 data for the United States previously examined in Rogers and Castro (1976) and, more recently, in Ledent (1980). These data are set

out in the Appendixes and will be used throughout this paper.* Note that three Census Regions, Northeast, North Central, and West, have been aggregated together to form a single region: the "rest of the United States" or, more simply, the North.

In 1968, the female population of the USA stood at 102.3 million, with 32.5 million in the South and 69.8 million in the North (Appendix A). Conventional single-region life table calculations give a Southern-born baby girl a life expectancy of 74.11 years, just four months less than the corresponding life expectancy of a baby girl born in the North. The gross reproduction rates in the two regions are 1.18 and 1.16, respectively.

Consider next the results of a multiregional (two-state) analysis (Rogers 1975). First, computing a biregional life table (Appendix B) we observe that about 27% of a Southern-born baby girl's life expectancy can be expected to be lived in the North. Projecting the biregional population 30 years forward on the assumption of constant rates gives a 1998 national total of 138.6 million, with 33.0% residing in the South (Appendix B). Continuing this projection to stability yields an ultimate share for the South of 34.5% and an intrinsic rate of growth of 4.361 per thousand (Appendix B).

The expectation of life at birth in a conventional single-state life table with a unit radix may be interpreted as the stationary population that underlies the life table calculations. This is also true for multistate life tables; hence, we may conclude that in the stationary biregional population set out in Appendix B about 72.6% of the total Southern-born population resides in the South as *natives*, whereas 84.8% of the Northern-born population lives in the North. This leaves the remaining 15.2% to live in the South as *aliens* (i.e., individuals living in a place different from their place of birth).

Multiplying the stationary population in each age group by $\exp[-r(x+2.5)]$, where r is the intrinsic rate of growth and x is the starting age of the age group, gives the relative age distribution of the place-of-birth-specific stable population resident in each region. Since r is relatively small in our USA illustration ($r = 0.004361$), the stable share of natives and aliens in each region differs only slightly from the stationary (life-table) share, with the percentages of natives given above (72.6% and 84.8%) shifting to 72.3% and 86.4%, respectively. Multiplying each of these by the stable shares of the national population in each region (i.e., 34.5% and 65.5%, respectively) gives the stable shares of the national population in each of the four place-of-residence-by-place-of-birth (PRPB) subcategories, as shown in the bottom line of Table 1.

3 NATIVE-INDEPENDENT MULTISTATE PRPB POPULATION PROJECTIONS

Several recent studies of migration have emphasized the importance of analyzing the flow patterns of *return* migrants, pointing to the not-surprising empirical fact that the migration rates of people returning to their region of birth are significantly higher than average (Ledent 1980, Lee 1974, Long and Hansen 1975, Miller 1977).

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* Appendix A contains the Rogers and Castro data; Appendix C presents the Ledent data.

TABLE 1 PRPB distribution at stability of national and regional female population of the USA ($r = 0.004361$).

	Resident in South		Resident in North	
	Born in South	Born in North	Born in North	Born in South
Percentage of regional population	72.3	27.7	86.4	13.6
Percentage of national population	34.5		65.5	
Percentage distribution of national population	24.9	9.6	56.6	8.9

In the next section we follow this advice and introduce higher transition probabilities for return migrants in the multistate projection model. We shall call the outputs of such models *native-dependent projections*. In this section, however, we treat first the simpler case of *native-independent projections*, i.e., projections carried out with models assuming that all of the individuals in a regional population experience identical age-specific probabilities of moving, dying, and bearing offspring.*

3.1 Fertility

In projecting a multistate population forward over time, we shall at times refer to people by where they live and at other times by where they were born. This poses no difficulties when we are dealing with survivors of a current population; it simply becomes a matter of keeping track of individuals born in each region. It is the births of new individuals that need to be examined, because the babies may be born in the region of residence of their parents at the start or at the end of the unit interval of time, and they themselves may migrate during the same interval into yet another region.

In the conventional multistate projection model, some of the babies born in a given region during a unit time interval (t, $t + 1$) may be living in another region at the end of that interval. Consequently, at time $t + 1$ these babies can be distinguished both by their place of residence, j, and by their place of birth, i. Moreover, they may also be classified by the region of residence, say k, of their parent at the *start* of the time interval, because each regional population of parents is a potential contributor of babies to each PRPB-specific category of babies. For example, in our two-region illustration based on USA data, we distinguish four categories of babies for parents initially resident in each region. Figure 1 shows the four categories corresponding to parents initially resident in the South; there are of course four equivalent categories for babies born to parents initially resident in the North.

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* Because of the unavailability of the necessary fertility and mortality data, we are unable to introduce native-dependency in birth and death rates.

Time *t*   Time (*t, t* + 1)   Time (*t* + 1)
Region of residence   Region of birth   Region of residence
of parent   of baby   of baby
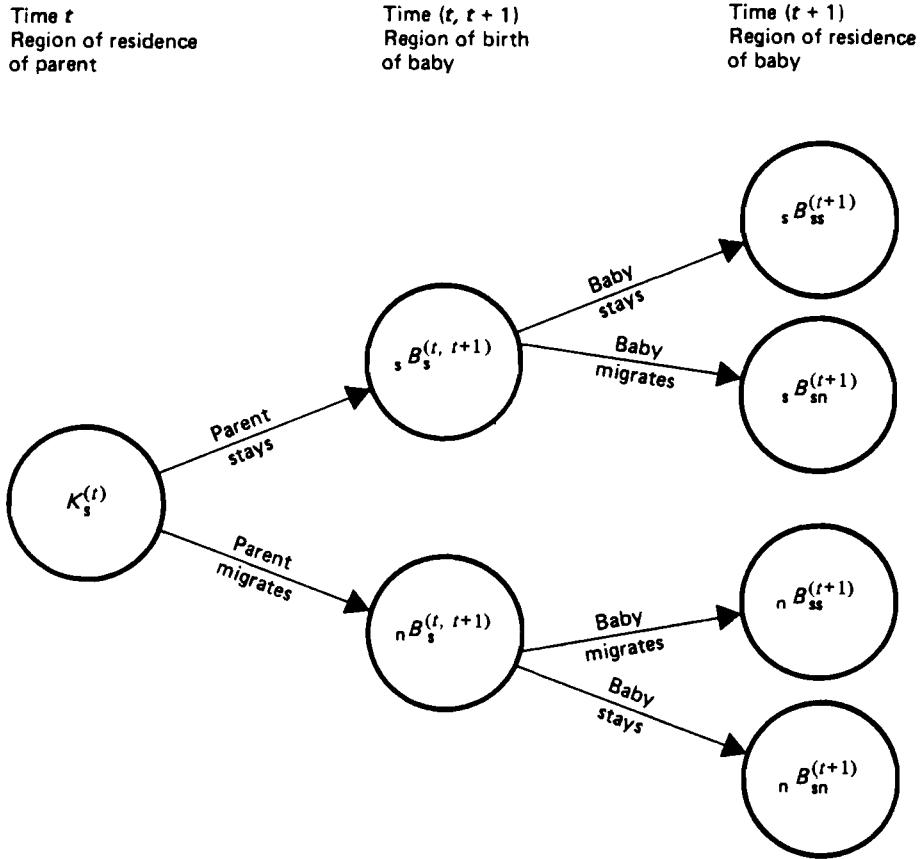
FIGURE 1   The four categories of babies born to parents resident in the South at time *t*.

Let

$$b_{kj}^{i}(x) = \frac{{}_{i}B_{kj}^{(t+1)}(x)}{K_{k}^{(t)}(x)} \tag{1}$$

denote the average number of babies born during the five-year time interval (*t, t* + 1) in region *i* and alive in region *j* at time *t* + 1, for every individual between the ages of *x* and *x* + 4 living in region *k* at time *t*. Summing over all birthplaces *i* gives the conventional multiregional birth rate (Rogers 1975, p. 121)

$$b_{kj}(x) = \frac{1}{2}\left[\frac{{}_{k0}L_{j}(0)}{l_{k}(0)}F_{k}(x) + \sum_{h=1}^{m} s_{kh}(x)\frac{{}_{h0}L_{j}(0)}{l_{h}(0)}F_{h}(x+5)\right] \tag{2}$$

where

$F_{h}(x)$ is the annual birth rate of people aged *x* to *x* + 4 residing in region *h*

${}_{h0}L_{j}(0)$ is the total number of person-years lived between ages 0 and 5 in region *j*, per person born in region *h*

$s_{kh}(x)$ is the proportion of people living in region k and aged x to $x + 4$ that survive to be in region h and aged $x + 5$ to $x + 9$, five years later

$l_h(0)$ is the radix of region h (set equal to unity in our calculations)

m is the total number of regions

Since, by definition

$$b_{kj}(x) = \sum_{i=1}^{m} b_{kj}^{i}(x) \tag{3}$$

it is easy to develop computational formulas for $b_{kj}^{i}(x)$ by taking the appropriate components from eqn. (2). For our two-region (South–North) example, this gives four equations of the form

$$b_{kj}^{k}(x) = \frac{1}{2} \frac{{}_k{}_0 L_j(0)}{l_k(0)} [F_k(x) + s_{kk}(x)F_k(x+5)] \tag{4}$$

for $(k, j) = $ (n, n), (s, s), (n, s), (s, n)

for parents in two regions who do not migrate between time t and the birth of the infant $(i = k)$, but whose child may or may not migrate before $t + 1(j = k$ or $j \neq k)$; and four equations

$$b_{kj}^{i}(x) = \frac{1}{2} \frac{{}_i{}_0 L_j(0)}{l_i(0)} [s_{ki}(x)F_i(x+5)] \tag{5}$$

for $(i, j, k) = $ (n, s, s), (n, n, s), (s, n, n), (s, s, n)

corresponding to parents who do migrate between time t and the birth of the infant $(i \neq k)$, but whose child may or may not migrate before $t + 1(j = i$ or $j \neq i)$. This implies that a child may migrate without its parents between the ages of 0 and 5.

3.2 Projection

The age-specific birth rates, by region of birth of child, may be incorporated into the standard multiregional projection model (Rogers 1975, Chap. 5) transforming that model into a *multistate* projection model, where the states of interest are places of birth. This transformation makes it possible to generate projections that keep track of the regions of birth, i.e., that produce PRPB projections.

Appendix B describes the matrix model. Note that the Markovian assumption is still retained. All individuals in a region, recent in-migrants as well as established residents, aliens as well as natives, are assumed to experience identical probabilities of transition. This assumption is relaxed in Section 4.

Appendix B sets out the multistate growth matrix for our two-region (South–North), two-state (natives and aliens) example. Appendix B also presents the stable distribution across states that ultimately arises if this projection matrix is applied to *any* observed population. The stable distribution depends only on the elements of the growth matrix and not on the initial (base-year) population distribution. (Since it is also of some interest to use the matrix to generate projections, a 30-year projection based on the 1968 population is included in Appendix B.)

The stable growth results in Appendix B may be compared with the results of the conventional projection presented earlier in the same Appendix. Note that the intrinsic rate of growth remains the same ($r = 0.004361$), as does the spatial distribution of the national population ($sha_s = 34.46\%$ and $sha_n = 65.54\%$). The national and regional age compositions remain unchanged, with the mean age in the South being 37.94 years and that in the North 36.65. In short, the two projections to stability give identical results, as they indeed must. The multistate projection, however, includes additional information: it disaggregates regional populations by place of birth. It reveals, for example, that, at stability, the mean age of the alien population in the South will be about 15.3 years older than that of the native population and some 2.5 years older than the North's alien population. All of these stable growth results, however, could be obtained *without* the multistate growth matrix. We have shown earlier (Table 1) that a simple weighting of the stationary multiregional life table population gives identical results. The usefulness of the growth matrix, therefore, lies in generating projections such as that presented at the end of Appendix B.

4   NATIVE-DEPENDENT MULTISTATE PRPB POPULATION PROJECTIONS

4.1   Data

It is widely recognized that the migration rates of return migrants are significantly greater than the average rates of migration to the same destination (Ledent 1980, Long and Hansen 1975, Miller 1977). Migration data published by the 1970 US Census provide empirical support for this observation (US Bureau of the Census 1973). Appendix C contains the relevant figures for our two-region example.

The first table in the Appendix presents data on the Southern-born population residing in the South in 1968. It shows that the crude rate of migration of Southern-born females to the North was 6.12 per thousand. The next table sets out the corresponding data for the Southern-born population living in the North; this group has a crude migration rate to the South (i.e., return migration) of 18.30 per thousand, roughly three times as large. Nevertheless, because the Southern-born population resident in the South is much larger than that resident in the North, the corresponding *net* migration of Southern-borns into the South is negative.

The data on the Northern-born population living in the South show that the crude rate of return migration to the North is 32.39 per thousand, about ten times the rate of Northern-borns migrating to the South (3.72 per thousand, according to Appendix C). Once again, the net migration of natives into their region of birth is negative.

Appendix C also indicates that the native–alien composition of the flows in the two directions differs. The five-year flow from the South to the North consists of 883.4 thousand Southern-borns and 580.9 thousand Northern-borns, a 1.5:1 ratio. The flow from the North to the South, on the other hand, consists of 1.2 million Northern-borns and 562.1 thousand returning Southern-borns, a 2.1:1 ratio. The

principal reason for this difference is the 2:1 ratio of the two populations under consideration. The North, with about two-thirds of the national population, sends roughly 1.2 times more migrants to the South than it receives in return (Figure 2).

Although native-dependent migration data are available for the USA, there is apparently no comparable data on fertility and mortality. Thus, in the next sections we retain the Markovian assumption for birth and death rates, assuming that
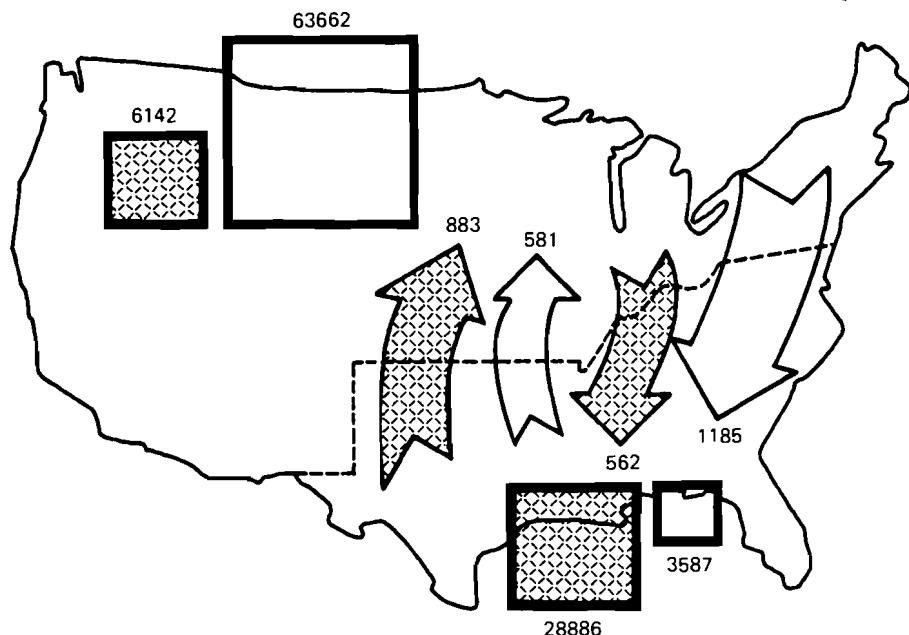
Population stocks, 1968 (in thousands)	Migration flows, 1965–1970 (in thousands)	Migration rates per thousand		
			N→S	S→N
Born in North ☐	Born in North ⟹	Born in North	3.72	32.39
Born in South ▨	Born in South ⟹	Born in South	18.30	6.12

FIGURE 2 Population flows between two regions (North and South) of the USA, disaggregated by region of birth. Note that the migration flows cover a five-year period (1965–1970) but the migration rates are crude (annual) values for 1968.

everyone residing in a given region is exposed to the same fertility and mortality regimes. Consequently, our development of a native-dependent multistate projection model will treat only migration as being native-dependent. The necessary extensions to include fertility and mortality should be straightforward, but for the USA, at least, it is not likely that such an extension would produce significantly different results. There are situations, however, where it could make a great deal of difference, e.g., in projecting urban and rural populations.

4.2 Life Table

The computation of a PRPB native-dependent life table is a straightforward exercise (Ledent 1980). One simply calculates a separate table for each cohort, applying to it the appropriate PRPB probabilities. No conceptual innovations are required; indeed, a standard multiregional life table program (Willekens and Rogers 1978) may be used. A program of this type and the data in Appendix C were used to produce the native-dependent life table summarized in Appendix D.

Appendix D shows that the probabilities of return migration are significantly larger than those of non-return migration. For example, the probability that a Southern-born 20-year-old female living in the South will be in the North five years later is 0.0551. For the corresponding Northern-born females living in the South this probability is 0.2749; i.e., return migration is five times more probable than non-return migration. Roughly the same ratio is exhibited by the probabilities of aliens and natives migrating to the South (0.0263 compared with 0.1300).

Applying these probabilities to Southern-born and Northern-born cohorts in a multistate life table results in the expectations of life given in Appendix D. As an example, Table 2 presents the expected distribution of remaining lifetime for the two cohorts at age 20. The table illustrates the striking effect that place of birth has on the locations where the individual is expected to spend the rest of her life. A Southern-born female living in the North at age 20 is likely to spend over half of her remaining expected lifetime of 56.59 years in her region of birth, while a Northern-born female of the same age and place of residence is only likely to spend five years of her remaining lifetime in the South, i.e., six times less than the native Southerner.

TABLE 2 Distribution of life expectancy at exact age 20 by place of birth, place of residence at age 20, and place of future residence.

	Born in South		Born in North	
	Resident in South (age 20)	Resident in North (age 20)	Resident in South (age 20)	Resident in North (age 20)
Future years spent in South	46.41	32.43	13.06	5.08
Future years spent in North	10.10	24.16	43.52	51.55
Total remaining life expectancy	56.51	56.59	56.58	56.63

4.3 Fertility

The introduction of native-dependent migration behavior into the calculation of the fertility elements of the multistate growth matrix is straightforward and uses the native-dependent probabilities and survivorship proportions defined in the native-dependent life table. The formulas for $b^i_{kj}(x)$ become

$$b^i_{kj} = \sum_{h=1}^{m} {}_h b^i_{kj}(x) \tag{6}$$

where the rates now include a subscript on the left-hand side to denote the place of birth of the parent and hence the place-of-birth-specific probabilities used to calculate expected births.

The required computation procedure can be more readily understood if eqns. (4) and (5) are first re-expressed in the alternative form (Willekens and Rogers 1978, p. 59)

$$b^k_{kj}(x) = \tfrac{5}{4}p_{kj}(0)[F_k(x) + s_{kk}(x)F_k(x+5)] \qquad j \neq k \tag{7}$$

$$= \tfrac{5}{4}[1 + p_{kk}(0)][F_k(x) + s_{kk}(x)F_k(x+5)] \qquad j = k \tag{8}$$

$$b^i_{kj}(x) = \tfrac{5}{4}p_{ii}(0)[s_{ki}(x)F_i(x+5)] \qquad j \neq i \tag{9}$$

$$= \tfrac{5}{4}[1 + p_{ii}(0)][s_{ki}(x)F_i(x+5)] \qquad j = i \tag{10}$$

since

$$\frac{{}_{k0}L_j(0)}{l_k(0)} = \tfrac{5}{2}p_{kj}(0) \qquad k \neq j \tag{11}$$

and

$$\frac{{}_{k0}L_k(0)}{l_k(0)} = \tfrac{5}{2}[1 + p_{kk}(0)] \qquad k = j \tag{12}$$

when the linear integration formula is used to calculate person-years on a unit radix.

Equations (7–10) may be made native-dependent by replacing $p_{kj}(0)$ by ${}_h p_{kj}(0)$ and $s_{ki}(x)$ by ${}_h s_{ki}(x)$. The native-dependent probabilities and survivorship proportions may be obtained from the multistate life table (see, for example, Appendix D). In our two-region numerical example, the birth rates with h equal to the baby's place of birth may be found as a residual

$${}_h b^h_{kj}(x) = {}_h b_{kj}(x) - {}_h b^i_{kl}(x) \tag{13}$$

4.4 Projection

The various native-dependent birth rates and survivorship proportions are collected to form the matrices $\mathbf{B}(x)$ and $\mathbf{S}(x)$ defined in eqn. (B6) of Appendix B and organized in the structure of the growth matrix defined in eqn. (B5), and illustrated in Appendix D. This yields a native-dependent multistate projection model that distinguishes among transition probabilities and regional populations according to place of birth. Such a model produces projections somewhat different to those of the native-independent counterpart discussed in Section 3 of this paper. Table 3 compares selected outputs; more detailed results from the native-dependent model may be found in Appendix D.

Table 3 identifies two very important characteristics of native-dependent and native-independent projections. First, aggregate totals and growth rates are the same in both projections if the Markovian assumption is retained for fertility and mortality rates. For example, both methods predict that the total female population of the USA will be 138.6 million in 1998 and will ultimately attain a stable rate of growth of 0.00436. Second, the percentage share of *natives* in each regional population is

TABLE 3   Native-dependent and native-independent PRPB projections of the 1968 female population of the USA: to 1998 and to stability.

Year	Resident in South		Resident in North		Total population[a]
	Born in South	Born in North	Born in North	Born in South	
(a) *Native-dependent projections*[b]					
1968	28,885,548	3,586,779	63,662,232	6,142,451	102,277,016
(% of total)	(28.2)	(3.5)	(62.2)	(6.0)	(100)
1998	38,495,044	6,289,250	86,446,904	7,378,696	138,609,888
(% of total)	(27.8)	(4.5)	(62.4)	(5.3)	(100)
(% of stable population)	(26.9)	(5.0)	(63.3)	(4.7)	(100)
(b) *Native-independent projections*[c]					
1968	28,885,548	3,586,779	63,662,232	6,142,451	102,277,016
(% of total)	(28.2)	(3.5)	(62.2)	(6.0)	(100)
1998	34,966,964	10,832,081	81,580,392	11,213,492	138,592,928
(% of total)	(25.2)	(7.8)	(58.9)	(8.1)	(100)
(% of stable population)	(24.9)	(9.6)	(56.6)	(8.9)	(100)

[a] Totals may not equal the sums of the columns due to independent rounding.
[b] From Appendix D ($r = 0.004360$).
[c] From Appendix B ($r = 0.004361$).

consistently underestimated in the native-independent projections because they do not take into account the higher probabilities of return migration. This suggests that disaggregations by place of birth may not lead to significant improvements in the accuracy with which national population *growth* is projected; however, they are important in analyzing projected *redistributions* of national populations.

Note that in the native-dependent projection the South's share of the national population consistently hovers at the level of 32%, whereas in the native-independent projection it increases slightly over time to an ultimate share of just over 34%. A comparison of the mean ages of natives and aliens as given in Appendixes B and D suggests that the native-dependent projection generates a slightly *older* native population and a *younger* alien population in each region.

5   EXTENSIONS

The fundamental concepts discussed in this paper have been illustrated with a four-state projection model in which two of the states referred to regions of residence and the other two to regions of birth. This disaggregation produced PRPB population projections, i.e., projections of regional populations disaggregated into *natives* and *aliens*. The extension of this projection methodology to a larger number of states is relatively straightforward. For example, we may further disaggregate natives into *stayers**, who have never left the region of birth, and *returners*, who have left the

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* Stayers can only be approximated by assuming that individuals present in a region both at the beginning and end of a unit interval of time did not leave the region during this period.

region of birth and come back again. Similarly, aliens may be disaggregated into *recent aliens*, aliens who have arrived during the most recent time interval, and *established aliens*, who arrived previously. Thus we have the disaggregation

residents = natives + aliens
= stayers + returners + established aliens + recent aliens

The projected native-independent stable population presented in Appendix B is disaggregated in this way in Appendix E. An analogous result could be obtained for the native-dependent stable population in Appendix D.

Table 4 contains selected results from Appendix E. It is interesting to note the surprisingly low shares of the native and alien populations accounted for by returners and recent aliens, respectively, and to observe the large variations in the mean ages of the various status-specific populations.

TABLE 4 Characteristics of four different resident categories in the stable population[a], calculated using the native-independent projection ($r = 0.004361$).

Type of resident	South			North		
	Stable regional population	% of regional total	Mean age	Stable regional population	% of regional total	Mean age
Natives						
Stayers	30,996,010	69.3	32.71	71,193,688	83.7	34.48
Returners	1,377,703	3.1	56.29	2,320,481	2.7	53.83
Aliens						
Established aliens	10,674,229	23.8	51.82	10,225,156	12.0	49.35
Recent aliens	1,700,556	3.8	31.42	1,360,090	1.6	25.42
All residents	44,748,500	100	37.94	85,099,416	100	36.65

[a] The stable population given here is proportional to that listed in Appendix B, and can be scaled to the same totals.

6 CONCLUSION

Multistate population projections disaggregate conventional population projections into a number of state-specific subcategories, such as region of residence, region of birth, and duration of residence in the current location. The disaggregated projections should produce more accurate results if interstate transition probabilities are dependent on the categories chosen. This appears to be particularly true for projections of the distribution of an aggregate population across categories of several types. In our numerical example it was necessary to assume native-independent fertility and mortality rates, and so the aggregate growth rate of the population, not surprisingly, was unaffected by the disaggregation. However, more interesting results are likely to be obtained, for example, by using urban–rural fertility data in a projection for a typical developing country.

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APPENDIX A

Native-independent input data, disaggregated by region of residence, for the female population of the USA in 1968*.

Data for South

age	population number	population %	births number	births %	deaths number	deaths %	arrivals number	arrivals %	departures number	departures %	birth	observed death	rates (×1000) inmig	rates (×1000) outmig	net mig
0	3334898	10.27	0	0.00	17782	8.24	209403	11.99	199715	13.64	0.000	5.332	12.558	11.977	0.581
5	3542782	10.91	0	0.00	1584	0.70	172787	9.89	153848	10.51	0.000	0.425	9.754	8.685	1.069
10	3339162	10.28	2626	0.49	1161	0.54	162400	9.30	148174	10.12	0.786	0.348	9.727	8.875	0.852
15	2891785	8.91	114390	21.48	1853	0.86	272908	15.62	272329	18.60	39.557	0.641	18.875	18.835	0.040
20	2311419	7.12	183919	34.54	1786	0.83	215741	12.35	219342	14.98	79.570	0.773	18.667	18.979	-0.312
25	1990180	6.13	121960	22.90	1888	0.87	141976	8.13	125653	8.58	61.281	0.949	14.268	12.627	1.640
30	2037422	6.27	67009	12.58	2846	1.32	107328	6.14	89143	6.09	32.889	1.397	10.536	8.751	1.785
35	1985913	6.12	32854	6.17	4479	2.08	85610	4.90	67244	4.59	16.544	2.255	8.622	6.772	1.850
40	1986324	6.12	9189	1.73	6585	3.05	72598	4.16	51118	3.49	4.626	3.315	7.310	5.147	2.163
45	1978231	6.09	584	0.11	9402	4.36	57991	3.32	34586	2.36	0.295	4.753	5.863	3.497	2.366
50	1734004	5.34	0	0.00	11382	5.27	54761	3.13	25819	1.76	0.000	6.564	6.316	2.978	3.338
55	1607191	4.95	0	0.00	15289	7.08	68248	3.91	20932	1.43	0.000	9.513	8.493	2.605	5.888
60	1086849	3.35	0	0.00	14476	6.71	55626	3.18	17635	1.20	0.000	13.319	10.236	3.245	6.991
65	932570	2.87	0	0.00	19581	9.07	33834	1.94	14781	1.01	0.000	20.997	7.256	3.170	4.086
70	709600	2.19	0	0.00	22675	10.51	19852	1.14	13320	0.91	0.000	31.955	5.595	3.754	1.841
75	495358	1.53	0	0.00	26323	12.20	11912	0.68	7993	0.55	0.000	53.139	4.809	3.227	1.582
80	293348	0.92	0	0.00	25558	11.84	2979	0.17	1998	0.14	0.000	85.379	1.990	1.335	0.655
85	209286	0.64	0	0.00	31275	14.49	994	0.06	667	0.05	0.000	149.437	0.950	0.637	0.312
tot	32472326	100.00	532531	100.00	215845	100.00	1746948	100.00	1464297	100.00					
m.age	30.80		25.08		62.15		25.86		22.10						

South aggregate rates:
- birth: gross 1.178; crude (×1000) 16.400; e(0)/m.age 25.80
- observed death: 1.952; 6.647; 77.51; e(0) 74.11
- inmig: 0.809; 10.760; 34.60
- outmig: 0.625; 9.019; 29.13
- net mig: 1.741

Data for North

age	population number	population %	births number	births %	deaths number	deaths %	arrivals number	arrivals %	departures number	departures %	birth	observed death	rates (×1000) inmig	rates (×1000) outmig	net mig
0	7452446	10.68	0	0.00	36704	8.08	199715	13.64	209403	11.99	0.000	4.925	5.360	5.620	-0.260
5	7848825	11.24	0	0.00	2855	0.63	153848	10.51	172787	9.89	0.000	0.364	3.920	4.403	-0.483
10	7183312	10.29	2296	0.21	2015	0.44	148174	10.12	162400	9.30	0.320	0.281	4.126	4.522	-0.396
15	6089654	8.72	165521	15.25	3426	0.75	272329	18.60	272908	15.62	27.181	0.563	8.944	8.963	-0.019
20	4912590	7.04	370626	34.16	3229	0.71	219342	14.98	215741	12.35	75.444	0.657	8.930	8.783	0.147
25	4167663	5.97	280926	25.89	3245	0.71	125653	8.58	141976	8.13	67.406	0.779	6.030	6.813	-0.783
30	4380822	6.28	162729	15.00	4860	1.07	89143	6.09	107328	6.14	37.146	1.109	4.070	4.900	-0.830
35	4279997	6.13	79516	7.33	7808	1.72	67244	4.59	85610	4.90	18.579	1.824	3.142	4.000	-0.858
40	4459036	6.39	22108	2.04	12563	2.77	51118	3.49	72598	4.16	4.958	2.817	2.293	3.256	-0.963
45	4572721	6.55	1358	0.13	18994	4.18	34586	2.36	57991	3.32	0.297	4.154	1.513	2.536	-1.024
50	3706203	5.31	0	0.00	22826	5.03	25819	1.76	54761	3.13	0.000	6.159	1.393	2.955	-1.562
55	3319385	4.76	0	0.00	30054	6.62	20932	1.43	68248	3.91	0.000	9.054	1.261	4.112	-2.851
60	2699925	2.97	0	0.00	27637	6.08	17635	1.20	55626	3.18	0.000	13.352	1.307	4.120	-2.813
65	1731326	2.48	0	0.00	36548	8.05	14781	1.01	33834	1.94	0.000	21.110	1.707	3.908	-2.201
70	1438705	2.06	0	0.00	49052	10.80	13320	0.91	19852	1.14	0.000	34.695	1.852	2.760	-0.908
75	1066579	1.53	0	0.00	60513	13.32	7993	0.55	11912	0.68	0.000	56.736	1.499	2.234	-0.735
80	668357	0.96	0	0.00	59863	13.18	1998	0.14	2979	0.17	0.000	89.567	0.598	0.891	-0.294
85	457131	0.65	0	0.00	71996	15.85	667	0.05	994	0.06	0.000	157.495	0.292	0.435	-0.143
tot	69804680	100.00	1085089	100.00	454188	100.00	1464297	100.00	1746948	100.00					
m.age	30.40		26.05		63.52		22.10		25.86						

North aggregate rates:
- birth: gross 1.157; crude (×1000) 15.545; e(0)/m.age 26.63
- observed death: 2.025; 6.507; 78.09; e(0) 74.45
- inmig: 0.293; 4.195; 29.50
- outmig: 0.382; 5.005; 35.17
- net mig: -0.810

* Note that the numbers of arrivals and departures cover a five-year period (1965–1970); all other numbers and rates refer to a single year (1968).

APPENDIX A (*continued*)

Native-independent input data—continued*.

Data for the whole USA

age	population number	population – % –	births number	births – % –	deaths number	deaths – % –	arrivals number	arrivals – % –	departures number	departures – % –	birth	observed death	observed rates (x 1000) inmig	outmig	net mig
0	10787344.	10.55	0.	0.00	54486.	8.13	409118.	12.74	409118.	12.74	0.000	5.051	7.585	7.585	0.000
5	11391607.	11.14	0.	0.00	4359.	0.65	326635.	10.17	326635.	10.17	0.000	0.383	5.735	5.735	0.000
10	10522474.	10.29	4922.	0.30	3176.	0.47	310574.	9.67	310574.	9.67	0.468	0.302	5.903	5.903	0.000
15	8981439.	8.78	279911.	17.30	5279.	0.79	545237.	16.98	545237.	16.98	31.165	0.588	12.141	12.141	0.000
20	7224009.	7.06	554545.	34.28	5015.	0.75	435083.	13.55	435083.	13.55	76.764	0.694	12.045	12.045	0.000
25	6157843.	6.02	402886.	24.91	5133.	0.77	267629.	8.33	267629.	8.33	65.426	0.834	8.692	8.692	0.000
30	6418244.	6.28	229738.	14.20	7706.	1.15	196471.	6.12	196471.	6.12	35.795	1.201	6.122	6.122	0.000
35	6265910.	6.13	112370.	6.95	12287.	1.83	152854.	4.76	152854.	4.76	17.934	1.961	4.879	4.879	0.000
40	6445360.	6.30	31297.	1.93	19148.	2.86	123716.	3.85	123716.	3.85	4.856	2.971	3.839	3.839	0.000
45	6550952.	6.41	1942.	0.12	28396.	4.24	92577.	2.88	92577.	2.88	0.296	4.335	2.826	2.826	0.000
50	5440207.	5.32	0.	0.00	34208.	5.11	80580.	2.51	80580.	2.51	0.000	6.288	2.962	2.962	0.000
55	4926576.	4.82	0.	0.00	45343.	6.77	89180.	2.78	89180.	2.78	0.000	9.204	3.620	3.620	0.000
60	3156774.	3.09	0.	0.00	42113.	6.29	73261.	2.28	73261.	2.28	0.000	13.341	4.642	4.642	0.000
65	2663896.	2.60	0.	0.00	56129.	8.38	48615.	1.51	48615.	1.51	0.000	21.070	3.650	3.650	0.000
70	2148305.	2.10	0.	0.00	71727.	10.70	33172.	1.03	33172.	1.03	0.000	33.388	3.088	3.088	0.000
75	1561937.	1.53	0.	0.00	86836.	12.96	19905.	0.62	19905.	0.62	0.000	55.595	2.549	2.549	0.000
80	967705.	0.95	0.	0.00	85421.	12.75	4977.	0.15	4977.	0.15	0.000	88.272	1.029	1.029	0.000
85	666417.	0.65	0.	0.00	103271.	15.41	1661.	0.05	1661.	0.05	0.000	154.965	0.498	0.498	0.000
total	102277000.	100.00	1617611.	100.00	670033.	100.00	3211245.	100.00	3211245.	100.00					
gross											1.164	2.002	0.459	0.459	0.000
crude (x1000)		30.53		25.73		63.08		24.15		24.15	15.816	6.551	6.280	6.280	
m age											26.36	77.91	32.54	32.54	
e(0)												74.34			

* Note that the numbers of arrivals and departures cover a five-year period (1965–1970); all other numbers and rates refer to a single year (1968).

APPENDIX B: NATIVE-INDEPENDENT MULTISTATE ANALYSIS

Notation used in Appendix B:

1 = region South

2 = region North

$q(x, i)$ = probability of dying in region i between ages x and $x + 4$

$p(x, i, j)$ = probability of living in region i at age $x + 4$ having lived in region j at age x

$l(x, i, j)$ = number of people living in region i at exact age x who were born in region j

$ll(x, i, j)$ = number of years lived in region i between ages x and $x + 4$ by an individual born in region j

$m(x, i, j)$ = age-specific rates of migration from region j to region i for the life-table population

$md(x, i)$ = age-specific rates of dying in region i for the life-table population

$s(x, i, j)$ = proportion of people aged x to $x + 4$ in region j surviving to be in region i aged $x + 5$ to $x + 9$ five years later

$e(x, i, j)$ = expectation of life at exact age x of an individual born in region j and living in region i

The computer output representing the growth matrix is labeled in the following manner. The block of data headed "region $i \rightarrow j$" refers to individuals born in region i but resident in region j at time t. Each block is divided into two main sections, headed "first row" and "survivorship proportions". The matrix headed "first row" provides information on the number of offspring born to individuals in the "region $i \rightarrow j$" category. The columns $k \rightarrow l$ describe the number of children born in region k between time t and $t + 5$, and surviving in region l at time $t + 5$, for each individual aged x in category "region $i \rightarrow j$". The matrix headed "survivorship proportions" gives the proportion of individuals born in region i and resident in region j at time t who are living in region m at time $t + 5$. The columns are labeled $i \rightarrow m$; residence in region j at time t is implicit in the block heading. Note that two of the four columns in the blocks of survivorship proportions must be zero because only one region of birth is considered in each block.

APPENDIX B (*continued*)

Native-independent biregional and multistate analysis.
Biregional (North–South) life table for 1968.

age	q(x,1)	p(x,1,1)	p(x,2,1)	l(x,1,1)	l(x,2,1)	ll(x,1,1)	ll(x,2,1)	m(x,2,1)	md(x,1)	s(x,1,1)	s(x,2,1)	e(x,1,1)	e(x,2,1)
0	0.026254	0.917796	0.055950	100000.	0.	4.79449	0.13987	0.011977	0.005332	0.935958	0.049674	53.81	20.34
5	0.002114	0.955917	0.041968	91780.	5595.	4.49081	0.37282	0.008685	0.000425	0.955671	0.042408	50.34	20.74
10	0.001730	0.955400	0.042870	87853.	9318.	4.29977	0.55462	0.008875	0.000348	0.932966	0.064580	45.82	20.40
15	0.003182	0.909020	0.087799	84138.	12867.	4.02897	0.81370	0.018835	0.000641	0.908391	0.088108	41.47	19.86
20	0.003830	0.907739	0.088430	77021.	19681.	3.69352	1.13255	0.018979	0.000773	0.920653	0.075086	37.43	19.09
25	0.004707	0.935336	0.059957	70720.	25621.	3.44241	1.36386	0.012627	0.000949	0.942773	0.051420	33.74	17.98
30	0.006930	0.951020	0.042050	66976.	28933.	3.28382	1.49600	0.008751	0.001397	0.953487	0.037473	30.30	16.64
35	0.011179	0.956178	0.032643	64377.	30907.	3.16321	1.57597	0.006772	0.002255	0.957411	0.028812	27.05	15.18
40	0.016409	0.958764	0.024827	62152.	32132.	3.05613	1.62128	0.005147	0.003315	0.959195	0.020903	23.98	13.67
45	0.023460	0.959691	0.016849	60093.	32720.	2.95411	1.63448	0.003497	0.004753	0.956670	0.015511	21.07	12.14
50	0.032276	0.953504	0.014220	58071.	32659.	2.84757	1.61731	0.002978	0.006564	0.947575	0.013182	18.30	10.62
55	0.046446	0.941315	0.012239	55832.	32033.	2.72515	1.56780	0.002605	0.009513	0.931320	0.013439	15.65	9.12
60	0.064451	0.920663	0.014885	53174.	30679.	2.57216	1.48528	0.003245	0.013319	0.904106	0.014378	13.15	7.69
65	0.099752	0.886180	0.014068	49712.	28732.	2.35660	1.36962	0.003170	0.020997	0.862672	0.014670	10.78	6.32
70	0.148032	0.836188	0.015780	44552.	26053.	2.05271	1.21038	0.003754	0.031955	0.798310	0.013793	8.64	5.09
75	0.234636	0.753037	0.012326	37556.	22363.	1.65070	0.98608	0.003227	0.053139	0.706043	0.008502	6.76	3.97
80	0.351842	0.643685	0.004474	28472.	17080.	1.17125	0.69970	0.001335	0.085379	1.043796	0.008439	5.26	3.06
85	1.000000	0.000000	0.000000	18378.	10907.	1.22661	0.69560	0.006637	0.149437	0.000000	0.000000	4.19	2.38

age	q(x,2)	p(x,2,2)	p(x,1,2)	l(x,2,2)	l(x,1,2)	ll(x,2,2)	ll(x,1,2)	m(x,1,2)	md(x,2)	s(x,2,2)	s(x,1,2)	e(x,2,2)	e(x,1,2)
0	0.024352	0.949396	0.026252	100000.	0.	4.87349	0.06563	0.005620	0.004925	0.962689	0.024097	63.16	11.29
5	0.001820	0.976904	0.021276	94940.	2625.	4.69492	0.17886	0.004403	0.000364	0.976834	0.021552	59.74	11.50
10	0.001405	0.976753	0.021842	92857.	4529.	4.59374	0.27212	0.004522	0.000281	0.966459	0.031430	55.03	11.34
15	0.002817	0.955783	0.040924	90893.	6355.	4.45724	0.39382	0.008963	0.000563	0.955595	0.041349	50.39	11.07
20	0.003293	0.963750	0.032351	87397.	9575.	4.29440	0.54608	0.008783	0.000657	0.959360	0.037042	45.93	10.69
25	0.003899	0.970906	0.023546	84379.	12268.	4.16088	0.66182	0.006813	0.000779	0.967108	0.028165	41.64	10.17
30	0.005548	0.970906	0.023546	82056.	14205.	4.05548	0.74114	0.004900	0.001109	0.971198	0.021478	37.49	9.52
35	0.009101	0.971616	0.019283	80266.	15441.	3.96894	0.79382	0.004000	0.001824	0.970921	0.017534	33.47	8.80
40	0.014008	0.970285	0.015707	78492.	16312.	3.87640	0.82961	0.003256	0.002817	0.968736	0.013995	29.60	8.05
45	0.020573	0.967205	0.012222	76564.	16872.	3.77255	0.85000	0.002536	0.004154	0.961465	0.013131	25.88	7.28
50	0.030341	0.955548	0.014110	74338.	17128.	3.64036	0.86271	0.002955	0.006159	0.946179	0.016611	22.32	6.50
55	0.044389	0.936389	0.019321	71277.	17380.	3.45581	0.87795	0.004112	0.009054	0.924003	0.021793	18.92	5.74
60	0.064600	0.910747	0.024653	66955.	17738.	3.20497	0.89297	0.005375	0.013352	0.897232	0.020939	15.72	4.97
65	0.100253	0.882401	0.017345	61243.	17981.	2.88844	0.87445	0.003908	0.021110	0.858492	0.014408	12.76	4.18
70	0.157026	0.831374	0.011600	54294.	16997.	2.49253	0.79598	0.002760	0.034095	0.791290	0.009920	10.13	3.42
75	0.248372	0.743496	0.008532	45407.	14842.	1.98330	0.66016	0.002234	0.056736	0.695346	0.005863	7.85	2.73
80	0.365879	0.631134	0.002987	33925.	11564.	1.38469	0.47773	0.000891	0.089567	0.980017	0.005810	6.04	2.16
85	1.000000	0.000000	0.000000	21463.	7545.	1.36105	0.50670	0.000435	0.157495	0.000000	0.000000	4.69	1.75

Biregional population projection to 1998.

	population				percentage distribution		
age	total	south	north	age	total	south	north
0	11191921.	3665005.	7526916.	0	8.0754	8.0024	8.1114
5	11330953.	3653294.	7677659.	5	8.1757	7.9768	8.2739
10	11523384.	3719317.	7804067.	10	8.3146	8.1210	8.4101
15	10917141.	3559833.	7357308.	15	7.8771	7.7727	7.9287
20	9664246.	3166043.	6498203.	20	6.9731	6.9129	7.0028
25	8365251.	2744050.	5621202.	25	6.0358	5.9915	6.0577
30	10471771.	3335232.	7136539.	30	7.5558	7.2823	7.6907
35	11122236.	3573490.	7548746.	35	8.0251	7.8025	8.1350
40	10164837.	3315739.	6849099.	40	7.3343	.7.2398	7.3810
45	8537646.	2822215.	5715432.	45	6.1602	6.1622	6.1593
50	6708680.	2231955.	4476725.	50	4.8406	4.8734	4.8244
55	5522833.	1882367.	3640466.	55	3.9849	4.1101	3.9232
60	5470576.	1885838.	3584738.	60	3.9472	4.1176	3.8631
65	4943318.	1740152.	3203166.	65	3.5668	3.7995	3.4519
70	4501880.	1570753.	2931126.	70	3.2483	3.4297	3.1587
75	3750906.	1300461.	2450444.	75	2.7064	2.8395	2.6407
80	2258454.	819373.	1439081.	80	1.6296	1.7891	1.5508
85	2146892.	813921.	1332971.	85	1.5491	1.7772	1.4365
total	138592928.	45799032.	92793888.	total	100.0000	100.0000	100.0000
				m.ag	34.8294	35.4515	34.5224
				sha	100.0000	33.0457	66.9543
				lam	1.040688	1.045199	1.038476
				r	0.007976	0.008841	0.007551

Stable equivalent population.

	stable equivalent to original population				percentage distribution		
age	total	south	north	age	total	south	north
0	10085119.	3412733.	6672386.	0	7.7646	7.6242	7.8385
5	9733339.	3282591.	6450748.	5	7.4938	7.3335	7.5781
10	9507037.	3205440.	6301597.	10	7.3196	7.1611	7.4029
15	9281257.	3119844.	6161413.	15	7.1457	6.9699	7.2382
20	9051945.	3022177.	6029768.	20	6.9692	6.7517	7.0835
25	8822863.	2940894.	5881969.	25	6.7928	6.5701	6.9099
30	8588644.	2874887.	5713757.	30	6.6125	6.4227	6.7123
35	8337015.	2802114.	5534902.	35	6.4188	6.2601	6.5022
40	8056895.	2719865.	5337030.	40	6.2031	6.0763	6.2697
45	7739962.	2625686.	5114277.	45	5.9591	5.8659	6.0081
50	7374423.	2523439.	4850984.	50	5.6776	5.6375	5.6988
55	6941856.	2418413.	4523444.	55	5.3446	5.4029	5.3140
60	6421507.	2300187.	4121320.	60	4.9440	5.1388	4.8416
65	5769569.	2119189.	3650379.	65	4.4421	4.7344	4.2883
70	4936833.	1840190.	3096642.	70	3.8009	4.1111	3.6378
75	3889733.	1467411.	2422322.	75	2.9947	3.2783	2.8457
80	2687830.	1027604.	1660227.	80	2.0694	2.2957	1.9504
85	2659351.	1058911.	1600440.	85	2.0475	2.3657	1.8801
total	129885200.	44761572.	85123616.	total	100.0000	100.0000	100.0000
				m.ag	37.0983	37.9440	36.6536
				sha	100.0000	34.4624	65.5376
				lam	1.022046	1.022046	1.022046
				r	0.004361	0.004361	0.004361

Biregional population projection: stable equivalent components and intrinsic rates.

	births		deaths		outmigration		inmigration	
	number	rate	number	rate	number	rate	number	rate
south	700743.	0.015659	554107.	0.012383	359335.	0.008030	407843.	0.009114
north	1363633.	0.016024	943958.	0.011092	407843.	0.004793	359335.	0.004223
total	2064376.	0.015898	1498065.	0.011537	767178.	0.005908	767178.	0.005908

stable growth rate   0.004361

normalizing factor   74.0755

APPENDIX B (*continued*)

Biregional Model for Native-independent Multistate Projection

Expressing each set of four age-specific birth rates defined in eqns. (4) and (5) in the form of a matrix, and ignoring the place of birth of the parent (the subscript on the left-hand side) gives

$$_{s}\mathbf{B}^{s}(x) = {}_{n}\mathbf{B}^{s}(x) = .\mathbf{B}^{s}(x) = \begin{bmatrix} b_{ss}^{s}(x) & b_{ns}^{s}(x) \\ b_{sn}^{s}(x) & b_{nn}^{s}(x) \end{bmatrix} \tag{B1}$$

$$_{s}\mathbf{B}^{n}(x) = {}_{n}\mathbf{B}^{n}(x) = .\mathbf{B}^{n}(x) = \begin{bmatrix} b_{ss}^{n}(x) & b_{ns}^{n}(x) \\ b_{sn}^{n}(x) & b_{nn}^{n}(x) \end{bmatrix} \tag{B2}$$

Setting out the corresponding survivorship proportions* as the matrix

$$_{s}\mathbf{S}(x) = {}_{n}\mathbf{S}(x) = .\mathbf{S}(x) = \begin{bmatrix} s_{ss}(x) & s_{ns}(x) \\ s_{sn}(x) & s_{nn}(x) \end{bmatrix} \tag{B3}$$

with the place-of-birth dependence suppressed once again, we obtain the usual population growth process defined by

$$\{\mathbf{K}^{(t+1)}\} = \mathbf{G}\{\mathbf{K}^{(t)}\} \tag{B4}$$

where

$$\mathbf{G} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{B}(0) & \mathbf{B}(5) \cdots \\ \mathbf{S}(0) & \mathbf{0} & \cdots \\ \mathbf{0} & \mathbf{S}(5) \\ \vdots & & \ddots \end{bmatrix} \tag{B5}$$

$$\mathbf{B}(x) = \begin{bmatrix} .\mathbf{B}^{s}(x) & .\mathbf{B}^{s}(x) \\ .\mathbf{B}^{n}(x) & .\mathbf{B}^{n}(x) \end{bmatrix} \qquad \mathbf{S}(x) = \begin{bmatrix} .\mathbf{S}(x) & \mathbf{0} \\ \mathbf{0} & .\mathbf{S}(x) \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\{\mathbf{K}^{(t)}\} = \begin{bmatrix} \{\mathbf{K}^{(t)}(0)\} \\ \{\mathbf{K}^{(t)}(5)\} \\ \vdots \end{bmatrix} \qquad \{\mathbf{K}^{(t)}(x)\} = \begin{bmatrix} {}_{s}K_{s}^{(t)}(x) \\ {}_{s}K_{n}^{(t)}(x) \\ {}_{n}K_{s}^{(t)}(x) \\ {}_{n}K_{n}^{(t)}(x) \end{bmatrix}$$

The extension to the native-dependent case is straightforward. The place-of-birth subscript on the left-hand side is no longer suppressed and

$$\mathbf{B}(x) = \begin{bmatrix} {}_{s}\mathbf{B}^{s}(x) & {}_{n}\mathbf{B}^{s}(x) \\ {}_{s}\mathbf{B}^{n}(x) & {}_{n}\mathbf{B}^{n}(x) \end{bmatrix} \qquad \mathbf{S}(x) = \begin{bmatrix} {}_{s}\mathbf{S}(x) & \mathbf{0} \\ \mathbf{0} & {}_{n}\mathbf{S}(x) \end{bmatrix} \tag{B6}$$

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* Survivorship proportions are defined in the normal way (Rogers 1975, p. 79) as

$$\mathbf{S}(x) = \mathbf{L}(x+5)\mathbf{L}^{-1}(x)$$

Native-independent multistate projection: growth matrix (1968). (See p. 65 for explanation of labeling.)

region s → s

first row

age	s → s	n → s	n → s	n → n
0	0.000000	0.000000	0.000000	0.000000
5	0.001802	0.000053	0.000000	0.000033
10	0.090356	0.002636	0.000058	0.004277
15	0.268101	0.007822	0.000218	0.016198
20	0.325997	0.009511	0.000166	0.012333
25	0.221237	0.006454	0.000063	0.004654
30	0.116658	0.003403	0.000023	0.001696
35	0.050277	0.001467	0.000005	0.000348
40	0.011769	0.000343	0.000000	0.000015
45	0.000708	0.000021	0.000000	0.000000
50	0.000000	0.000000	0.000000	0.000000
55	0.000000	0.000000	0.000000	0.000000
60	0.000000	0.000000	0.000000	0.000000
65	0.000000	0.000000	0.000000	0.000000
70	0.000000	0.000000	0.000000	0.000000
75	0.000000	0.000000	0.000000	0.000000
80	0.000000	0.000000	0.000000	0.000000

survivorship proportions

age	s → s	s → n	n → s	n → n
0	0.935958	0.049674	0.000000	0.000000
5	0.955671	0.042408	0.000000	0.000000
10	0.932966	0.064580	0.000000	0.000000
15	0.908390	0.088108	0.000000	0.000000
20	0.920653	0.075086	0.000000	0.000000
25	0.942773	0.051420	0.000000	0.000000
30	0.953487	0.037474	0.000000	0.000000
35	0.957411	0.028812	0.000000	0.000000
40	0.959195	0.020903	0.000000	0.000000
45	0.956670	0.015511	0.000000	0.000000
50	0.947575	0.013182	0.000000	0.000000
55	0.931320	0.013439	0.000000	0.000000
60	0.904106	0.014379	0.000000	0.000000
65	0.862672	0.014670	0.000000	0.000000
70	0.798310	0.013793	0.000000	0.000000
75	0.706043	0.008502	0.000000	0.000000
80	1.043797	0.008439	0.000000	0.000000

region s → n

first row

age	s → s	s → n	n → s	n → n
0	0.000000	0.000000	0.000000	0.000000
5	0.000041	0.000001	0.000010	0.000761
10	0.002980	0.000087	0.000872	0.064790
15	0.007887	0.000230	0.003258	0.241907
20	0.005442	0.000159	0.004598	0.341414
25	0.002221	0.000065	0.003391	0.251789
30	0.000852	0.000025	0.001811	0.134482
35	0.000194	0.000006	0.000768	0.057001
40	0.000010	0.000000	0.000172	0.012782
45	0.000000	0.000000	0.000010	0.000724
50	0.000000	0.000000	0.000000	0.000000
55	0.000000	0.000000	0.000000	0.000000
60	0.000000	0.000000	0.000000	0.000000
65	0.000000	0.000000	0.000000	0.000000
70	0.000000	0.000000	0.000000	0.000000
75	0.000000	0.000000	0.000000	0.000000
80	0.000000	0.000000	0.000000	0.000000

survivorship proportions

age	s → s	s → n	n → s	n → n
0	0.024097	0.962689	0.000000	0.000000
5	0.021552	0.976834	0.000000	0.000000
10	0.031430	0.966459	0.000000	0.000000
15	0.041349	0.955595	0.000000	0.000000
20	0.037042	0.959360	0.000000	0.000000
25	0.028165	0.967107	0.000000	0.000000
30	0.021478	0.971198	0.000000	0.000000
35	0.017534	0.970921	0.000000	0.000000
40	0.013995	0.968736	0.000000	0.000000
45	0.013131	0.961465	0.000000	0.000000
50	0.016611	0.946179	0.000000	0.000000
55	0.021793	0.924003	0.000000	0.000000
60	0.020939	0.897232	0.000000	0.000000
65	0.014408	0.858492	0.000000	0.000000
70	0.009920	0.791290	0.000000	0.000000
75	0.005863	0.695346	0.000000	0.000000
80	0.005810	0.980017	0.000000	0.000000

APPENDIX B (continued)

Native-independent multistate projection: growth matrix (1968)—continued.

region n → s

first row

age	s → s	s → n	n → s	n → n
0	0.000000	0.000000	0.000000	0.000000
5	0.001802	0.000053	0.000000	0.000033
10	0.090356	0.002636	0.000058	0.004277
15	0.268101	0.007822	0.000218	0.016198
20	0.325997	0.009511	0.000166	0.012333
25	0.221237	0.006454	0.000063	0.004654
30	0.116658	0.003403	0.000023	0.001696
35	0.050277	0.001467	0.000005	0.000348
40	0.011769	0.000343	0.000000	0.000015
45	0.004708	0.000021	-0.000000	0.000000
50	0.000000	0.000000	0.000000	0.000000
55	0.000000	0.000000	0.000000	0.000000
60	0.000000	0.000000	0.000000	0.000000
65	0.000000	0.000000	0.000000	0.000000
70	0.000000	0.000000	0.000000	0.000000
75	0.000000	0.000000	0.000000	0.000000
80	0.000000	0.000000	0.000000	0.000000

survivorship proportions

age	s → s	s → n	n → s	n → n
0	0.000000	0.000000	0.935958	0.049674
5	0.000000	0.000000	0.955671	0.042408
10	0.000000	0.000000	0.932966	0.064580
15	0.000000	0.000000	0.908390	0.088108
20	0.000000	0.000000	0.920653	0.075086
25	0.000000	0.000000	0.942773	0.051420
30	0.000000	0.000000	0.953487	0.037474
35	0.000000	0.000000	0.957411	0.028812
40	0.000000	0.000000	0.959195	0.020903
45	0.000000	0.000000	0.956670	0.015511
50	0.000000	0.000000	0.947575	0.013182
55	0.000000	0.000000	0.931320	0.013439
60	0.000000	0.000000	0.904106	0.014379
65	0.000000	0.000000	0.862672	0.014670
70	0.000000	0.000000	0.798310	0.013793
75	0.000000	0.000000	0.706043	0.008502
80	0.000000	0.000000	1.043797	0.008439

region n → n

first row

age	s → s	s → n	n → s	n → n
0	0.000000	0.000000	0.000000	0.000000
5	0.000041	0.000001	0.000010	0.000761
10	0.002980	0.000087	0.000872	0.064790
15	0.007887	0.000230	0.003258	0.241907
20	0.005442	0.000159	0.004598	0.341414
25	0.002221	0.000065	0.003391	0.251789
30	0.000852	0.000025	0.001811	0.134482
35	0.000194	0.000006	0.000768	0.057001
40	0.000010	0.000000	0.000172	0.012782
45	0.000000	0.000000	0.000010	0.000724
50	0.000000	0.000000	0.000000	0.000000
55	0.000000	0.000000	0.000000	0.000000
60	0.000000	0.000000	0.000000	0.000000
65	0.000000	0.000000	0.000000	0.000000
70	0.000000	0.000000	0.000000	0.000000
75	0.000000	0.000000	0.000000	0.000000
80	0.000000	0.000000	0.000000	0.000000

survivorship proportions

age	s → s	s → n	n → s	n → n
0	0.000000	0.000000	0.024097	0.962689
5	0.000000	0.000000	0.021552	0.976834
10	0.000000	0.000000	0.031430	0.966459
15	0.000000	0.000000	0.041349	0.955595
20	0.000000	0.000000	0.037042	0.959360
25	0.000000	0.000000	0.028165	0.967107
30	0.000000	0.000000	0.021478	0.971198
35	0.000000	0.000000	0.017534	0.970921
40	0.000000	0.000000	0.013995	0.968736
45	0.000000	0.000000	0.013131	0.961465
50	0.000000	0.000000	0.016611	0.946179
55	0.000000	0.000000	0.021793	0.924003
60	0.000000	0.000000	0.020939	0.897232
65	0.000000	0.000000	0.014408	0.858492
70	0.000000	0.000000	0.009920	0.791290
75	0.000000	0.000000	0.005863	0.695346
80	0.000000	0.000000	0.005810	0.980617

Native-independent multistate projection: stable equivalent population*.

stable equivalent to original population

age	total	s -> s	s -> n	n -> s	n -> n	south	north
0	10085108.	3324184.	96980.	88548.	6575398.	3412731.	6672377.
5	9733327.	3046470.	252910.	236119.	6197828.	3282589.	6450738.
10	9507027.	2853957.	368129.	351481.	5933459.	3205438.	6301589.
15	9281247.	2616531.	528440.	503311.	5632966.	3119842.	6161405.
20	9051934.	2346942.	719647.	675233.	5310112.	3022175.	6029760.
25	8822855.	2140195.	847929.	800698.	5034033.	2940893.	5881962.
30	8588633.	1997563.	910026.	877321.	4803722.	2874884.	5713748.
35	8337005.	1882691.	937992.	919421.	4596901.	2802112.	5534893.
40	8056885.	1779722.	944147.	940141.	4392876.	2719863.	5337022.
45	7739954.	1683207.	931299.	942478.	4182971.	2625685.	5114270.
50	7374416.	1587504.	901642.	935933.	3949336.	2523437.	4850978.
55	6941849.	1486486.	855188.	931926.	3668249.	2418412.	4523437.
60	6421499.	1372767.	792697.	927419.	3328617.	2300186.	4121313.
65	5769562.	1230596.	715204.	888592.	2935169.	2119188.	3650373.
70	4936827.	1048784.	618416.	791406.	2478221.	1840190.	3096638.
75	3889730.	825197.	492945.	642214.	1929374.	1467411.	2422319.
80	2687827.	572886.	342238.	454718.	1317986.	1027603.	1660224.
85	2659347.	587023.	332895.	471887.	1267543.	1058910.	1600437.
total	129885040.	32382706.	11588724.	12378844.	73534760.	44761552.	85123488.

percentage distribution

age	total	s -> s	s -> n	n -> s	n -> n	south	north
0	7.7646	10.2653	0.8368	0.7153	8.9419	7.6242	7.8385
5	7.4938	9.4077	2.1824	1.9074	8.4284	7.3335	7.5781
10	7.3196	8.8132	3.1766	2.8394	8.0689	7.1611	7.4029
15	7.1457	8.0800	4.5599	4.0659	7.6603	6.9699	7.2382
20	6.9692	7.2475	6.2099	5.4547	7.2212	6.7517	7.0835
25	6.7928	6.6091	7.3168	6.4683	6.8458	6.5701	6.9099
30	6.6125	6.1686	7.8527	7.0873	6.5326	6.4227	6.7123
35	6.4188	5.8139	8.0940	7.4274	6.2513	6.2601	6.5022
40	6.2031	5.4959	8.1471	7.5947	5.9739	6.0763	6.2697
45	5.9591	5.1979	8.0363	7.6136	5.6884	5.8659	6.0081
50	5.6776	4.9023	7.7803	7.5607	5.3707	5.6375	5.6988
55	5.3446	4.5904	7.3795	7.5284	4.9885	5.4029	5.3140
60	4.9440	4.2392	6.8402	7.4920	4.5266	5.1388	4.8416
65	4.4421	3.8002	6.1716	7.1783	3.9915	4.7344	4.2883
70	3.8009	3.2387	5.3364	6.3932	3.3701	4.1111	3.6378
75	2.9947	2.5483	4.2537	5.1880	2.6238	3.2783	2.8457
80	2.0694	1.7691	2.9532	3.6733	1.7923	2.2957	1.9504
85	2.0475	1.8128	2.8726	3.8120	1.7237	2.3657	1.8801
total	100.0000	100.0000	100.0000	100.0000	100.0000	100.0000	100.0000
m.ag	37.0983	33.7122	46.5403	49.0142	35.0955	37.9440	36.6536
sha	200.0000	24.9318	8.9223	9.5306	56.6153	34.4624	65.5376
lam	1.022046	1.022046	1.022045	1.022045	1.022046	1.022045	1.022046
r	0.004361	0.004361	0.004361	0.004361	0.004361	0.004361	0.004361

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*The first letter in the heading of each column refers to region of birth, the second to region of residence.

APPENDIX B (*continued*)

Native-independent multistate projection: 1998*.

population

age	total	s -> s	s -> n	n -> s	n -> n	south	north
0	11191920.	3565044.	104007.	99961.	7422908.	3665005.	7526915.
5	11330953.	3371462.	279890.	281833.	7397768.	3653295.	7677658.
10	11523383.	3282105.	423356.	437212.	7380711.	3719317.	7804066.
15	10917140.	2955789.	596957.	604044.	6760351.	3559833.	7357308.
20	9664246.	2434663.	746544.	731380.	5751659.	3166043.	6498204.
25	8365251.	1974378.	782234.	769672.	4838967.	2744050.	5621201.
30	10471771.	2155525.	1113533.	1179707.	6023006.	3335233.	7136539.
35	11122237.	2303537.	1213501.	1269953.	6335245.	3573490.	7548747.
40	10164838.	2163192.	1154347.	1152548.	5694752.	3315739.	6849099.
45	8537646.	1865530.	1009215.	956685.	4706216.	2822215.	5715431.
50	6708679.	1547194.	835889.	684761.	3640835.	2231955.	4476725.
55	5522834.	1375220.	672039.	507147.	2968426.	1882368.	3640466.
60	5470576.	1382930.	601518.	502908.	2983219.	1885838.	3584737.
65	4943318.	1276115.	512907.	464037.	2690258.	1740152.	3203166.
70	4501880.	1139681.	429441.	431072.	2501685:	1570753.	2931127.
75	3750906.	943571.	354143.	356891.	2096301.	1300461.	2450444.
80	2258454.	610544.	200112.	208828.	1238969.	819373.	1439081.
85	2146892.	620479.	183859.	193442.	1149112.	813921.	1332971.
total	138592928.	34966964.	11213492.	10832081.	81580392.	45799036.	92793888.

percentage distribution

age	total	s -> s	s -> n	n -> s	n -> n	south	north
0	8.0754	10.1955	0.9275	0.9228	9.0989	8.0024	8.1114
5	8.1757	9.6418	2.4960	2.6018	9.0681	7.9768	8.2739
10	8.3146	9.3863	3.7754	4.0363	9.0472	8.1210	8.4101
15	7.8771	8.4531	5.3236	5.5764	8.2867	7.7727	7.9287
20	6.9731	6.9628	6.6576	6.7520	7.0503	6.9129	7.0028
25	6.0358	5.6464	6.9758	7.1055	5.9315	5.9915	6.0577
30	7.5558	6.1645	9.9303	10.8909	7.3829	7.2823	7.6907
35	8.0251	6.5878	10.8218	11.7240	7.7656	7.8025	8.1350
40	7.3343	6.1864	10.2943	10.6401	6.9805	7.2398	7.3810
45	6.1602	5.3351	9.0000	8.8320	5.7688	6.1622	6.1593
50	4.8406	4.4247	7.4543	6.3216	4.4629	4.8734	4.8244
55	3.9849	3.9329	5.9931	4.6819	3.6387	4.1101	3.9232
60	3.9472	3.9550	5.3642	4.6428	3.6568	4.1176	3.8631
65	3.5668	3.6495	4.5740	4.2839	3.2977	3.7995	3.4519
70	3.2483	3.2593	3.8297	3.9796	3.0665	3.4297	3.1587
75	2.7064	2.6985	3.1582	3.2948	2.5696	2.8395	2.6407
80	1.6296	1.7461	1.7846	1.9279	1.5187	1.7891	1.5508
85	1.5491	1.7745	1.6396	1.7858	1.4086	1.7772	1.4365
total	100.0000	100.0000	100.0000	100.0000	100.0000	100.0000	100.0000
m.ag	34.8294	33.3544	42.8966	42.2211	33.3714	35.4515	34.5224
sha	200.0000	25.2300	8.0910	7.8158	58.8633	33.0457	66.9543
lam	1.040688	1.026520	1.070213	1.110426	1.034260	1.045199	1.038476
r	0.007976	0.005235	0.013572	0.020949	0.006737	0.008841	0.007551

*The first letter in the heading of each column refers to region of birth, the second to region of residence.

APPENDIX C

Native-dependent input data, disaggregated by region of birth and region of residence, for the female population of the USA in 1968*.

Region of birth, South; Region of residence, South.

age	population number	population –%–	births number	births –%–	deaths number	deaths –%–	arrivals number	arrivals –%–	departures number	departures –%–	birth	death	inmig	outmig	net mig
												observed rates (x 1000)			
0	3111200.	10.77	0.	0.00	16589.	8.84	55363.	9.85	138291.	15.65	0.000	5.332	3.559	8.890	-5.331
5	3252861.	11.26	0.	0.00	1381.	0.74	58046.	10.33	90082.	10.20	0.000	0.425	3.569	5.539	-1.970
10	3041703.	10.53	2392.	0.51	1057.	0.56	46802.	8.33	97055.	10.99	0.786	0.348	3.077	6.382	-3.304
15	2549596.	8.83	100854.	21.57	1634.	0.87	59746.	10.63	194217.	21.99	39.557	0.641	4.687	15.235	-10.548
20	2014624.	6.97	160303.	34.28	1557.	0.83	80736.	14.36	122898.	13.91	79.570	0.773	8.015	12.201	-4.186
25	1755229.	6.08	107562.	23.00	1665.	0.89	60874.	10.83	67339.	7.62	61.281	0.949	6.936	7.673	-0.737
30	1794786.	6.21	59029.	12.62	2507.	1.34	45896.	8.16	45655.	5.17	32.889	1.397	5.114	5.088	0.027
35	1749412.	6.06	28942.	6.19	3945.	2.10	35970.	6.40	34458.	3.90	16.544	2.255	4.112	3.939	0.173
40	1739408.	6.02	8046.	1.72	5766.	3.07	28055.	4.99	25869.	2.93	4.626	3.315	3.226	2.974	0.251
45	1732323.	6.00	511.	0.11	8234.	4.39	21837.	3.88	17446.	1.97	0.295	4.753	2.521	2.014	0.507
50	1529112.	5.29	0.	0.00	10037.	5.35	16854.	3.00	13216.	1.50	0.000	6.564	2.204	1.729	0.476
55	1417283.	4.91	0.	0.00	12401.	7.18	19924.	3.54	10694.	1.21	0.000	9.513	2.812	1.509	1.302
60	931085.	3.22	0.	0.00	16775.	6.61	13856.	2.46	8263.	0.94	0.000	13.319	2.976	1.775	1.201
65	798916.	2.77	0.	0.00	19425.	8.94	8632.	1.54	6842.	0.77	0.000	20.997	2.161	1.713	0.448
70	617902.	2.10	0.	0.00	22550.	10.35	5292.	0.94	6140.	0.70	0.000	31.954	1.741	2.020	-0.279
75	424364.	1.47	0.	0.00	21895.	12.01	5292.	0.94	3684.	0.42	0.000	53.138	1.496	1.736	-0.240
80	256447.	0.89	0.	0.00	26793.	11.67	795.	0.14	921.	0.10	0.000	85.378	0.620	0.718	-0.098
85	179292.	0.62	0.	0.00	26793.	14.27	266.	0.05	307.	0.03	0.000	149.438	0.297	0.342	-0.046
tot	28885548.	100.00	467639.	100.00	187694.	100.00	562119.	100.00	883377.	100.00	.178	1.952	0.296	0.497	
gross				25.08							16.189	6.498	3.892	6.116	
crude(x1000)		30.34				61.57		26.62		20.46					-2.224
m.age											25.80		34.39	27.06	
e(0)												77.51 / 74.11			

Region of birth, South; Region of residence, North.

age	population number	population –%–	births number	births –%–	deaths number	deaths –%–	arrivals number	arrivals –%–	departures number	departures –%–	birth	death	inmig	outmig	net mig
												observed rates (x 1000)			
0	263013.	4.28	0.	0.00	1295.	3.12	138291.	15.65	55363.	9.85	0.000	4.924	105.159	42.099	63.060
5	356268.	5.80	0.	0.00	130.	0.31	90082.	10.20	58046.	10.33	0.000	0.365	50.570	32.586	17.984
10	401326.	6.53	128.	0.10	113.	0.27	97055.	10.99	46802.	8.33	0.319	0.282	48.367	23.324	25.043
15	484489.	7.89	13169.	10.56	273.	0.66	194217.	21.99	59746.	10.63	27.181	0.563	80.174	24.664	55.510
20	561604.	9.14	42370.	33.98	369.	0.89	122898.	13.91	80736.	14.36	75.445	0.657	43.767	28.752	15.015
25	537998.	8.76	36264.	29.09	419.	1.01	67339.	7.62	60874.	10.83	67.405	0.779	25.033	22.630	2.403
30	545053.	8.87	20246.	16.24	605.	1.46	45655.	5.17	45896.	8.16	37.145	1.110	16.753	16.841	-0.088
35	528164.	8.60	9813.	7.87	963.	2.32	34458.	3.90	35970.	6.40	18.579	1.823	13.048	13.621	-0.573
40	510761.	8.32	2532.	2.03	1439.	3.47	25869.	2.93	28055.	4.99	4.957	2.817	10.130	10.986	-0.856
45	523046.	8.52	155.	0.12	2172.	5.24	17446.	1.97	21837.	3.88	0.296	4.153	6.671	8.350	-1.679
50	396699.	6.46	0.	0.00	2443.	5.89	13216.	1.50	16854.	3.54	0.000	6.158	6.663	8.497	-1.834
55	353663.	5.76	0.	0.00	3202.	7.72	10694.	1.21	19924.	3.00	0.000	9.054	6.048	11.267	-5.220
60	189579.	3.09	0.	0.00	2531.	6.10	8263.	0.94	13856.	2.46	0.000	13.351	6.711	14.618	-5.900
65	158295.	2.58	0.	0.00	3342.	8.66	6842.	0.77	8632.	1.54	0.000	21.112	8.645	10.906	-2.262
70	131129.	2.13	0.	0.00	4471.	10.78	6140.	0.70	5292.	0.94	0.000	34.096	9.365	8.071	1.293
75	97578.	1.59	0.	0.00	5536.	13.35	3684.	0.42	5292.	0.94	0.000	56.734	7.551	6.508	1.043
80	61485.	1.00	0.	0.00	5507.	13.28	921.	0.10	795.	0.14	0.000	89.567	2.996	2.586	0.410
85	42301.	0.69	0.	0.00	6662.	16.06	307.	0.03	266.	0.05	0.000	157.490	1.452	1.258	0.194
tot	6142451.	100.00	124677.	100.00	41472.	100.00	883377.	100.00	562119.	100.00	1.157	2.025	2.256	1.438	
gross				26.66							20.298	6.752	28.763	18.303	
crude(x1000)		35.47				65.99		26.62		20.46					10.460
m.age											26.63		21.21	29.28	
e(0)												78.09 / 74.45			

* Note that the numbers of arrivals and departures cover a five-year period (1965–1970); all other numbers and rates refer to a single year (1968).

APPENDIX C (*continued*)

Native-dependent input data—continued*.

Region of birth, North; Region of residence, South.

age	population number	population %	births number	births %	deaths number	deaths %	arrivals number	arrivals %	departures number	departures %	birth	observed death	inmig	outmig	net mig
0	223698	6.24	0	0.00	1193	4.24	154040	13.00	61424	10.57	0.000	5.333	137.721	54.917	82.804
5	289921	8.08	0	0.00	123	0.44	114741	9.68	63766	10.98	0.000	0.424	79.153	43.989	35.165
10	297459	8.29	234	0.36	103	0.37	115598	9.76	51119	8.80	0.787	0.346	77.724	34.370	43.353
15	342189	9.54	13536	20.86	219	0.78	213162	17.99	78112	13.45	39.579	0.640	124.587	45.654	78.933
20	296795	8.27	23616	36.39	229	0.81	135095	11.39	96444	16.60	79.570	0.772	90.975	64.900	25.985
25	234951	6.55	14398	22.19	223	0.79	81102	6.85	58314	10.04	61.281	0.949	69.037	49.639	19.398
30	242636	6.76	7980	12.30	339	1.20	61432	5.18	43488	7.49	32.889	1.397	50.637	35.846	14.791
35	236501	6.59	3913	6.03	533	1.89	49640	4.19	32786	5.64	16.545	2.254	41.979	27.726	14.253
40	246916	6.88	1142	1.76	819	2.91	44543	3.76	25249	4.35	4.625	3.317	36.079	20.451	15.628
45	245908	6.86	72	0.11	1169	4.15	36154	3.05	17140	2.95	0.293	4.754	29.404	13.940	15.464
50	204892	5.71	0	0.00	1345	4.78	37967	3.20	12603	2.17	0.000	6.564	37.062	12.302	24.760
55	189908	5.29	0	0.00	1807	6.42	48324	4.08	10238	1.76	0.000	9.515	50.892	10.782	40.110
60	155764	4.34	0	0.00	2075	7.37	41770	3.53	9372	1.61	0.000	13.321	53.632	12.034	41.599
65	133654	3.73	0	0.00	2806	9.97	25202	2.13	7939	1.37	0.000	20.995	37.712	11.880	25.832
70	101698	2.84	0	0.00	3250	11.54	14568	1.23	7180	1.24	0.000	31.957	28.634	14.120	14.514
75	70994	1.98	0	0.00	3773	13.40	8737	0.74	4309	0.74	0.000	53.145	24.613	12.139	12.474
80	42901	1.20	0	0.00	3663	13.01	2184	0.18	1077	0.19	0.000	85.383	10.182	5.021	5.161
85	29994	0.84	0	0.00	4482	15.92	728	0.06	360	0.06	0.000	149.430	4.854	2.400	2.454
tot	35806779	100.00	64891	100.00	28151	100.00	1184829	100.00	580920	100.00					33.674
gross / crude(×1000)											1.178 / 18.092	1.952 / 7.849	4.924 / 66.066	2.361 / 32.392	
m.age / e(0)	34.57		25.04		65.99		25.50		24.60		25.80	77.51 / 74.11	30.67	28.94	

Region of birth, North; Region of residence, North.

age	population number	population %	births number	births %	deaths number	deaths %	arrivals number	arrivals %	departures number	departures %	birth	observed death	inmig	outmig	net mig
0	7189433	11.29	0	0.00	35409	8.58	61424	10.57	154040	13.00	0.000	4.925	1.709	4.285	-2.576
5	7492557	11.77	0	0.00	2726	0.66	63766	10.98	114741	9.68	0.000	0.364	1.702	3.063	-1.361
10	6781986	10.65	2168	0.23	1903	0.46	51119	8.80	115598	9.76	0.320	0.281	1.507	3.409	-1.901
15	5605165	8.80	152352	15.86	3153	0.76	78112	13.45	213162	17.99	27.181	0.563	2.787	7.606	-4.819
20	4350986	6.83	328256	34.18	2860	0.69	96444	16.60	135095	11.39	75.444	0.657	4.433	6.206	-1.773
25	3629665	5.70	244662	25.47	2926	0.71	58314	10.04	81102	6.85	67.406	0.806	3.213	4.469	-1.256
30	3835769	6.03	142483	14.84	4255	1.03	43488	7.49	61432	5.18	37.146	1.109	2.267	3.203	-0.936
35	3751833	5.89	69704	7.26	6844	1.66	32786	5.64	49640	4.19	18.579	1.824	1.748	2.646	-0.898
40	3948275	6.20	19575	2.04	11124	2.70	25249	4.35	44543	3.76	4.958	2.817	1.279	2.256	-0.977
45	4049675	6.36	1203	0.13	16821	4.08	17140	2.95	36154	3.05	0.297	4.154	0.846	1.786	-0.939
50	3309504	5.20	0	0.00	20383	4.94	12603	2.17	37967	3.20	0.000	6.159	0.762	2.294	-1.529
55	2965722	4.66	0	0.00	26852	6.51	10238	1.76	48324	4.08	0.000	9.054	0.690	3.259	-2.568
60	1880346	2.95	0	0.00	25106	6.08	9372	1.61	41770	3.53	0.000	13.352	0.997	4.443	-3.446
65	1573031	2.47	0	0.00	33206	8.05	7939	1.37	25202	2.13	0.000	21.110	1.009	3.204	-2.195
70	1307576	2.05	0	0.00	44582	10.80	7180	1.24	14568	1.23	0.000	34.095	1.098	2.227	-1.129
75	969801	1.52	0	0.00	54977	13.32	4309	0.74	8737	0.74	0.000	56.736	0.889	1.803	-0.914
80	606872	0.95	0	0.00	54356	13.17	1077	0.19	2184	0.18	0.000	89.567	0.355	0.720	-0.365
85	414830	0.65	0	0.00	65333	15.83	360	0.06	728	0.06	0.000	157.493	0.174	0.351	-0.177
tot	63662232	100.00	960403	100.00	412716	100.00	580920	100.00	1184829	100.00					-1.897
gross / crude(×1000)											1.157 / 15.686	2.025 / 6.483	0.137 / 1.825	0.286 / 3.722	
m.age / e(0)	29.92		25.97		63.28		24.60		25.50		26.63	78.09 / 74.45	33.12	35.80	

* Note that the numbers of arrivals and departures cover a five-year period (1965–1970); all other numbers and rates refer to a single year (1968).

APPENDIX D

Native-dependent multistate life tables: probabilities of death and migration (1968).

region s → s

age	death	migration from s → s	s → n	to n → s	n → n
0	0.026271	0.935243	0.038486	0.000000	0.000000
5	0.002117	0.972648	0.025236	0.000000	0.000000
10	0.001733	0.968610	0.029657	0.000000	0.000000
15	0.003186	0.927746	0.069068	0.000000	0.000000
20	0.003841	0.941010	0.055149	0.000000	0.000000
25	0.004717	0.959769	0.035515	0.000000	0.000000
30	0.006943	0.969089	0.023969	0.000000	0.000000
35	0.011195	0.970124	0.018681	0.000000	0.000000
40	0.016421	0.969423	0.014156	0.000000	0.000000
45	0.023472	0.966923	0.009604	0.000000	0.000000
50	0.032285	0.959546	0.008169	0.000000	0.000000
55	0.046454	0.946558	0.006989	0.000000	0.000000
60	0.064449	0.927557	0.007994	0.000000	0.000000
65	0.099752	0.892744	0.007504	0.000000	0.000000
70	0.148000	0.843577	0.008422	0.000000	0.000000
75	0.234596	0.758812	0.006592	0.000000	0.000000
80	0.351822	0.645776	0.002402	0.000000	0.000000
85	1.000000	0.000000	0.000000	0.000000	0.000000

region s → n

age	death	migration from s → s	s → n	to n → s	n → n
0	0.024503	0.182255	0.793243	0.000000	0.000000
5	0.001832	0.148470	0.849698	0.000000	0.000000
10	0.001413	0.108392	0.890195	0.000000	0.000000
15	0.002825	0.111811	0.885363	0.000000	0.000000
20	0.003317	0.129964	0.866718	0.000000	0.000000
25	0.003931	0.104743	0.891326	0.000000	0.000000
30	0.005591	0.079343	0.915066	0.000000	0.000000
35	0.009154	0.064592	0.926254	0.000000	0.000000
40	0.014053	0.052284	0.933663	0.000000	0.000000
45	0.020618	0.039815	0.939568	0.000000	0.000000
50	0.030365	0.040155	0.929480	0.000000	0.000000
55	0.044326	0.052180	0.903494	0.000000	0.000000
60	0.064592	0.065837	0.869570	0.000000	0.000000
65	0.100257	0.047782	0.851961	0.000000	0.000000
70	0.156924	0.033653	0.809422	0.000000	0.000000
75	0.248239	0.024708	0.727053	0.000000	0.000000
80	0.365827	0.008648	0.625525	0.000000	0.000000
85	1.000000	0.000000	0.000000	0.000000	0.000000

region n → s

age	death	migration from s → s	s → n	to n → s	n → n
0	0.026080	0.000000	0.000000	0.740360	0.233560
5	0.002089	0.000000	0.000000	0.801482	0.196429
10	0.001704	0.000000	0.000000	0.841508	0.156787
15	0.003156	0.000000	0.000000	0.795963	0.200881
20	0.003772	0.000000	0.000000	0.721279	0.274949
25	0.004642	0.000000	0.000000	0.777616	0.217742
30	0.006845	0.000000	0.000000	0.830833	0.162321
35	0.011069	0.000000	0.000000	0.861339	0.127592
40	0.016330	0.000000	0.000000	0.888331	0.095339
45	0.023373	0.000000	0.000000	0.911002	0.065625
50	0.032212	0.000000	0.000000	0.910253	0.057535
55	0.046390	0.000000	0.000000	0.903825	0.049785
60	0.064464	0.000000	0.000000	0.881348	0.054188
65	0.099752	0.000000	0.000000	0.848494	0.051754
70	0.148212	0.000000	0.000000	0.793739	0.058049
75	0.234869	0.000000	0.000000	0.719607	0.045524
80	0.351960	0.000000	0.000000	0.631334	0.016706
85	1.000000	0.000000	0.000000	0.000000	0.000000

region n → n

age	death	migration from s → s	s → n	to n → s	n → n
0	0.024345	0.000000	0.000000	0.018225	0.957431
5	0.001820	0.000000	0.000000	0.013677	0.984504
10	0.001405	0.000000	0.000000	0.015551	0.983045
15	0.002816	0.000000	0.000000	0.033466	0.963718
20	0.003289	0.000000	0.000000	0.026254	0.970457
25	0.003894	0.000000	0.000000	0.019603	0.976504
30	0.005542	0.000000	0.000000	0.014505	0.979954
35	0.009093	0.000000	0.000000	0.012177	0.978730
40	0.014002	0.000000	0.000000	0.010518	0.975480
45	0.020567	0.000000	0.000000	0.008406	0.971027
50	0.030338	0.000000	0.000000	0.010714	0.958948
55	0.044285	0.000000	0.000000	0.015047	0.940667
60	0.064601	0.000000	0.000000	0.020006	0.915393
65	0.100253	0.000000	0.000000	0.013959	0.885788
70	0.157038	0.000000	0.000000	0.009155	0.833807
75	0.248387	0.000000	0.000000	0.006763	0.744851
80	0.365884	0.000000	0.000000	0.002395	0.631721
85	1.000000	0.000000	0.000000	0.000000	0.000000

APPENDIX D (*continued*)

Native-dependent multistate life tables: expectations of life (1968).

initial region of cohort s → s

age	total	s → s	s → n	n → s	n → n
0	74.14005	63.18850	10.95154	0.00000	0.00000
5	71.07285	59.92465	11.14820	0.00000	0.00000
10	66.21751	55.28968	10.92784	0.00000	0.00000
15	61.32692	50.72458	10.60235	0.00000	0.00000
20	56.51323	46.41336	10.09986	0.00000	0.00000
25	51.71765	42.32948	9.38817	0.00000	0.00000
30	46.94445	38.37098	8.57347	0.00000	0.00000
35	42.24437	34.51814	7.72622	0.00000	0.00000
40	37.67913	30.79958	6.87955	0.00000	0.00000
45	33.25034	27.20755	6.04279	0.00000	0.00000
50	28.97207	23.74648	5.22559	0.00000	0.00000
55	24.84492	20.41054	4.43438	0.00000	0.00000
60	20.92360	17.23384	3.68977	0.00000	0.00000
65	17.19334	14.19163	3.00172	0.00000	0.00000
70	13.82308	11.42644	2.39663	0.00000	0.00000
75	10.81459	8.95461	1.85998	0.00000	0.00000
80	8.39719	6.97299	1.42419	0.00000	0.00000
85	6.63259	5.53472	1.09787	0.00000	0.00000

initial region of cohort s → n

age	total	s → s	s → n	n → s	n → n
0	74.38078	36.62362	37.75716	0.00000	0.00000
5	71.18633	37.07647	34.10985	0.00000	0.00000
10	66.31605	35.92097	30.39507	0.00000	0.00000
15	61.41255	34.29254	27.12001	0.00000	0.00000
20	56.58736	32.43096	24.15640	0.00000	0.00000
25	51.77921	30.33603	21.44319	0.00000	0.00000
30	46.99195	28.02473	18.96721	0.00000	0.00000
35	42.27297	25.59182	16.68114	0.00000	0.00000
40	37.68459	23.12437	14.56021	0.00000	0.00000
45	33.23359	20.65763	12.57596	0.00000	0.00000
50	28.93270	18.22321	10.70948	0.00000	0.00000
55	24.79180	15.83815	8.95365	0.00000	0.00000
60	20.85652	13.52005	7.33647	0.00000	0.00000
65	17.12225	11.24400	5.87825	0.00000	0.00000
70	13.74583	9.12206	4.62376	0.00000	0.00000
75	10.74843	7.20269	3.54574	0.00000	0.00000
80	8.34301	5.64732	2.69569	0.00000	0.00000
85	6.58009	4.50800	2.07209	0.00000	0.00000

initial region of cohort n → s

age	total	s → s	s → n	n → s	n → n
0	74.24090	0.00000	0.00000	25.41264	48.82825
5	71.16196	0.00000	0.00000	21.62573	49.53624
10	66.30126	0.00000	0.00000	18.23078	48.07048
15	61.40276	0.00000	0.00000	15.41447	45.98829
20	56.57965	0.00000	0.00000	13.06390	43.51575
25	51.76950	0.00000	0.00000	11.19910	40.57040
30	46.97432	0.00000	0.00000	9.74482	37.22949
35	42.23798	0.00000	0.00000	8.53261	33.70537
40	37.62153	0.00000	0.00000	7.48109	30.14044
45	33.13837	0.00000	0.00000	6.54067	26.59770
50	28.79987	0.00000	0.00000	5.67831	23.12156
55	24.63294	0.00000	0.00000	4.87541	19.75753
60	20.66832	0.00000	0.00000	4.11519	16.55312
65	16.92252	0.00000	0.00000	3.37896	13.54356
70	13.52774	0.00000	0.00000	2.69510	10.83264
75	10.55460	0.00000	0.00000	2.10008	8.45453
80	8.17843	0.00000	0.00000	1.63872	6.53971
85	6.41651	0.00000	0.00000	1.31095	5.10556

initial region of cohort n → n

age	total	s → s	s → n	n → s	n → n
0	74.44974	0.00000	0.00000	5.49861	68.95113
5	71.24503	0.00000	0.00000	5.58911	65.65591
10	66.37069	0.00000	0.00000	5.48144	60.88926
15	61.46108	0.00000	0.00000	5.32023	56.14085
20	56.62837	0.00000	0.00000	5.07865	51.54972
25	51.80863	0.00000	0.00000	4.75990	47.04873
30	47.00400	0.00000	0.00000	4.41807	42.58593
35	42.25630	0.00000	0.00000	4.07144	38.18485
40	37.62709	0.00000	0.00000	3.72945	33.89764
45	33.13234	0.00000	0.00000	3.39240	29.73995
50	28.78265	0.00000	0.00000	3.06050	25.72215
55	24.60922	0.00000	0.00000	2.73158	21.87764
60	20.63810	0.00000	0.00000	2.39260	18.24550
65	16.89049	0.00000	0.00000	2.02643	14.86406
70	13.49295	0.00000	0.00000	1.65340	11.83956
75	10.52485	0.00000	0.00000	1.31133	9.21352
80	8.15384	0.00000	0.00000	1.03641	7.11743
85	6.39218	0.00000	0.00000	0.83589	5.55630

Native-dependent multistate projection: growth matrix (1968). (See p. 65 for explanation of labeling.)

region s —> s

first row

age	s —> s	s —> n	n —> s	n —> n
0	0.000000	0.000000	0.000000	0.000000
5	0.001846	0.000037	0.000002	0.000020
10	0.092669	0.001843	0.000303	0.002985
15	0.275558	0.005480	0.001066	0.010490
20	0.333269	0.006628	0.000707	0.006954
25	0.224945	0.004473	0.000255	0.002506
30	0.118359	0.002354	0.000091	0.000893
35	0.050870	0.001012	0.000019	0.000183
40	0.011881	0.000236	0.000001	0.000008
45	0.000714	0.000014	0.000000	0.000000
50	0.000000	0.000000	0.000000	0.000000
55	0.000000	0.000000	0.000000	0.000000
60	0.000000	0.000000	0.000000	0.000000
65	0.000000	0.000000	0.000000	0.000000
70	0.000000	0.000000	0.000000	0.000000
75	0.000000	0.000000	0.000000	0.000000
80	0.000000	0.000000	0.000000	0.000000

survivorship proportions

age	s —> s	s —> n	n —> s	n —> n
0	0.952905	0.032724	0.000000	0.000000
5	0.970381	0.027694	0.000000	0.000000
10	0.948549	0.048993	0.000000	0.000000
15	0.934461	0.062030	0.000000	0.000000
20	0.949700	0.046026	0.000000	0.000000
25	0.964085	0.030094	0.000000	0.000000
30	0.969504	0.021439	0.000000	0.000000
35	0.969718	0.016490	0.000000	0.000000
40	0.968146	0.011938	0.000000	0.000000
45	0.963298	0.008873	0.000000	0.000000
50	0.953213	0.007535	0.000000	0.000000
55	0.937345	0.007414	0.000000	0.000000
60	0.910767	0.007719	0.000000	0.000000
65	0.869526	0.007846	0.000000	0.000000
70	0.804772	0.007377	0.000000	0.000000
75	0.710013	0.004564	0.000000	0.000000
80	1.047918	0.004523	0.000000	0.000000

region s —> n

first row

age	s —> s	s —> n	n —> s	n —> n
0	0.000000	0.000000	0.000000	0.000000
5	0.000247	0.000005	0.000063	0.000621
10	0.010412	0.000207	0.005578	0.054884
15	0.023237	0.000462	0.021252	0.209105
20	0.017634	0.000351	0.030661	0.301684
25	0.007403	0.000147	0.022991	0.226210
30	0.002894	0.000058	0.012358	0.121590
35	0.000656	0.000013	0.005283	0.051982
40	0.000033	0.000001	0.001193	0.011739
45	0.000000	0.000000	0.000068	0.000664
50	0.000000	0.000000	0.000000	0.000000
55	0.000000	0.000000	0.000000	0.000000
60	0.000000	0.000000	0.000000	0.000000
65	0.000000	0.000000	0.000000	0.000000
70	0.000000	0.000000	0.000000	0.000000
75	0.000000	0.000000	0.000000	0.000000
80	0.000000	0.000000	0.000000	0.000000

survivorship proportions

age	s —> s	s —> n	n —> s	n —> n
0	0.169317	0.817454	0.000000	0.000000
5	0.129917	0.868458	0.000000	0.000000
10	0.108810	0.889071	0.000000	0.000000
15	0.120724	0.876200	0.000000	0.000000
20	0.118955	0.877412	0.000000	0.000000
25	0.093050	0.902175	0.000000	0.000000
30	0.072320	0.920298	0.000000	0.000000
35	0.058664	0.929738	0.000000	0.000000
40	0.046230	0.936451	0.000000	0.000000
45	0.039902	0.934666	0.000000	0.000000
50	0.045809	0.916951	0.000000	0.000000
55	0.058394	0.887408	0.000000	0.000000
60	0.056805	0.861372	0.000000	0.000000
65	0.046613	0.832407	0.000000	0.000000
70	0.028797	0.772561	0.000000	0.000000
75	0.017028	0.684281	0.000000	0.000000
80	0.016774	0.969646	0.000000	0.000000

APPENDIX D (*continued*)

Native-dependent multistate projection: growth matrix (1968)—continued.

region n -> s

first row

age	s -> s	s -> n	n -> s	n -> n
0	0.000000	0.000000	0.000000	0.000000
5	0.001402	0.000188	0.000001	0.000140
10	0.072404	0.009717	0.000109	0.011711
15	0.218049	0.029263	0.000402	0.043198
20	0.272323	0.036546	0.000386	0.041486
25	0.190591	0.025578	0.000164	0.017610
30	0.101947	0.013681	0.000062	0.006660
35	0.044793	0.006011	0.000013	0.001365
40	0.010651	0.001429	0.000001	0.000059
45	0.000646	0.000087	0.000000	0.000000
50	0.000000	0.000000	0.000000	0.000000
55	0.000000	0.000000	0.000000	0.000000
60	0.000000	0.000000	0.000000	0.000000
65	0.000000	0.000000	0.000000	0.000000
70	0.000000	0.000000	0.000000	0.000000
75	0.000000	0.000000	0.000000	0.000000
80	0.000000	0.000000	0.000000	0.000000

survivorship proportions

age	s -> s	s -> n	n -> s	n -> n
0	0.000000	0.000000	0.766006	0.219649
5	0.000000	0.000000	0.819376	0.178729
10	0.000000	0.000000	0.821482	0.176091
15	0.000000	0.000000	0.762531	0.234013
20	0.000000	0.000000	0.744276	0.251539
25	0.000000	0.000000	0.800543	0.193751
30	0.000000	0.000000	0.844562	0.146519
35	0.000000	0.000000	0.873766	0.112561
40	0.000000	0.000000	0.898939	0.081251
45	0.000000	0.000000	0.910685	0.061558
50	0.000000	0.000000	0.907257	0.053562
55	0.000000	0.000000	0.893223	0.051534
60	0.000000	0.000000	0.865871	0.052603
65	0.000000	0.000000	0.823295	0.053871
70	0.000000	0.000000	0.760900	0.050938
75	0.000000	0.000000	0.682606	0.031749
80	0.000000	0.000000	1.019620	0.031410

region n -> n

first row

age	s -> s	s -> n	n -> s	n -> n
0	0.000000	0.000000	0.000000	0.000000
5	0.000025	0.000003	0.000007	0.000769
10	0.002085	0.000280	0.000610	0.065536
15	0.005059	0.000679	0.002282	0.245143
20	0.003123	0.000419	0.003213	0.345069
25	0.001244	0.000167	0.002363	0.253808
30	0.000485	0.000065	0.001261	0.135400
35	0.000115	0.000015	0.000534	0.057309
40	0.000006	0.000001	0.000120	0.012838
45	0.000000	0.000000	0.000007	0.000727
50	0.000000	0.000000	0.000000	0.000000
55	0.000000	0.000000	0.000000	0.000000
60	0.000000	0.000000	0.000000	0.000000
65	0.000000	0.000000	0.000000	0.000000
70	0.000000	0.000000	0.000000	0.000000
75	0.000000	0.000000	0.000000	0.000000
80	0.000000	0.000000	0.000000	0.000000

survivorship proportions

age	s -> s	s -> n	n -> s	n -> n
0	0.000000	0.000000	0.016331	0.970457
5	0.000000	0.000000	0.014759	0.983629
10	0.000000	0.000000	0.024232	0.973658
15	0.000000	0.000000	0.029224	0.967723
20	0.000000	0.000000	0.023422	0.972985
25	0.000000	0.000000	0.017384	0.977897
30	0.000000	0.000000	0.013476	0.979210
35	0.000000	0.000000	0.011446	0.977017
40	0.000000	0.000000	0.009539	0.973198
45	0.000000	0.000000	0.009541	0.965059
50	0.000000	0.000000	0.012816	0.949979
55	0.000000	0.000000	0.017359	0.928437
60	0.000000	0.000000	0.016935	0.901235
65	0.000000	0.000000	0.011484	0.861402
70	0.000000	0.000000	0.007861	0.793333
75	0.000000	0.000000	0.004699	0.696499
80	0.000000	0.000000	0.004638	0.981125

Native-dependent multistate projection: 1998*.

population

age	total	s -> s	s -> n	n -> s	n -> n	south	north
0	11196813.	3459609.	123621.	121584.	7491999.	3581193.	7615620.
5	11336667.	3352658.	217972.	224193.	7541845.	3576850.	7759817.
10	11526699.	3349397.	288225.	301517.	7587560.	3650914.	7875785.
15	10918060.	3104168.	405434.	407530.	7000927.	3511699.	7406361.
20	9664265.	2668703.	493979.	455106.	6046477.	3123810.	6540456.
25	8365127.	2267579.	484798.	417376.	5195374.	2684954.	5680172.
30	10472025.	2613974.	654084.	564914.	6639054.	3178888.	7293137.
35	11122760.	2796649.	718683.	598967.	7008460.	3395617.	7727144.
40	10165524.	2624486.	690665.	545279.	6305094.	3169765.	6995759.
45	8538368.	2256039.	615889.	462802.	5203638.	2718841.	5819527.
50	6708972.	1839828.	540732.	357586.	3970826.	2197415.	4511558.
55	5522848.	1581665.	463757.	299359.	3178067.	1881023.	3641824.
60	5470592.	1552931.	430268.	331373.	3156020.	1884304.	3586288.
65	4943313.	1413890.	374535.	327847.	2827041.	1741737.	3201576.
70	4501860.	1250901.	318541.	313722.	2618696.	1564623.	2937237.
75	3750827.	1033038.	266129.	261182.	2190478.	1294220.	2456607.
80	2258369.	661776.	150538.	154037.	1292018.	815813.	1442556.
85	2146821.	667762.	140846.	144875.	1193338.	812637.	1334184.
total	138609888.	38495044.	7378696.	6289250.	86446904.	44784300.	93825616.

percentage distribution

age	total	s -> s	s -> n	n -> s	n -> n	south	north
0	8.0779	8.9872	1.6754	1.9332	8.6666	7.9965	8.1168
5	8.1788	8.7093	2.9541	3.5647	8.7243	7.9868	8.2705
10	8.3159	8.7009	3.9062	4.7942	8.7771	8.1522	8.3941
15	7.8768	8.0638	5.4947	6.4798	8.0985	7.8414	7.8938
20	6.9723	6.9326	6.6947	7.2363	6.9944	6.9752	6.9709
25	6.0350	5.8906	6.5702	6.6363	6.0099	5.9953	6.0540
30	7.5550	6.7904	8.8645	8.9822	7.6799	7.0982	7.7731
35	8.0245	7.2650	9.7400	9.5237	8.1072	7.5822	8.2356
40	7.3339	6.8177	9.3603	8.6700	7.2936	7.0778	7.4561
45	6.1600	5.8606	8.3469	7.3586	6.0195	6.0710	6.2025
50	4.8402	4.7794	7.3283	5.6857	4.5934	4.9067	4.8084
55	3.9845	4.1087	6.2851	4.7598	3.6763	4.2002	3.8815
60	3.9468	4.0341	5.8312	5.2689	3.6508	4.2075	3.8223
65	3.5663	3.6729	5.0759	5.2128	3.2703	3.8892	3.4123
70	3.2479	3.2495	4.3170	4.9882	3.0293	3.4937	3.1305
75	2.7060	2.6836	3.6067	4.1528	2.5339	2.8899	2.6183
80	1.6293	1.7191	2.0402	2.4492	1.4946	1.8216	1.5375
85	1.5488	1.7347	1.9088	2.3035	1.3804	1.8146	1.4220
total	100.0000	100.0000	100.0000	100.0000	100.0000	100.0000	100.0000
m.ag	34.8266	34.4130	43.3132	42.5775	33.7225	35.5595	34.4768
sha	200.0000	27.7722	5.3234	4.5374	62.3671	32.3096	67.6904
lam	1.040731	1.036608	1.026943	1.063249	1.042165	1.040268	1.040952
r	0.007985	0.007191	0.005317	0.012266	0.008260	0.007896	0.008027

*The first letter in the heading of each column refers to region of birth, the second to region of residence.

APPENDIX D (*continued*)

Native-dependent multistate projection: stable equivalent population*.

stable equivalent to original population
- - - - - - - - - - - - - - - -

age	total	s -> s	s -> n	n -> s	n -> n	south	north
0	10093513.	3099809.	110375.	107086.	6776243.	3206895.	6886618.
5	9741735.	2908414.	187531.	188533.	6457257.	3096947.	6644789.
10	9515354.	2785250.	238160.	244395.	6247549.	3029645.	6485708.
15	9289493.	2610332.	340689.	344562.	5993911.	2954893.	6334599.
20	9060114.	2426895.	450501.	428461.	5754257.	2855356.	6204758.
25	8831009.	2307557.	496042.	443888.	5583522.	2751445.	6079564.
30	8596857.	2221869.	505812.	442661.	5426515.	2664530.	5932327.
35	8345431.	2143451.	502067.	437342.	5262571.	2580793.	5764639.
40	8065594.	2062540.	491309.	432833.	5078910.	2495373.	5570220.
45	7748977.	1976005.	474258.	428104.	4870610.	2404109.	5344867.
50	7383601.	1880951.	450870.	426929.	4624851.	2307880.	5075721.
55	6950989.	1774493.	418377.	436977.	4321141.	2211470.	4739519.
60	6430207.	1651348.	376137.	455294.	3947427.	2106642.	4323564.
65	5777358.	1492467.	329480.	451132.	3504278.	1943399.	3833758.
70	4942713.	1282848.	279805.	402781.	2977279.	1685629.	3257084.
75	3892667.	1018021.	220764.	322768.	2331114.	1340789.	2551879.
80	2688178.	710900.	152353.	226291.	1598634.	937191.	1750987.
85	2653692.	731401.	147689.	233010.	1541592.	964411.	1689281.
total	130007496.	35084556.	6172220.	6453048.	82297664.	41537600.	88469880.

percentage distribution
- - - - - - - - - -

age	total	s -> s	s -> n	n -> s	n -> n	south	north
0	7.7638	8.8353	1.7883	1.6595	8.2338	7.7205	7.7841
5	7.4932	8.2897	3.0383	2.9216	7.8462	7.4558	7.5108
10	7.3191	7.9387	3.8586	3.7873	7.5914	7.2937	7.3310
15	7.1454	7.4401	5.5197	5.3395	7.2832	7.1138	7.1602
20	6.9689	6.9173	7.2988	6.6397	6.9920	6.8741	7.0134
25	6.7927	6.5771	8.0367	6.8787	6.7845	6.6240	6.8719
30	6.6126	6.3329	8.1950	6.8597	6.5938	6.4147	6.7055
35	6.4192	6.1094	8.1343	6.7773	6.3946	6.2131	6.5159
40	6.2039	5.8788	7.9600	6.7074	6.1714	6.0075	6.2962
45	5.9604	5.6321	7.6837	6.6341	5.9183	5.7878	6.0415
50	5.6794	5.3612	7.3048	6.6159	5.6197	5.5561	5.7372
55	5.3466	5.0578	6.7784	6.7716	5.2506	5.3240	5.3572
60	4.9460	4.7068	6.0940	7.0555	4.7965	5.0717	4.8870
65	4.4439	4.2539	5.3381	6.9910	4.2581	4.6791	4.3334
70	3.8019	3.6564	4.5333	6.2417	3.6177	4.0581	3.6816
75	2.9942	2.9016	3.5767	5.0018	2.8325	3.2279	2.8845
80	2.0677	2.0262	2.4684	3.5067	1.9425	2.2562	1.9792
85	2.0412	2.0847	2.3928	3.6109	1.8732	2.3218	1.9094
total	100.0000	100.0000	100.0000	100.0000	100.0000	100.0000	100.0000
m.ag	37.0971	35.9564	43.6530	46.7766	36.3328	37.6374	36.8435
sha	200.0000	26.9866	4.7476	4.9636	63.3022	31.9502	68.0498
lam	1.022039	1.022039	1.022039	1.022039	1.022039	1.022039	1.022039
r	0.004360	0.004360	0.004360	0.004360	0.004360	0.004360	0.004360

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*The first letter in the heading of each column refers to region of birth, the second to region of residence.

APPENDIX E

Native-independent multistate projection to stability ($r = 0.004361$). Regional population disaggregated into stayers (stay), returners (return), established aliens (est. al), and recent aliens (rec. al).

region of residence - south
●●●●●●●●●●●●●●●●●●●●●●●●●●●●●●●●

age	total	stay	return	est.al	rec.al
0	3411697.	3323213.	0.	0.	88484.
5	3281607.	3043111.	2523.	80968.	155004.
10	3204495.	2845275.	7861.	221016.	130343.
15	3118879.	2597105.	18674.	320859.	182241.
20	3021253.	2308070.	38226.	447397.	227560.
25	2940080.	2078979.	60639.	608277.	192184.
30	2874060.	1917582.	79436.	738677.	138365.
35	2801331.	1788790.	93394.	818593.	100554.
40	2719116.	1675649.	103586.	861193.	78689.
45	2624978.	1572615.	110141.	882495.	59728.
50	2522720.	1471915.	115131.	882074.	53600.
55	2417691.	1364559.	121509.	867496.	64127.
60	2299483.	1243404.	128976.	849239.	77863.
65	2118588.	1099914.	130362.	820264.	68048.
70	1839632.	928322.	120188.	749780.	41343.
75	1466969.	725095.	99888.	617987.	23999.
80	1027285.	500875.	71839.	443624.	10946.
85	1058634.	511537.	75331.	464289.	7477.
total	44748500.	30996010.	1377703.	10674229.	1700556.

percentage distribution
****

age	total	stay	return	est.al	rec.al
0	7.6242	10.7214	0.0000	0.0000	5.2033
5	7.3334	9.8178	0.1832	0.7585	9.1149
10	7.1611	9.1795	0.5706	2.0706	7.6647
15	6.9698	8.3788	1.3554	3.0059	10.7165
20	6.7516	7.4463	2.7746	4.1914	13.3815
25	6.5702	6.7072	4.4014	5.6986	11.3013
30	6.4227	6.1865	5.7658	6.9202	8.1365
35	6.2602	5.7710	6.7790	7.6689	5.9130
40	6.0764	5.4060	7.5187	8.0680	4.6272
45	5.8661	5.0736	7.9945	8.2675	3.5123
50	5.6376	4.7487	8.3567	8.2636	3.1519
55	5.4028	4.4024	8.8197	8.1270	3.7709
60	5.1387	4.0115	9.3617	7.9560	4.5787
65	4.7344	3.5486	9.4622	7.6845	4.0015
70	4.1110	2.9950	8.7238	7.0242	2.4312
75	3.2783	2.3393	7.2504	5.7895	1.4112
80	2.2957	1.6159	5.2144	4.1560	0.6437
85	2.3657	1.6503	5.4678	4.3496	0.4397
m.age	37.94	32.71	56.29	51.82	31.42
share	100.00	69.27	3.08	23.85	3.80

APPENDIX E (*continued*)

Native-independent multistate projection to stability ($r = 0.004361$)—continued.

region of residence - north
●●●●●●●●●●●●●●●●●●●●●●●●●●●●●

age	total	stay	return	est.al	rec.al
0	6670372.	6573470.	0.	0.	96902.
5	6448941.	6191142.	4969.	91555.	161276.
10	6299802.	5917069.	14720.	241664.	126350.
15	6159685.	5594918.	36468.	348240.	180058.
20	6028093.	5230638.	78035.	493941.	225480.
25	5880246.	4909523.	123055.	675491.	172177.
30	5712154.	4645590.	156783.	802176.	107604.
35	5533321.	4414482.	181139.	864623.	73077.
40	5335551.	4193576.	198126.	890811.	53038.
45	5112815.	3974697.	207108.	894626.	36384.
50	4849622.	3738852.	209373.	875878.	25520.
55	4522238.	3461032.	206244.	834620.	20342.
60	4120114.	3129016.	198649.	772965.	19484.
65	3649363.	2746801.	187554.	695805.	19202.
70	3095755.	2306997.	170543.	600641.	17575.
75	2421656.	1785927.	142949.	478726.	14055.
80	1659712.	1214971.	102588.	335291.	6861.
85	1599979.	1164990.	102178.	328103.	4707.
total	85099416.	71193688.	2320481.	10225156.	1360090.

percentage distribution
●●●●●●●●●●●●●●●●●●●●●●●●●

age	total	stay	return	est.al	rec.al
0	7.8383	9.2332	0.0000	0.0000	7.1246
5	7.5781	8.6962	0.2141	0.8954	11.8578
10	7.4029	8.3112	0.6343	2.3634	9.2898
15	7.2382	7.8587	1.5716	3.4057	13.2387
20	7.0836	7.3471	3.3629	4.8306	16.5783
25	6.9099	6.8960	5.3030	6.6062	12.6592
30	6.7123	6.5253	6.7565	7.8451	7.9116
35	6.5022	6.2007	7.8061	8.4558	5.3730
40	6.2698	5.8904	8.5382	8.7120	3.8996
45	6.0080	5.5829	8.9252	8.7493	2.6751
50	5.6988	5.2517	9.0228	8.5659	1.8764
55	5.3141	4.8614	8.8880	8.1624	1.4956
60	4.8415	4.3951	8.5607	7.5594	1.4325
65	4.2884	3.8582	8.0826	6.8048	1.4118
70	3.6378	3.2405	7.3495	5.8741	1.2922
75	2.8457	2.5085	6.1603	4.6818	1.0334
80	1.9503	1.7066	4.4210	3.2791	0.5045
85	1.8801	1.6364	4.4033	3.2088	0.3461
m.age	36.65	34.48	53.83	49.35	25.42
share	100.00	83.66	2.73	12.02	1.60

ENTROPY, MULTIPROPORTIONAL, AND QUADRATIC TECHNIQUES FOR INFERRING PATTERNS OF MIGRATION FROM AGGREGATE DATA

Frans Willekens, András Pór, and Richard Raquillet

1 INTRODUCTION

The lack of adequate regional statistics is frequently given as a reason for not endorsing the development of sophisticated regional or multiregional models. The data problem is particularly severe in the case of studies of interregional migration disaggregated by category of migrant.

Improved modeling of migration and of multiregional demographic phenomena in general can frequently only be carried out if additional data requirements are met. However, in cases where the collection of the necessary data is either impossible or too expensive, estimation procedures may sometimes be used as substitutes.

This paper presents a particular class of estimation methods which have great potential in migration analysis. They may be used whenever detailed migration flows (e.g., flows classified into various migrant categories) are required, but only aggregate data on migration patterns are initially available. For instance, how can we disaggregate a total origin–destination migration-flow matrix into age-specific flows if the only information available is a national estimate of the age composition of migrants? How would this estimate differ from one based on information about the age structure of migrants arriving in and departing from each region, or on an initial crude estimate of the age-specific flow matrices? Does additional information improve our estimates significantly? (This is of particular relevance in deciding on the extent of data collection required for a given migration analysis.) Questions like these may be answered by applying the techniques proposed in this paper. In addition, these methods are useful for updating migration tables, because this updating consists of nothing more than estimating migration flows under new conditions (constraints) when estimates under existing conditions are available.

The applicability of the methodology is not limited to migration studies alone, but may also be extended to input–output analysis, transportation analysis (e.g., trip distribution, freight flows), regional economics (e.g., journey-to-work tables), and other fields: in short, to the analysis of various kinds of interaction tables or contingency tables. In fact these techniques, in their simplified (two-dimensional) forms, have received considerable attention in the above-mentioned fields. Quite recently it was realized that the mathematical and statistical characteristics of the basic problem addressed in this paper have also been investigated in contingency-table analysis (the analysis of qualitative, cross-classified data) (see, for example, Bishop *et al.* 1975). A number of results from this research may be used to study the

problem of estimating detailed migration flows from aggregate data and, in particular, to interpret the accuracy of the estimates. The relationship between the estimation methods presented in this paper and the techniques of contingency-table analysis has been discussed by Willekens (1980).

After this introduction, the paper consists of four main sections (Sections 2–5) and two appendixes. In Section 2, the general problem is dealt with in mathematical terms, and some special cases, which are of particular practical interest, are formulated. Section 3 presents the solutions to the basic problem and its variants. In Section 3.1 it is shown that, in terms of mathematical programming, the basic or primal problem is equivalent to another nonlinear problem (dual problem) that may be solved using standard methods. The solution algorithms, which are implemented on the computer, follow in Section 3.2. Section 4 presents some numerical illustrations, namely, the estimated values of interregional migration flows in Austria, disaggregated by age; the estimates are compared with the observed values to investigate the validity of the estimation procedure. A similar validity analysis using Swedish data is also discussed. Conclusions and some suggestions for further research are presented in Section 5. Proofs of five theorems used in the paper, and multiproportional solutions for three special cases of the entropy problem are given in Appendixes A and B, respectively. This paper is a shortened and modified version of an earlier report (Willekens *et al.* 1979), which contains additional applications and a description and listing of the computer program MULTENTROPY that was used to obtain the numerical results presented in this paper.

The entropy method discussed here (the 3F variant) was used in the IIASA Comparative Migration and Settlement Study to obtain estimates of interregional age-specific migration flows for countries with incomplete migration data (Bulgaria and the Netherlands). The applications to Bulgaria and the Netherlands have been described by Philipov (1978) and by Drewe and Willekens (1980), respectively. The method was also used by Tan (1980) to estimate missing migration data for Belgium.

2 PROBLEM FORMULATION

The estimation procedures proposed in this paper for inferring detailed migration patterns from aggregate data have one common feature: the aggregate data appear as sums (hereafter referred to as "marginal sums") of different groups of elements of two- or *n*-dimensional arrays, the elements of which are unknown and must be estimated. (In the two-dimensional case these marginal sums usually represent row or column sums.) Two main groups of problems may be distinguished: (i) the entropy problem, and (ii) the quadratic adjustment problem.

(i) *The entropy problem*. The problem here is to produce a "maximally unbiased" estimate of the elements of an array under the given marginal conditions. In the application of entropy models, two model types may be distinguished: (a) entropy maximizing models, and (b) information-divergence (I-divergence) minimizing models.

    (a) In the entropy maximizing problem one tries to determine the "most probable" elements of an array, under the given marginal conditions. No initial array is known *a priori* and the values of the elements of the array are

seen as equally likely, apart from the marginal constraints specified. The entropy maximizing method was introduced in regional science by Wilson (1967, 1970). The two-dimensional case has received considerable attention in the literature and has been elaborated in several ways to recover interregional flow matrices (of people or of commodities) from various forms of aggregate data (Chilton and Poet 1973, Evans and Kirby 1974, Nijkamp 1975, Willekens 1977).

(b) In the I-divergence minimizing problem one tries to estimate an "*a posteriori*" array which is as "close" as possible to an "*a priori*" array, and which satisfies some given constraints (row and column sums).

The distance function used here to measure the "closeness" of the arrays is the I-divergence or Kullback–Leibler information number (Kullback 1959), also called information for discrimination, *information gain*, or entropy of an *a posteriori* distribution relative to an *a priori* distribution (Renyi 1970). If the known *a priori* array is uniformly distributed, i.e., all elements of the array are equal, then the I-divergence measure is equivalent to the negentropy (entropy with a negative sign). I-divergence with a negative sign was also defined as a measure of the average conditional entropy (Nijkamp and Paelinck 1974a, Theil 1967).

A procedure for minimizing I-divergence in spatial interaction models has been developed by Batty and March (1976). In the two-dimensional case,* the biproportional adjustment method, better known as the RAS method, is the technique most extensively used to solve this type of problem. It was developed independently by Leontief and Stone to update input–output tables and has been studied in detail by Bacharach (1970). Hewings (1977), Thumann (1978), and Hewings and Janson (1980) have provided recent evaluations of RAS and related techniques with special emphasis on their capabilities for exchanging, updating, and predicting regional input–output coefficients. The RAS method is equivalent to the Furness method used in traffic models (e.g., Evans 1970, Evans and Kirby 1974). In the analysis of contingency tables the method is known as iterative proportional fitting and is attributed to Bartlett in a paper written as early as 1935.

(ii) *The quadratic adjustment problem.* This problem applies to situations where initial estimates of the entries of an array are available but where the estimates do not conform with predefined (measured) row and column totals. The reason may be that different sources have been used to calculate the estimates and the totals. The sum-constrained adjustment problem is then to find the array which is as close as possible to the initial array and also satisfies the predefined totals.

The distance function used here to measure the "closeness" of the arrays is a quadratic-type function. Examples can easily be found to show that, unlike the I-divergence minimizing problem, the fact that the elements of the initial array are positive does not ensure that the unique solution of the quadratic adjustment problem will also be positive. To overcome this weakness of the quadratic adjustment method, we suggest an adjustment technique which is not quadratic but which is very closely related to the quadratic adjustment method.

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* A two-dimensional array is a matrix.

2.1   Entropy Maximization

The techniques described in this section address problems in which no input matrix is given *a priori*. Wilson (1967, 1970) used an index to produce the matrix entries which are *most probable*. This index is called the entropy of the matrix.

2.1.1   The Entropy Concept

Suppose that we are given the total number of arrivals I_j and departures O_i disaggregated by region in a two-region system, and that the problem is to estimate the complete origin–destination migration-flow matrix **M** with elements m_{ij}. For example, to estimate

$$\mathbf{M} = \begin{bmatrix} m_{11} & m_{21} \\ m_{12} & m_{22} \end{bmatrix}$$

where

$$I_1 = m_{11} + m_{21} = m_{.1} = 3 \qquad O_1 = m_{11} + m_{12} = m_{1.} = 4$$

$$I_2 = m_{12} + m_{22} = m_{.2} = 3 \qquad O_2 = m_{21} + m_{22} = m_{2.} = 2$$

$$m_{11} + m_{12} + m_{21} + m_{22} = m_{..} = 6$$

In contrast to the biproportional adjustment method, no initial estimates of the matrix elements are available. Therefore, our information is limited to the row and column totals of the matrix to be estimated. For given row and column totals of a matrix, there may be a large number of arrangements of entries that satisfy the marginal conditions. For example, if for a 2×2 migration matrix the row sums are three and three, and the column sums are four and two, then there are three possible arrangements of the entries

$$\mathbf{M}_a = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 0 \\ 1 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \qquad \mathbf{M}_b = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ 2 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \qquad \mathbf{M}_c = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 3 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

Each arrangement of the entries of **M** is called a *macrostate* of the system.

The true migration flow is represented by one of the three macrostates, $\mathbf{M}_a$, $\mathbf{M}_b$, or $\mathbf{M}_c$. Given the limited information we have about the migration behavior, we do not know which macrostate is the true one. Therefore, we must make a guess. It is here that the entropy method is useful. It selects the macrostate which has the highest probability of occurring. A certain macrostate may be generated by various so-called *microstates*. A microstate is an assignment of *individual* migrants to the origin–destination table. In other words, a microstate is a description of the location of every individual in the system, whereas a macrostate gives the number of people in each cell of the table. Consider, for example, the matrix $\mathbf{M}_a$, and denote the individual migrants by $m1$, $m2$, $m3$, $m4$, $m5$, and $m6$. According to $\mathbf{M}_a$, three people migrate from region 1 to region 1, i.e., move within the region. We can select these three from the six migrants in 20 different ways. The number of possible combinations of three people from six can easily be computed using the well-known combinatorial formula

$$^3C_6 = \frac{6!}{3!(6-3)!}$$

Once we have chosen three people to constitute m_{11}, we must select one person out of the remaining three to constitute m_{12}. There are only three possible ways of doing this. Finally, the two remaining individuals constitute m_{22}, since $m_{21} = 0$. Therefore, the total number of ways of selecting three out of six, one out of the remaining three, and two out of the remaining two, is

$$\frac{6!}{3!(6-3)!} \frac{3!}{1!(3-1)!} \frac{2!}{2!} = 60$$

Each of the 60 ways constitutes a separate microstate, or assignment of individuals. In general, the number of ways in which we can select a *particular* macrostate from the total number of migrants $m_{..}$ is given by the combinatorial formula

$$W = \frac{m_{..}!}{m_{11}! \, m_{12}! \, m_{21}! \, m_{22}!} \tag{1}$$

$$W = \frac{m_{..}!}{\prod\limits_{i,j} m_{ij}!}$$

Using eqn. (1), we obtain $W = 60$ for $\mathbf{M}_a$, $W = 180$ for $\mathbf{M}_b$, and $W = 60$ for $\mathbf{M}_c$. The value W is the number of microstates which give rise to a particular macrostate, and is called the *entropy* of the macrostate.

The macrostate $\mathbf{M}_b$ with the highest entropy value is then chosen as the best estimate of the true migration flow. The use of this selection criterion relies on two critical assumptions:

1. The probability that a macrostate represents the true migration-flow matrix is proportional to the number of microstates of the system which give rise to this macrostate (entropy) and which satisfy the marginal conditions.
2. Each microstate is equally probable.

The formal solution to the two-dimensional entropy maximization problem is derived in the next section.

2.1.2 Solving the Entropy Problem

The first assumption given above may be stated in a slightly different way: the true arrangement of a system is one which maximizes the entropy, i.e., one in which the elements can be organized in as many ways as possible (maximum "disorder"). This is the second law of thermodynamics. The analogy between the behavior of social and physical systems is not accidental. Several authors (e.g., Isard 1960) have attempted to describe social phenomena by laws borrowed from physics. This approach, known as *social physics*, was developed in the early regional-science literature.

The use of the entropy concept in the social sciences may be illustrated by information theory (Jaynes 1957), by Bayes's theorem for conditional probabilities (Hyman 1969), and by the use of maximum-likelihood estimators (Evans 1971, Batty and MacKie 1972).* In information theory, entropy represents expected

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* For a comparison, see Wilson (1970, pp. 1–10) and Nijkamp (1977, pp. 18–20).

information. It indicates the degree of uncertainty about the occurrence of events in information systems. Hence, a high entropy value (low uncertainty) is associated with events which are likely to occur. In the maximum-likelihood approach, entropy maximization is equivalent to maximizing the likelihood of a macrostate.

The problem of estimating the most probable migration-flow matrix to satisfy given row and column totals may now be formulated as follows: find the macrostate with maximum entropy W, subject to the marginal conditions. The solution is given by

$$\max W = \frac{m_{..}!}{\prod_{i,j} m_{ij}!} \tag{2}$$

subject to

$$\sum_j m_{ij} = m_{i.} = O_i \qquad \text{for all } i \tag{3}$$

$$\sum_i m_{ij} = m_{.j} = I_j \qquad \text{for all } j \tag{4}$$

Since the maximum of eqn. (2) coincides with the maximum of any monotonic function of W, we may replace W by the Naperian logarithm of W ($\ln W$) in the objective function

$$\begin{aligned}
\ln W &= \ln m_{..}! - \ln \prod_{i,j} m_{ij}! \\
&= \ln m_{..}! - \sum_i \sum_j \ln m_{ij}!
\end{aligned} \tag{5}$$

To make differentiation of the complex function (5) easier, we replace $\ln m_{ij}!$ by Stirling's approximation

$$\ln m_{ij}! = m_{ij} \ln m_{ij} - m_{ij}$$

Since $\ln m_{..}!$ is a constant, we may write the objective function as

$$\max \ln \hat{W} = -\sum_i \sum_j (m_{ij} \ln m_{ij} - m_{ij}) \tag{6}$$

or equivalently

$$\min \ln \hat{W} = \sum_i \sum_j m_{ij} \ln m_{ij} - m_{ij} \tag{7}$$

2.2   I-Divergence Minimization (Biproportional Adjustment)

The biproportional adjustment method, independently developed by Leontief (1941) and Stone (1963), and equivalent to the iterative proportional fitting procedure of Bartlett (1935), uses the I-divergence measure as a distance function

$$I(\mathbf{M}\|\mathbf{M}^0) = \sum_i \sum_j m_{ij} \ln (m_{ij}/m_{ij}^0) \tag{8}$$

which is defined for $m_{ij}^0 \neq 0$. This technique is better known as the RAS method (Stone 1963).

The basic features of the biproportional adjustment problem are described in this section. Quite often our information is not limited to the row and column sums of a two-dimensional migration matrix; we may also know the migration patterns of specific categories of the population (e.g., sexes, age groups). This information may then be used to adjust the original estimates. A more general version of the biproportional adjustment process, the multiproportional adjustment process, allows more *a priori* information to be taken into consideration; this is treated in Section 2.5.

Suppose we are given the total number of migrants arriving in each region, and departing from each region (I_j and O_i, respectively) in a two-region system, and that, as before, the problem is to estimate the complete origin–destination migration-flow matrix **M** with elements m_{ij}. For example, to estimate

$$\mathbf{M} = \begin{bmatrix} m_{11} & m_{21} \\ m_{12} & m_{22} \end{bmatrix}$$

where

$$I_1 = m_{.1} \qquad O_1 = m_{1.}$$
$$I_2 = m_{.2} \qquad O_2 = m_{2.}$$

Suppose we are also given initial estimates of the elements m_{ij}; these estimates are the elements m_{ij}^0 of the matrix $\mathbf{M}^0$

$$\mathbf{M}^0 = \begin{bmatrix} m_{11}^0 & m_{21}^0 \\ m_{12}^0 & m_{22}^0 \end{bmatrix}$$

The initial estimates may be derived from migration tables of previous years, from experts' opinions, or from other sources.* However, the column sums $m_{i.}^0$ and the row sums $m_{.j}^0$ of $\mathbf{M}^0$ are not necessarily equal to the predefined number of departures $O_i = m_{i.}$, and arrivals $I_j = m_{.j}$. We therefore have to adjust the elements of $\mathbf{M}^0$ so that they add up to the required totals. The sum-constrained biproportional adjustment problem may be formulated as follows:

Find the $p \times q$ matrix **M** such that the I-divergence measure is minimized (in migration tables, $p = q$):

$$\min I(\mathbf{M}\|\mathbf{M}^0) \tag{9}$$

subject to

$$m_{i.} = \sum_j m_{ij} = O_i \qquad (i = 1, 2, \ldots, q) \tag{10}$$

$$m_{.j} = \sum_i m_{ij} = I_j \qquad (j = 1, 2, \ldots, p) \tag{11}$$

Note that since $\sum_i O_i = \sum_j I_j$, the $p + q$ row and column totals are not independent. The number of independent constraints is $p + q - 1$. Constraints (10) and (11) are found in all existing methods for constrained adjustment of a two-dimensional array, i.e., of a matrix.

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* This methodology has been particularly successful for updating input–output tables.

2.3   A Comparison of Entropy Maximization and I-Divergence Minimization

This section compares the entropy maximizing and I-divergence minimizing techniques. Both techniques have the same set of constraints,* and any differences may therefore be explained by differences in the objective functions.

(i) Note that the entropy objective function to be maximized

$$\hat{W} = -\sum_i \sum_j (m_{ij} \ln m_{ij} - m_{ij})$$

is also given by

$$\hat{W} = -\sum_i \sum_j (m_{ij} \ln m_{ij}) + m_{..}$$

Since $m_{..}$ is a constant, the maximization of $\hat{W}$ gives the same result as the maximization of the simpler function $\overset{\blacktriangle}{W} = -\sum_i \sum_j m_{ij} \ln m_{ij}$. The objective function $\overset{\blacktriangle}{W} = -\sum_i \sum_j m_{ij} \ln m_{ij}$ is in fact more widely used. If m_{ij} is interpreted as a probability by scaling ($\sum_i \sum_j m_{ij} = 1$), then the objective function defines a quantity called *statistical entropy* or the entropy of the probability distribution. This quantity (multiplied by a constant) has been defined by Shannon as a measure of the uncertainty contained in a probability distribution (Shannon and Weaver 1949).

(ii) The biproportional process differs from the entropy maximizing process in that it contains a term m_{ij}^0 representing an initial estimate of the elements. Again, if m_{ij} and m_{ij}^0 can be interpreted as probabilities, the quantity**

$$W = \sum_i \sum_j m_{ij} \ln (m_{ij}/m_{ij}^0)$$

represents the *information divergence*.

(iii) It appears that all these objective functions belong to the same family and merely express the concept of entropy in different ways; the same basic idea is common to biproportional "minimum deviation" and to statistical entropy. In information theory, the biproportional objective function is interpreted as a measure of the "surprise" produced by new values when compared with old values. Therefore, minimizing the "surprise" or the deviation from our initial information and finding the most probable flows are the basic aims of both the entropy and the biproportional approaches. Both of these techniques measure the deviation with the same function

$$\sum_i \sum_j m_{ij} \ln (m_{ij}/m_{ij}^0) \tag{12}$$

when *a priori* information is available, and use the function

$$\sum_i \sum_j m_{ij} \ln m_{ij} \tag{13}$$

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* If a cost constraint is considered in an entropy problem, then the reciprocal of the cost function plays the role of an *a priori* array $\mathbf{M}^0$ (Willekens 1980).

** When some *a priori* information exists and is expressed in terms of *a priori* probabilities (p_i^0, $i = 1, 2, \ldots, n$), the expected value or information content of a message changing *a priori* information into *a posteriori* information is measured by $-\sum_i p_i \ln (p_i/p_i^0)$ (Jaynes 1957, Theil 1967).

when no such information exists. Therefore, entropy maximizing problems can generally be formulated as I-divergence minimizing problems

$$\min d[\mathbf{M}, \mathbf{M}^0] = \sum_i \sum_j m_{ij} \ln (m_{ij}/m_{ij}^0) \tag{14}$$

where m_{ij}^0 can be uniformly set equal to 1.*

2.4 Quadratic Adjustment

We may formulate the sum-constrained quadratic adjustment problem in the following way.

Find a matrix $\mathbf{M}$ such that a quadratic distance measure $d[\mathbf{M}, \mathbf{M}^0]$ is minimized, subject to

$$\sum_j m_{ij} = O_i \qquad \text{for all } i$$

$$\sum_i m_{ij} = I_j \qquad \text{for all } j$$

The techniques may be distinguished by the distance measures $d[\mathbf{M}, \mathbf{M}^0]$ used.

(i) *Least-squares adjustment.* The most obvious distance measure is the euclidean norm, defined as

$$d[\mathbf{M}, \mathbf{M}^0] = \tfrac{1}{2} \sum_i \sum_j (m_{ij} - m_{ij}^0)^2 \tag{15}$$

(ii) *Friedlander adjustment.* Friedlander (1961) used a distance norm of the χ^2 type

$$d[\mathbf{M}, \mathbf{M}^0] = \tfrac{1}{2} \sum_i \sum_j (m_{ij} - m_{ij}^0)^2/m_{ij}^0 \tag{16}$$

to adjust contingency tables. A related method has been developed by Hortensius (1970). The distance norm is the weighted deviation

$$d[\mathbf{M}, \mathbf{M}^0] = \sum_i \sum_j (m_{ij} - m_{ij}^0)^2/s_{ij} \tag{17}$$

where $1/s_{ij}$ is the weight corresponding to the difference $(m_{ij} - m_{ij}^0)$. The weight used is a measure of the uncertainty. The underlying idea is that the more accurate m_{ij}^0 is, the less adjustment is needed. Hence, for accurate estimates of m_{ij}^0, the weight $1/s_{ij}$ should be small. If the elements of m_{ij}^0 are estimated from a sample, then both the estimate or mean m_{ij}^0 and the whole frequency distribution are known. An appropriate value for s_{ij} is therefore the variance of the distribution (assuming normal distribution). This measure of uncertainty is used by Hortensius.

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* In general, the I-divergence or multiproportional problem reduces to an entropy problem whenever the elements of the initial array are multiproportional (with the uniform distribution as a special case). The results are therefore independent of the initial array. Friedmann (1978) recently showed that the RAS solution is the same for different initial biproportional matrices, although he did not connect this with the entropy problem. MacGill (1977) provides a further discussion on the formal equivalence between entropy and biproportional adjustment methods.

(iii) *Modified Friedlander adjustment.* An important weakness of the least-squares and Friedlander approaches is that a strictly positive matrix $\mathbf{M}^0$ does not necessarily yield a strictly positive matrix $\mathbf{M}$ of estimates. Some elements of $\mathbf{M}$ may be negative. To overcome this failure, we suggest the following measure, which is no longer quadratic:

$$d[\mathbf{M}, \mathbf{M}^0] = \tfrac{1}{2} \sum_i \sum_j (m_{ij} - m_{ij}^0)^2 / m_{ij}$$

2.5 Generalization of Flow-Estimation Problems to N-Dimensional Arrays

The formulation of the problem can easily be extended to more than two dimensions. Suppose that we are given the migration-flow matrix of the total population, and that we are interested in the migration patterns of subsets of the population, e.g., sexes, age groups, nationalities, professional categories. Suppose that we also know the number of arrivals and departures made by each subset in each region. The migration from i to j by category k is denoted by m_{ijk}. The total migration from i to j is $m_{ij.} = c_{ij}$, the number of departures from i by category k is $m_{i.k} = b_{ik}$, and the number of arrivals in j by category k is $m_{.jk} = a_{jk}$. Therefore, the following marginal constraints must be met:

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} m_{ijk} = a_{jk} \qquad (j = 1, 2, \ldots, m; k = 1, 2, \ldots, l)$$

$$\sum_{j=1}^{m} m_{ijk} = b_{ik} \qquad (i = 1, 2, \ldots, n; k = 1, 2, \ldots, l)$$

$$\sum_{k=1}^{l} m_{ijk} = c_{ij} \qquad (i = 1, 2, \ldots, n; j = 1, 2, \ldots, m)$$

The information available is, however, not always presented in this way. For example, in an extreme case, we may not know the flow matrix of the total population but only the total number of arrivals and departures disaggregated by region; we may know the composition of the migrant categories only at the national level. In this case the constraints would take on a different form:

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=1}^{m} m_{ijk} = u_k \qquad (k = 1, 2, \ldots, l)$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{k=1}^{l} m_{ijk} = v_j \qquad (j = 1, 2, \ldots, m)$$

$$\sum_{j=1}^{m} \sum_{k=1}^{l} m_{ijk} = w_i \qquad (i = 1, 2, \ldots, n)$$

where $u_k = m_{..k}$ is the total number of migrants in category k, $v_j = m_{.j.}$ is the total number of arrivals in region j, and $w_i = m_{i..}$ is the total number of departures from region i.

Various combinations of bivariate and univariate marginal sums are possible: a known total-flow matrix with the composition of migrant categories at the national level, numbers of arrivals and departures disaggregated by type of migrant only, etc.

Before proceeding to specific problems, we may formulate our problem in general terms. The mathematical formulation of the *basic adjustment problem* is as follows:

$$\min \sum_i \sum_j \sum_k d[m_{ijk}, m_{ijk}^0] \tag{18}$$

subject to

$$\sum_i m_{ijk} = a_{jk} \qquad (\forall j \in J, k \in K) \tag{19}$$

$$\sum_j m_{ijk} = b_{ik} \qquad (\forall i \in I, k \in K) \tag{20}$$

$$\sum_k m_{ijk} = c_{ij} \qquad (\forall j \in J, i \in I) \tag{21}$$

$$\sum_i \sum_j m_{ijk} = u_k \qquad (\forall k \in K) \tag{22}$$

$$\sum_i \sum_k m_{ijk} = v_j \qquad (\forall j \in J) \tag{23}$$

$$\sum_j \sum_k m_{ijk} = w_i \qquad (\forall i \in I) \tag{24}$$

$$\sum_k u_k = \sum_j v_j = \sum_i w_i = ST \tag{25}$$

$$m_{ijk} \geq 0 \qquad (\forall i \in I, j \in J, k \in K) \tag{26}$$

where $I = \{1, 2, \ldots, n\}$, $J = \{1, 2, \ldots, m\}$, and $K = \{1, 2, \ldots, l\}$ are the index sets; a_{jk}, b_{ik}, and c_{ij} are bivariate marginal sums; u_k, v_j, and w_i are univariate marginal sums; and ST is the total sum.

The elements to be estimated, m_{ijk}, may be arranged in a three-dimensional array, $\mathbf{M} = [m_{ijk}]$; the initial estimates constitute the array $\mathbf{M}^0 = [m_{ijk}^0]$. Both arrays contain only non-negative elements. Some of the elements m_{ijk} may be known exactly. For instance, if intraregional migration is not considered, then the diagonal elements $m_{iik} = m_{iik}^0 = 0$. If other migration flows are known *a priori* (i.e., are fixed to the initial estimate m_{ijk}^0), we have to consider the cell constraints

$$m_{ijk} = m_{ijk}^0 \qquad (i, j, k) \notin \Gamma \tag{27}$$

where the set Γ is defined by setting $\Gamma = \{(i, j, k) | \text{migration from } i \text{ to } j \text{ by category } k \text{ is possible and not fixed}\}$.

The right-hand sides of the constraints are matrices $\mathbf{A} = [a_{jk}]$, $\mathbf{B} = [b_{ik}]$, and $\mathbf{C} = [c_{ij}]$, and vectors $\mathbf{U} = [u_k]$, $\mathbf{V} = [v_j]$, and $\mathbf{W} = [w_i]$. We shall call the constraints (19)–(21) *face constraints*, because they present given values for the three faces of the "cube" or three-dimensional array $\mathbf{M}$. Analogously, the univariate constraints (22)–(24) will be labeled *edge constraints* because they allocate values to the edges of the "cube" or three-dimensional array $\mathbf{M}$. If the face constraints are given, the edge constraints are redundant since the elements on the edges are the sums of the elements on the faces. We shall therefore refer to the basic problem as the "three prescribed faces" problem, or, more concisely, the "three-face (3F)" problem.

Three special cases are of particular interest:

1. The two-face (2F) problem—minimize (18) subject to (19), (21), (26), and (27);
2. The one-face, one-edge (1FE) problem—minimize (18) subject to (21), (22), (26), and (27);
3. The three-edge (3E) problem—minimize (18) subject to (22)–(26), and (27).

To find the best estimates of the elements m_{ijk}, given the constraints and given an array of initial estimates m_{ijk}^0, we generalize the different distance measures as follows:

(i) *Three-dimensional I-divergence measure*

$$d[\mathbf{M}, \mathbf{M}^0] = \sum_{(i,j,k)\in\Gamma} m_{ijk} \ln (m_{ijk}/m_{ijk}^0) \tag{28}$$

Note that the entropy function is equivalent to the I-divergence measure when the original array m_{ijk}^0 over the index set Γ consists of ones. The problem of minimizing the I-divergence measure subject to various marginal-sum constraints is the *multiproportional adjustment problem*.

(ii) *Three-dimensional χ^2 measure*

$$d[\mathbf{M}, \mathbf{M}^0] = \tfrac{1}{2} \sum_{(i,j,k)\in\Gamma} (m_{ijk} - m_{ijk}^0)^2/m_{ijk}^0 \tag{29}$$

The problem of minimizing the χ^2 measure subject to various marginal-sum constraints is the *multidimensional Friedlander adjustment problem*.

(iii) *Modified three-dimensional χ^2 measure*

$$d[\mathbf{M}, \mathbf{M}^0] = \tfrac{1}{2} \sum_{(i,j,k)\in\Gamma} (m_{ijk} - m_{ijk}^0)^2/m_{ijk} \tag{30}$$

It is understood that $(0 - m_{ijk}^0)^2/0 = 0$ if $m_{ijk}^0 = 0$, and $(0 - m_{ijk}^0)^2/0 = +\infty$ if $m_{ijk}^0 > 0$. The problem of minimizing the modified χ^2 measure subject to various marginal-sum constraints is the *modified multidimensional Freidlander adjustment problem*.

In the next section, the basic 3F problem and its variants, considered as nonlinear mathematical programming problems (primal problems), are converted into equivalent dual problems by the duality correspondence, in order to derive the solution algorithms more easily. In establishing the duality results and the solution algorithms for our basic adjustment problem, we rely on results obtained by Rockafellar (1970) in the field of "perturbation" functions and separable programming. We assume that there exists a strictly positive feasible solution [$m_{ijk} > 0$ for all $(i, j, k) \in \Gamma$] which satisfies the constraints (19)–(26).

We prove the existence of a strictly positive feasible solution for the case in which all migration flows are possible in Appendix A. In this case we also estimate the number of people remaining in the same region; the same proof applies however when migration flows from one region to the same region are impossible. For the case in which no strictly positive feasible solution exists, we can establish an asymptotic duality result and prove the convergence of an iterative solution procedure for the I-divergence minimizing problem.

3 SOLUTION OF THE MULTIPROPORTIONAL AND THE MODIFIED FRIEDLANDER (QUADRATIC) ADJUSTMENT PROBLEMS

In order to solve the multiproportional and the modified multidimensional Friedlander adjustment problems, we first derive the corresponding dual problems, for whose solution simple algorithms have been developed. A solution algorithm for the primal multiproportional adjustment problem is also given.

3.1 Duality Results

Before deriving the dual problems, we formulate a number of theorems that demonstrate the existence and uniqueness of the optimal solutions. Proofs of these theorems are given in Appendix A.

Theorem 1

If the solution set defined by constraints (19)–(27) contains a feasible solution $\mathbf{M} = [m_{ijk}]$, such that

$$m_{ijk} > 0 \qquad (i, j, k) \in \Gamma$$

where Γ is the index set for which m_{ijk} is not fixed, then both the multiproportional and the modified multidimensional Friedlander adjustment problems have unique optimal solutions. Further, the optimal solutions are strictly positive for all indices $(i, j, k) \in \Gamma$.

In order to establish the duality results, we introduce some new notation:

$$I(j, k) = \{i \in I | (i, j, k) \in \Gamma\} \qquad (\forall j \in J, k \in K)$$

$$J(i, k) = \{j \in J | (i, j, k) \in \Gamma\} \qquad (\forall i \in I, k \in K)$$

$$K(i, j) = \{k \in K | (i, j, k) \in \Gamma\} \qquad (\forall i \in I, j \in J)$$

Further,

$$\mathbf{\Lambda} = (\lambda_{ij})_{i,j=1}^{n,m}$$

$$\mathbf{N} = (\nu_{ik})_{i,k=1}^{n,l}$$

$$\mathbf{H} = (\zeta_{jk})_{j,k=1}^{m,l}$$

are real-valued matrices denoting the Lagrangian multipliers for the face constraints.

(i) *Unconstrained dual multiproportional adjustment problem*

Minimize

$$L_1(\mathbf{\Lambda}, \mathbf{N}, \mathbf{H}) = \sum_{(i,j,k)\in\Gamma} m_{ijk}^0 \exp\left[-(1 + \lambda_{ij} + \nu_{ik} + \zeta_{jk})\right]$$

$$+ \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=1}^{m} \bar{c}_{ij}\lambda_{ij} + \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{k=1}^{l} \bar{b}_{ik}\nu_{ik} + \sum_{j=1}^{m} \sum_{k=1}^{l} \bar{a}_{jk}\zeta_{jk} \qquad (31)$$

subject to

$$\lambda_{11} = 1$$

$$\lambda_{ij}, \nu_{ik}, \zeta_{jk} \in R \qquad (\forall i \in I, j \in J, k \in K)$$

where

$$\bar{c}_{ij} = c_{ij} - \sum_{k \notin K(i,j)} m_{ijk}^0$$

$$\bar{b}_{ik} = b_{ik} - \sum_{j \notin J(i,k)} m_{ijk}^0$$

$$\bar{a}_{jk} = a_{jk} - \sum_{i \notin I(j,k)} m_{ijk}^0$$

Theorem 2

Let the multiproportional adjustment problem have an optimal solution $\hat{\mathbf{M}} = (\hat{m}_{ijk})$ such that

$$\hat{m}_{ijk} > 0 \qquad (i, j, k) \in \Gamma$$

If $(\bar{\Lambda}, \bar{\mathbf{N}}, \bar{\mathbf{H}})$ is an optimal solution of the dual problem (31), then

$$\hat{m}_{ijk} = m_{ijk}^0 \exp\left[-(1 + \bar{\lambda}_{ij} + \bar{\nu}_{ik} + \bar{\zeta}_{jk})\right]$$

(ii) *Dual modified multidimensional Friedlander adjustment problem*
Minimize

$$L_2(\mathbf{\Lambda}, \mathbf{N}, \mathbf{H}) = -2 \sum_{(i,j,k) \in \Gamma} m_{ijk}^0 (1 + \lambda_{ij} + \nu_{ik} + \zeta_{jk})^{1/2}$$

$$+ \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=1}^{m} \bar{c}_{ij} \lambda_{ij} + \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{k=1}^{l} \bar{b}_{ik} \nu_{ik} + \sum_{j=1}^{m} \sum_{k=1}^{l} \bar{a}_{jk} \zeta_{jk} + 2|\Gamma| \qquad (32)$$

subject to

$$\lambda_{11} = 1$$

$$\lambda_{ij}, \nu_{ik}, \zeta_{jk} \in R \qquad (\forall i \in I, j \in J, k \in K)$$

$$\lambda_{ij} + \nu_{ik} + \zeta_{jk} > -1$$

Theorem 3

Let the modified multidimensional Friedlander adjustment problem have an optimal solution $\hat{\mathbf{M}} = (\hat{m}_{ijk})$ such that

$$\hat{m}_{ijk} > 0 \qquad (i, j, k) \in \Gamma$$

If $(\bar{\Lambda}, \bar{\mathbf{N}}, \bar{\mathbf{H}})$ is an optimal solution of the dual problem (32) then

$$\hat{m}_{ijk} = \frac{m_{ijk}^0}{(1 + \bar{\lambda}_{ij} + \bar{\nu}_{ik} + \bar{\zeta}_{jk})^{1/2}}$$

3.2 Solution Algorithms

The algorithms presented here solve the multiproportional and the modified multidimensional Friedlander adjustment problems for the basic three-face (3F) case. The solutions for the special cases (3E), (1FE), and (2F) may be obtained in a similar way.*

3.2.1 Multiproportional Adjustment Problem

Algorithm for solving the unconstrained dual problem (31)

Step 0

Set

$S(\text{step}) = 0$

$\lambda_{ij}^{(0)} = 1$

$\nu_{ik}^{(0)} = 1 \qquad (\forall i \in I, j \in J, k \in K)$

$\zeta_{jk}^{(0)} = 1$

Step 1

Set

$\lambda_{11}^{(S+1)} = \lambda_{11}^{(S)} = 1$

$\lambda_{ij}^{(S+1)} = \ln \sum_{k \in K(i,j)} m_{ijk}^0 \exp\left[-(1 + \nu_{ik}^{(S)} + \zeta_{jk}^{(S)})\right] - \ln c_{ij}$

for all $i \in I, j \in J$, except for $i = j = 1$.

Step 2

Set

$\nu_{ik}^{(S+1)} = \ln \sum_{j \in J(i,k)} m_{ijk}^0 \exp\left[-(1 + \lambda_{ij}^{(S+1)} + \zeta_{jk}^{(S)})\right] - \ln b_{ik}$

Step 3

Set

$\zeta_{jk}^{(S+1)} = \ln \sum_{i \in I(j,k)} m_{ijk}^0 \exp\left[-(1 + \lambda_{ij}^{(S+1)} + \nu_{ik}^{(S+1)})\right] - \ln a_{jk}$

If

$|\lambda_{ij}^{(S+1)} - \lambda_{ij}^{(S)}| \leq \varepsilon$

$|\nu_{ik}^{(S+1)} - \nu_{ik}^{(S)}| \leq \varepsilon \qquad (\forall i \in I, j \in J, k \in K)$

$|\zeta_{jk}^{(S+1)} - \zeta_{jk}^{(S)}| \leq \varepsilon$

is fulfilled then STOP, otherwise $S \leftarrow S + 1$, and go to Step 1.

---

* If the elements m_{ijk}^0 are uniformly distributed, then the special cases of the multiproportional adjustment problem become entropy problems with closed-form solutions (Appendix B).

Theorem 4

Let $\mathbf{M} = (m_{ijk})$ be a feasible solution of the basic problem such that

$$m_{ijk} > 0 \qquad (i, j, k) \in \Gamma$$

Then the above algorithm converges to an optimal solution of the unconstrained dual problem (31).

Using the result of Theorem 2, we can easily derive the direct primal algorithm.

Algorithm for solving the primal multiproportional adjustment problem

Step 0

Set

$$m_{ijk}^{(0)} = m_{ijk}^{0}$$
$$S = 0 \qquad (\forall i \in I, j \in J, k \in K)$$

In the entropy problem, the *a priori* distribution m_{ijk}^{0} is not known and may therefore be set uniformly equal to unity, i.e., $m_{ijk}^{0} = 1, \forall i, j, k.$

Step 1

Set

$$m_{ijk}^{(3S+1)} = m_{ijk}^{(3S)} c_{ij} \Big/ \sum_{k=1}^{l} m_{ijk}^{(3S)}$$

for all $i \in I, j \in J$

Step 2

Set

$$m_{ijk}^{(3S+2)} = m_{ijk}^{(3S+1)} a_{jk} \Big/ \sum_{i=1}^{n} m_{ijk}^{(3S+1)}$$

Step 3

Set

$$m_{ijk}^{(3S+3)} = m_{ijk}^{(3S+2)} b_{ik} \Big/ \sum_{j=1}^{m} m_{ijk}^{(3S+2)}$$

If

$$\left| \frac{m_{ijk}^{(3S+3)}}{m_{ijk}^{(3S+2)}} - 1 \right| \leq \varepsilon \qquad (i, j, k) \in \Gamma$$

is fulfilled then STOP, otherwise $S \leftarrow S + 1$, and go to Step 1.

3.2.2   Modified Multidimensional Friedlander Adjustment Problem

Algorithm for solving the dual problem (32)

Step 0

Set

$$S = 0$$

$$\lambda_{ij}^{(0)} = 0$$

$$\nu_{ik}^{(0)} = 0 \qquad (\forall i \in I, j \in J, k \in K)$$

$$\zeta_{jk}^{(0)} = 0$$

Step 1

Let $\lambda_{ij}^{(S+1)}$ be the solution of

$$\sum_{k \in K(i,j)} \frac{m_{ijk}^0}{[1 + \lambda_{ij}^{(S+1)} + \nu_{ik}^{(S)} + \zeta_{jk}^{(S)}]^{1/2}} = c_{ij}$$

for all $i \in I, j \in J$, except for $i = j = 1$.

(The left-hand side of this equation is a strictly monotonically decreasing function of the variable $\lambda_{ij}^{(S+1)}$ in the range $(0, +\infty)$. Therefore, there is a unique solution $\lambda_{ij}^{(S+1)}$. A possible method of solution is the Newton method.)

Step 2

Let $\nu_{ik}^{(S+1)}$ be the solution of

$$\sum_{j \in J(i, k)} \frac{m_{ijk}^0}{[1 + \lambda_{ij}^{(S+1)} + \nu_{ik}^{(S+1)} + \zeta_{jk}^{(S)}]^{1/2}} = b_{ik}$$

for $i \in I, k \in K$, and where $\lambda_{ij}^{(S+1)}, \zeta_{jk}^{(S)}$ are considered to be given.

Step 3

Let $\zeta_{jk}^{(S+1)}$ be the solution of

$$\sum_{i \in I(j,k)} \frac{m_{ijk}^0}{[1 + \lambda_{ij}^{(S+1)} + \nu_{ik}^{(S+1)} + \zeta_{jk}^{(S+1)}]^{1/2}} = a_{jk}$$

If

$$|\lambda_{ij}^{(S+1)} - \lambda_{ij}^{(S)}| \leq \varepsilon$$

$$|\nu_{ik}^{(S+1)} - \nu_{ik}^{(S)}| \leq \varepsilon \qquad (\forall i \in I, j \in J, k \in K)$$

$$|\zeta_{jk}^{(S+1)} - \zeta_{jk}^{(S)}| \leq \varepsilon$$

is fulfilled then STOP, otherwise $S \leftarrow S + 1$, and go to Step 1.

Theorem 5

Let $\mathbf{M} = (m_{ijk})$ be a feasible solution of the basic problem (3F) such that

$$m_{ijk} > 0 \qquad (i, j, k) \in \Gamma$$

Then the above algorithm for solving the dual program of the modified Friedlander adjustment problem converges to an optimal solution.

Because of the nature of the modified Friedlander adjustment problem, we could not find a direct primal algorithm. However, using the results of Theorem 3 we

can compute the solution of the primal problem $\hat{m}_{ijk}$ for $(i, j, k) \in \Gamma$ from the dual solution using the formula

$$\hat{m}_{ijk} = \frac{m_{ijk}^0}{(1 + \bar{\lambda}_{ij} + \bar{\nu}_{ik} + \bar{\zeta}_{jk})^{1/2}}$$

4 VALIDITY ANALYSIS AND NUMERICAL ILLUSTRATIONS (USING AUSTRIAN AND SWEDISH DATA)

The techniques developed in the previous sections may be used to deduce detailed migration patterns from aggregate data. But how accurate are the estimates, and which method gives the best results under a given set of conditions? Although research has not yet proceeded far enough to give definite answers to these questions, this section attempts to answer them numerically.

The accuracy of the estimation procedures is examined by applying them to multiregional systems for which complete data sets exist. Using only the marginal conditions, the detailed migration flows are estimated and the estimates are then compared with the observed data. Austria and Sweden are among the few countries that make detailed migration data available. These data may be aggregated in various ways to yield different sets of marginal totals, which may in turn be used to simulate different levels of data availability. Estimates of the detailed flows are calculated using the entropy maximizing method and the quadratic adjustment method.

The "validity" test of the multiproportional and modified Friedlander adjustment methods is basically a comparison between the estimated and observed migration flows and a judgment on the "closeness" of both sets of values. The quality of an estimation procedure is determined by the accuracy with which it can replicate observed data. A key problem in validity analysis is the definition of a composite index that measures the "closeness" of two arrays. In this paper, two such indices are used: the χ^2, and the absolute percentage error. Note that the χ^2 is the distance measure used in the modified Friedlander method.

The χ^2 statistic measures the relative squared deviation between the estimates and the observed values

$$\chi^2 = \sum_{i,j,k} (m_{ijk} - m_{ijk}^0)^2 / m_{ijk} \qquad m_{ijk} \neq 0 \tag{33}$$

The absolute percentage error (APE) measures the deviation in absolute terms

$$APE = \sum_{i,j,k} d_{ijk}$$

where

$$d_{ijk} = |m_{ijk} - m_{ijk}^0| / m_{ijk}^0 \qquad m_{ijk}^0 \neq 0 \tag{34}$$

The average absolute percentage error $(\overline{APE})$, also known as the relative mean deviation or the mean prediction error, is given by

$$\overline{APE} = \sum_{i,j,k} |m_{ijk} - m_{ijk}^0| \Big/ \sum_{i,j,k} m_{ijk}^0 \qquad m_{ijk}^0 \neq 0$$

Both measures give similar results, but the χ^2 statistic attaches a greater penalty to large deviations.

An important observation of the validity study was that the error is not uniformly distributed among the elements of the array. The relative error, expressed by both the χ^2 and the *APE*, is greatest among the small elements (i.e., minor flows). The reason is the small denominator in (33) and (34). This observation is consistent with results obtained in input–output analysis (e.g., Hinojosa 1978). In addition, we found that a small number of elements of the array are responsible for most of the error; most elements are in low-error categories.

Because of these observations, and to get a better idea about the composition of the overall squared or absolute percentage deviation, the error analysis is carried out for subgroups of migration flows. The subgroups are formed on the basis of age (three broad age categories are considered: 0–14, 15–64, 65+), and volume of migration flow (eleven size classes are distinguished: 0–199, 200–399, 400–599, ..., 1800–1999, 2000+). Note that the size classes are in terms of *observed* flows and not in terms of the estimates. The error analysis is also carried out for twelve error categories ranging from less than 2% to greater than 100%.

4.1 Entropy Maximization

The Austrian migration data are taken from the 1971 census and compare the place of residence in 1966 with that in 1971. The data were kindly provided by Dr. M. Sauberer, of the Austrian Institute for Regional Planning. Various aggregations of the migration data were made, and the techniques presented in the previous sections were then used to reproduce the original flow matrix.

The multidimensional entropy maximization method is a special variant of the multiproportional adjustment method: the initial estimates of the elements of the array are set equal to any scalar value, for example, unity: $m_{ijk}^0 = 1$, for all i, j, k, except if $i = j$.* In other words, it is assumed that initial estimates are only available for the diagonal elements.

4.1.1 The Three-face (3F) Problem

Suppose the problem is to deduce origin–destination migration flows disaggregated by age for Austria (four regions) from the available information on the flow matrix of the total population and on the age composition of the arriving and departing migrants for each region. The data are given in Table 1, and present the three faces of a cube (array), the content (elements) of which must be estimated. The estimates can only be obtained by iteration. The computer program solves the 3F problem using the direct primal algorithm (see the second algorithm in Section 3.2.1).

The results of the (3F) estimation procedure are shown in Table 2, together with the observed migration-flow data. The algorithm took only five iterations to converge (tolerance level 10^{-4}).

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* Intraregional migration is assumed to be nonexistent (structural zero). The contingency tables obtained therefore belong to the category of the so-called "incomplete contingency tables" and the analysis is one of "quasi-independence" (Bishop *et al.* 1975, p. 177).

TABLE 1   Internal migration in Austria,[a] 1966–1971.

(a) Migration flow matrix of total population

| | From | | | | |
	East	South	North	West	Total
To					
East	0	12564	10587	3091	26242
South	7460	0	4532	3543	15535
North	11471	7715	0	3629	22815
West	3272	7494	4158	0	14924
Total	22203	27773	19277	10263	79516

(b) Departures ("from") and arrivals ("to") by region and age

| | Region | | | | | | | | | |
| | East | | South | | North | | West | | Total | |
Age	To	From	To	From	To	From	To	From	To	From
0	1896	1783	1428	1909	1733	1445	985	905	6042	6042
5	1086	930	734	1115	981	917	577	416	3378	3378
10	2264	1597	1052	3662	2118	1568	1961	568	7395	7395
15	7424	4172	3212	8323	4801	5297	4595	2240	20032	20032
20	4582	4227	2806	4625	4391	3250	2558	2235	14337	14337
25	2612	2807	1883	2625	2757	1885	1438	1373	8690	8690
30	1122	1123	835	1062	1155	924	603	606	3715	3715
35	906	915	622	903	929	750	519	408	2976	2976
40	950	871	540	807	824	688	413	361	2727	2727
45	625	579	374	517	515	447	237	208	1751	1751
50	601	618	441	514	541	478	268	241	1851	1851
55	675	689	458	521	552	489	251	237	1936	1936
60	576	700	434	455	568	439	201	185	1779	1779
65	431	543	331	340	433	328	147	131	1342	1342
70	274	353	213	217	280	209	94	82	861	861
75	145	194	114	118	156	109	52	46	467	467
80	49	68	37	39	53	35	17	14	156	156
85	24	34	21	21	28	19	8	7	81	81
Total	26242	22203	15535	27773	22815	19277	14924	10263	79516	79516

[a] The nine Austrian federal states (Bundesländer) have been aggregated here into four regions, as follows: East = Wien, Niederösterreich, Burgenland; South = Steiermark, Kärnten; North = Salzburg, Oberösterreich; West = Tirol, Vorarlberg.

The estimates are generally very close to the observed values. The average absolute percentage error is 4.27%, a very low figure compared with that obtained using existing biproportional or two-dimensional entropy methods (Nijkamp and Paelinck 1974b, Hinojosa 1978). About half of the number of migration flows (number of cells in the migration table) and almost two-thirds of the migration volume are estimated with less than 4% error (Table 3b). About 69% of the total absolute percentage error is due to minor migration flows (less than 200 migrants) representing only 11% of the flow volume (Table 3a). A similar pattern is obtained

if the χ^2 statistic is used. The error distribution is, however, more explicit. The minor flows account for 34% of the total χ^2 value.

Similar observations were obtained in applying the estimation procedure to Swedish data. For a system composed of eight regions and eighteen age groups, the average absolute percentage error is 6.32%. About 28% of the cells in the migration table and about half of the migration volume are estimated with an error of less than 4%. The lower level of accuracy as compared with the Austrian estimates is a consequence of the larger share of small flows in the Swedish table. Whereas 52% of the migration flows for Austria contain less than 200 migrants, this figure is 79% for Sweden. About 94% of the total absolute percentage error is due to these minor flows, which account for 72% of the total χ^2 value.

The contribution of minor flows to the overall error is further illustrated by the cross-classification of error categories and flow-size classes (Table 3c). Minor flows are concentrated in the larger error categories.

The importance of small flow values in the overall error raises an additional problem, namely, rounding. Since the most probable estimates are rounded to the nearest integer to represent the number of migrants, error due to rounding may be substantial in the case of minor flows. The error measures in this study do not take into account the effects of rounding. The value of m_{ijk} used in the calculation of the error statistics is the original estimate before rounding.

The effect of age on the error distribution was also investigated. The results are not shown, since no significant difference between the contribution of each age category to the overall error could be observed. This may be a consequence of the uniform age pattern of the migrants.

4.1.2   The Three-edge (3E) Problem

In the (3E) problem, it is assumed that the only known information is for the edges of the box, i.e., the total number of arrivals and departures disaggregated by region, and the migrant age structure at the national level. The data are shown in the row and column sums of Table 1(a) and in the last column of Table 1(b).

The entropy or most probable estimates of the migration flows by age are calculated directly using eqn. (B1) from Appendix B. The (3E) entropy method yields estimates with an average absolute percentage error of 31%. The error is not concentrated in the minor flows but is evenly distributed among the classes of flow size. The high inaccuracy of the estimates may be traced back to the lack of data. Estimating migration flows from a uniform distribution as an initial guess ($m_{ijk}^0 = 1$), and with only three edges given as new marginals, yields a migration pattern in which the three variables, region of origin, region of destination, and age, are independent when taken all together or in pairs.

4.1.3   The One-face, One-edge (1FE) Problem

In the (1FE) problem we estimate the values of m_{ijk} if the total flow matrix c_{ij} and the age structure of the migrants at the national level u_k are given; the estimates are obtained from eqn. (B2) and are shown in Table 4. This may occur when the available *a priori* information consists of the total population and a model migration schedule (see the paper by Rogers and Castro in this volume). By introducing information on the total flow matrix, the average absolute percentage error drops by half, from 31 to 16%. The contribution of minor flows to the overall error increases

TABLE 2 Estimated (3F) and observed migration flows by age for four regions of Austria, 1966–1971.

Migration from east to

Age	Total		East	South	North	West
0	1783	Est.	0	674	874	234
		Obs.	0	670	877	236
5	930	Est.	0	328	482	120
		Obs.	0	328	468	134
10	1597	Est.	0	483	821	293
		Obs.	0	537	828	232
15	4172	Est.	0	1351	2029	793
		Obs.	0	1280	2192	700
20	4227	Est.	0	1336	2246	645
		Obs.	0	1289	2231	707
25	2807	Est.	0	939	1477	392
		Obs.	0	910	1464	433
30	1123	Est.	0	378	596	149
		Obs.	0	368	588	167
35	915	Est.	0	295	493	127
		Obs.	0	293	480	142
40	871	Est.	0	280	474	117
		Obs.	0	312	438	121
45	579	Est.	0	204	306	69
		Obs.	0	222	289	68
50	618	Est.	0	229	314	75
		Obs.	0	241	312	65
55	689	Est.	0	261	346	81
		Obs.	0	280	331	78
60	700	Est.	0	259	373	67
		Obs.	0	269	357	74
65	543	Est.	0	203	290	51
		Obs.	0	210	280	53
70	353	Est.	0	131	189	33
		Obs.	0	138	182	33
75	194	Est.	0	71	105	18
		Obs.	0	74	101	19
80	68	Est.	0	24	37	6
		Obs.	0	26	35	7
85	34	Est.	0	13	18	3
		Obs.	0	13	18	3
Total	22203		0	7460	11471	3272

Migration from south to

Age	Total		East	South	North	West
0	1909	Est.	882	0	556	471
		Obs.	853	0	575	481
5	1115	Est.	493	0	348	274
		Obs.	530	0	329	256
10	3662	Est.	1371	0	1075	1216
		Obs.	1342	0	1044	1276
15	8323	Est.	3800	0	2022	2501
		Obs.	3760	0	1950	2613
20	4625	Est.	2097	0	1324	1203
		Obs.	2081	0	1381	1163
25	2625	Est.	1187	0	781	656
		Obs.	1225	0	800	600
30	1062	Est.	465	0	333	263
		Obs.	464	0	346	252
35	903	Est.	392	0	281	230
		Obs.	408	0	276	219
40	807	Est.	409	0	223	174
		Obs.	411	0	240	156
45	517	Est.	277	0	140	100
		Obs.	269	0	149	99
50	514	Est.	256	0	147	111
		Obs.	263	0	134	117
55	521	Est.	289	0	133	99
		Obs.	296	0	132	93
60	455	Est.	246	0	133	76
		Obs.	253	0	137	65
65	340	Est.	185	0	100	55
		Obs.	190	0	102	48
70	217	Est.	118	0	64	35
		Obs.	121	0	65	31
75	118	Est.	63	0	35	19
		Obs.	65	0	36	17
80	39	Est.	22	0	11	6
		Obs.	22	0	12	5
85	21	Est.	11	0	7	3
		Obs.	11	0	7	3
Total	27773		12564	0	7715	7494

TABLE 2 *Continued.*

Migration from north to

Age	Total		East	South	North	West
0	1445	Est.	764	402	0	280
		Obs.	814	363	0	268
5	917	Est.	482	251	0	184
		Obs.	448	282	0	187
10	1568	Est.	745	371	0	452
		Obs.	771	344	0	453
15	5297	Est.	2888	1107	0	1302
		Obs.	2892	1123	0	1282
20	3250	Est.	1806	734	0	710
		Obs.	1861	701	0	688
25	1885	Est.	1029	466	0	390
		Obs.	998	482	0	405
30	924	Est.	492	241	0	191
		Obs.	485	255	0	184
35	750	Est.	402	187	0	162
		Obs.	379	213	0	158
40	688	Est.	419	146	0	122
		Obs.	411	141	0	136
45	447	Est.	277	101	0	68
		Obs.	275	102	0	70
50	478	Est.	273	124	0	81
		Obs.	273	119	0	86
55	489	Est.	304	114	0	71
		Obs.	295	114	0	80
60	439	Est.	271	110	0	58
		Obs.	263	114	0	62
65	328	Est.	204	83	0	41
		Obs.	198	84	0	46
70	209	Est.	130	53	0	26
		Obs.	125	54	0	30
75	109	Est.	67	27	0	14
		Obs.	66	27	0	16
80	35	Est.	22	8	0	4
		Obs.	22	8	0	5
85	19	Est.	11	6	0	2
		Obs.	11	6	0	2
Total	19277		10587	4532	0	4158

Migration from west to

Age	Total		East	South	North	West
0	905	Est.	250	352	303	0
		Obs.	229	395	281	0
5	416	Est.	111	155	150	0
		Obs.	108	124	184	0
10	568	Est.	148	197	222	0
		Obs.	151	171	246	0
15	2240	Est.	736	754	750	0
		Obs.	772	809	659	0
20	2235	Est.	678	736	821	0
		Obs.	640	816	779	0
25	1373	Est.	395	479	499	0
		Obs.	389	491	493	0
30	606	Est.	165	216	226	0
		Obs.	173	212	221	0
35	408	Est.	113	140	155	0
		Obs.	119	116	173	0
40	361	Est.	121	113	127	0
		Obs.	128	87	146	0
45	208	Est.	71	69	69	0
		Obs.	81	50	77	0
50	241	Est.	73	88	80	0
		Obs.	65	81	95	0
55	237	Est.	82	82	72	0
		Obs.	84	64	89	0
60	185	Est.	59	64	61	0
		Obs.	60	51	74	0
65	131	Est.	42	46	43	0
		Obs.	43	37	51	0
70	82	Est.	26	29	27	0
		Obs.	28	21	33	0
75	46	Est.	15	16	16	0
		Obs.	14	13	19	0
80	14	Est.	5	5	5	0
		Obs.	5	3	6	0
85	7	Est.	2	3	2	0
		Obs.	2	2	3	0
Total	10263		3091	3543	3629	0

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TABLE 3   Error analysis of (3F) migration estimates for Austria.

(a) Analysis by size of flow

Size of flow	Number of flows		Number of migrants		Cumulative absolute % error		χ^2	
	Total	%	Total	%	Value	%	Value	%
0–200	112	51.85	8452	10.63	1043	68.56	0.9121e 02	33.70
200–400	45	20.83	12742	16.02	241	15.81	0.5711e 02	21.10
400–600	20	9.26	9481	11.92	74	4.87	0.2255e 02	8.33
600–800	11	5.09	7687	9.67	73	4.81	0.4191e 02	15.49
800–1000	9	4.17	7705	9.69	36	2.36	0.1924e 02	7.11
1000–1200	3	1.39	3330	4.19	8	0.52	0.2466e 01	0.91
1200–1400	7	3.24	9075	11.41	25	1.63	0.1295e 02	4.78
1400–1600	1	0.46	1464	1.84	1	0.06	0.1074e 00	0.04
1600–1800	0	0.00	0	0.00	0	0.00	0.0000e 00	0.00
1800–2000	2	0.93	3811	4.79	7	0.43	0.4201e 01	1.55
2000+	6	2.78	15769	19.83	14	0.95	0.1887e 02	6.97
Total	216	100.00	79516	100.00	1522	100.00	0.2706e 03	100.00

(b) Analysis by error category

Error category	Percentage error[a]	Number of flows		Number of migrants		Average flow
		Total	%	Total	%	
1	0–2	46	21.30	24037	30.23	522.543
2	2–4	57	26.39	24756	31.13	434.316
3	4–6	31	14.35	13604	17.11	438.839
4	6–8	18	8.33	6463	8.13	359.056
5	8–10	12	5.56	4026	5.06	335.500
6	10–15	28	12.96	5021	6.31	179.321
7	15–20	10	4.63	798	1.00	79.800
8	20–30	10	4.63	650	0.82	65.000
9	30–40	3	1.39	158	0.20	52.667
10	40–60	1	0.46	3	0.00	3.000
11	60–100	0	0.00	0	0.00	0.000
12	100+	0	0.00	0	0.00	0.000
Total		216	100.00	79516	100.00	368.130

(c) Analysis by size of flow and error category

Size of flow	Error category												
	0–2	2–4	4–6	6–8	8–10	10–15	15–20	20–30	30–40	40–60	60–100	100+	Total
0–200	21	23	13	8	4	20	10	9	3	1	0	0	112
200–400	9	12	10	5	3	5	0	1	0	0	0	0	45
400–600	6	9	0	2	2	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	20
600–800	1	2	4	0	2	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	11
800–1000	2	4	0	2	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	9
1000–1200	1	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	3
1200–1400	1	3	3	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	7
1400–1600	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
1600–1800	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
1800–2000	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2
2000+	4	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	6
Total	46	57	31	18	12	28	10	10	3	1	0	0	216

[a] Average absolute percentage error (relative mean deviation) = 4.27.

in importance, in particular if the squared deviation is used as a measurement of error (Table 5).

4.1.4   The Two-face (2F) Problem

Assume that the following two faces are known: the total flow matrix (c_{ij}) and the age structure of the arriving migrants disaggregated by region (a_{jk}). The estimates may be obtained directly by applying eqn. (B3). The additional information on the age composition of arrivals reduces the average absolute percentage deviation only slightly, from 16 to 12% (χ^2 drops from 3662 to 2006). However, the error distribution changes. Minor flows get a greater share of the total absolute percentage error (72% of total absolute percentage deviation and 28% of total χ^2 value).

Results similar to those reported for Austria were obtained for Sweden, where the number of regions is twice as large. The average absolute percentage errors in the (3F), (3E), (1FE), and (2F) problems are, respectively, 6.32, 34.58, 15.26, and 11.90%. The share of the minor flows in the total error was always much higher: in the Austrian case the minor flows accounted for 51–72% of the total percentage absolute deviation, while in the Swedish case they amounted to 90–94%. This may be explained in part by the proportion of the total number and volume of flows constituted by minor flows.

The cases of data availability considered here lead to a firm conclusion: expanding the data set not only reduces the estimation error, but also increases the implicit weight attached to minor flows. This is implicit in the error statistics used: as the deviations between estimates and observations decline, the effects of small denominators become more apparent. The error analysis carried out here may also be used to investigate the marginal value of information on migration. Not every subset of the migration data has the same impact on the quality of the estimates. Hence, in further research we should consider the question: what kind of information on the migration pattern is required in order to obtain estimates of the detailed flow with an acceptable minimum level of accuracy?

4.2   Quadratic (Modified Friedlander) Method

As before, we assume that no *a priori* information on the elements m_{ijk}^0 is available. The elements are set equal to unity except for the diagonal; hence the objective function of the modified Friedlander problem becomes

$$\min d[m_{ijk}, m_{ijk}^0] = \tfrac{1}{2} \sum_{i,j,k} (m_{ijk} - 1)^2 / m_{ijk}$$

The modified Friedlander method is applied to the 3F problem only. The computer program solves the problem using the dual algorithm (see Section 3.2.2). The estimated values of the migration flows m_{ijk} are shown in Table 6. The algorithm required 60 iterations to converge (tolerance level 10^{-4}). The convergence is therefore much slower than in the entropy algorithm. In addition to slow convergence, rounding errors may cause problems (all variables are single precision). The value of the χ^2 statistic is equal to 1614 (Table 7), and lies between the values obtained for the (2F) and (3F) problems. The χ^2 value is given here for illustrative

TABLE 4   Observed and estimated (1FE) migration flows by age for four regions of Austria, 1966-1971.

Age	Total		Migration from east to				Age	Total		Migration from south to			
			East	South	North	West				East	South	North	West
0	1687	Est.	0	567	872	249	0	2110	Est.	955	0	586	569
		Obs.	0	670	877	236			Obs.	853	0	575	481
5	943	Est.	0	317	487	139	5	1180	Est.	534	0	328	318
		Obs.	0	328	468	134			Obs.	530	0	329	256
10	2065	Est.	0	694	1067	304	10	2583	Est.	1168	0	717	697
		Obs.	0	537	828	232			Obs.	1342	0	1044	1276
15	5593	Est.	0	1879	2890	824	15	6997	Est.	3165	0	1944	1888
		Obs.	0	1280	2192	700			Obs.	3760	0	1950	2613
20	4003	Est.	0	1345	2068	590	20	5008	Est.	2265	0	1391	1351
		Obs.	0	1289	2231	707			Obs.	2081	0	1381	1163
25	2426	Est.	0	815	1254	358	25	3035	Est.	1373	0	843	819
		Obs.	0	910	1464	433			Obs.	1225	0	800	600
30	1037	Est.	0	349	536	153	30	1298	Est.	587	0	360	350
		Obs.	0	368	588	167			Obs.	464	0	346	252
35	831	Est.	0	279	429	122	35	1039	Est.	470	0	289	280
		Obs.	0	293	480	142			Obs.	408	0	276	219
40	761	Est.	0	256	393	112	40	952	Est.	431	0	265	257
		Obs.	0	312	438	121			Obs.	411	0	240	156
45	489	Est.	0	164	253	72	45	612	Est.	277	0	170	165
		Obs.	0	222	289	68			Obs.	269	0	149	99
50	517	Est.	0	174	267	76	50	647	Est.	292	0	180	174
		Obs.	0	241	312	65			Obs.	263	0	134	117
55	541	Est.	0	182	279	80	55	676	Est.	306	0	188	182
		Obs.	0	280	331	78			Obs.	296	0	132	93
60	497	Est.	0	167	257	73	60	621	Est.	281	0	173	168
		Obs.	0	269	357	74			Obs.	253	0	137	65
65	375	Est.	0	126	194	55	65	469	Est.	212	0	130	126
		Obs.	0	210	280	53			Obs.	190	0	102	48
70	240	Est.	0	81	124	35	70	301	Est.	136	0	84	81
		Obs.	0	138	182	33			Obs.	121	0	65	31
75	130	Est.	0	44	67	19	75	163	Est.	74	0	45	44
		Obs.	0	74	101	19			Obs.	65	0	36	17
80	44	Est.	0	15	23	6	80	54	Est.	25	0	15	15
		Obs.	0	26	35	7			Obs.	22	0	12	5
85	23	Est.	0	8	12	3	85	28	Est.	13	0	8	8
		Obs.	0	13	18	3			Obs.	11	0	7	3
Total	22203		0	7460	11471	3272	Total	27773		12564	0	7715	7494

TABLE 4 Continued.

			Migration from north to							Migration from west to			
Age	Total		East	South	North	West	Age	Total		East	South	North	West
0	1465	Est.	804	344	0	316	0	780	Est.	235	269	276	0
		Obs.	814	363	0	268			Obs.	229	395	281	0
5	819	Est.	450	193	0	177	5	436	Est.	131	151	154	0
		Obs.	448	282	0	187			Obs.	108	124	184	0
10	1793	Est.	985	421	0	387	10	954	Est.	287	329	337	0
		Obs.	771	344	0	453			Obs.	151	171	246	0
15	4856	Est.	2667	1142	0	1048	15	2585	Est.	779	893	914	0
		Obs.	2892	1123	0	1282			Obs.	772	809	659	0
20	3476	Est.	1909	817	0	750	20	1850	Est.	557	639	654	0
		Obs.	1861	701	0	688			Obs.	640	816	779	0
25	2107	Est.	1157	495	0	454	25	1122	Est.	338	387	397	0
		Obs.	998	482	0	405			Obs.	389	491	493	0
30	901	Est.	495	212	0	194	30	479	Est.	144	166	170	0
		Obs.	485	255	0	184			Obs.	173	212	221	0
35	721	Est.	396	170	0	156	35	384	Est.	116	133	136	0
		Obs.	379	213	0	158			Obs.	119	116	173	0
40	661	Est.	363	155	0	143	40	352	Est.	106	122	124	0
		Obs.	411	141	0	136			Obs.	128	87	146	0
45	424	Est.	233	100	0	92	45	226	Est.	68	78	80	0
		Obs.	275	102	0	70			Obs.	81	50	77	0
50	449	Est.	246	105	0	97	50	239	Est.	72	82	84	0
		Obs.	273	119	0	86			Obs.	65	81	95	0
55	469	Est.	258	110	0	101	55	250	Est.	75	86	88	0
		Obs.	295	114	0	80			Obs.	84	64	89	0
60	431	Est.	237	101	0	93	60	230	Est.	69	79	81	0
		Obs.	263	114	0	62			Obs.	60	51	74	0
65	325	Est.	179	76	0	70	65	173	Est.	52	60	61	0
		Obs.	198	84	0	46			Obs.	43	37	51	0
70	209	Est.	115	49	0	45	70	111	Est.	33	38	39	0
		Obs.	125	54	0	30			Obs.	28	21	33	0
75	113	Est.	62	27	0	24	75	60	Est.	18	21	21	0
		Obs.	66	27	0	16			Obs.	14	13	19	0
80	38	Est.	21	9	0	8	80	20	Est.	6	7	7	0
		Obs.	22	8	0	5			Obs.	5	3	6	0
85	20	Est.	11	5	0	4	85	10	Est.	3	4	4	0
		Obs.	11	6	0	2			Obs.	2	2	3	0
Total	19277		10587	4532	0	4158	Total	10263		3091	3543	3629	0

TABLE 5   Error analysis of (1FE) migration estimates for Austria.

(a) *Analysis by size of flow*

Size of flow	Number of flows		Number of migrants		Cumulative absolute % error		χ^2	
	Total	%	Total	%	Value	%	Value	%
0–200	112	51.85	8452	10.63	3809	70.07	0.7952e 03	21.72
200–400	45	20.83	12742	16.02	774	14.24	0.6374e 03	17.41
400–600	20	9.26	9481	11.92	232	4.27	0.1920e 03	5.24
600–800	11	5.09	7687	9.67	208	3.83	0.2945e 03	8.04
800–1000	9	4.17	7705	9.69	106	1.96	0.1565e 03	4.27
1000–1200	3	1.39	3330	4.19	49	0.90	0.1751e 03	4.78
1200–1400	7	3.24	9075	11.41	141	2.59	0.7689e 03	21.00
1400–1600	1	0.46	1464	1.84	14	0.26	0.3530e 02	0.96
1600–1800	0	0.00	0	0.00	0	0.00	0.0000e 00	0.00
1800–2000	2	0.93	3811	4.79	3	0.05	0.1222e 01	0.03
2000 +	6	2.78	15769	19.83	99	1.83	0.6055e 03	16.54
Total	216	100.00	79516	100.00	5437	100.00	0.3662e 04	100.00

(b) *Analysis by error category*

Error category	Percentage error [a]	Number of flows		Number of migrants		Average flow
		Total	%	Total	%	
1	0–2	19	8.80	10024	12.61	527.579
2	2–4	12	5.56	4089	5.14	340.750
3	4–6	18	8.33	5945	7.48	330.278
4	6–8	4	1.85	5277	6.64	1319.250
5	8–10	12	5.56	4602	5.79	383.500
6	10–15	38	17.59	13163	16.55	346.395
7	15–20	28	12.96	14785	18.59	528.036
8	20–30	31	14.35	9764	12.28	314.968
9	30–40	20	9.26	7422	9.33	371.100
10	40–60	16	7.41	3523	4.43	220.188
11	60–100	10	4.63	748	0.94	74.800
12	100 +	8	3.70	174	0.22	21.750
Total		216	100.00	79516	100.00	368.130

(c) *Analysis by size of flow and error category*

Size of flow	Error category												
	0–2	2–4	4–6	6–8	8–10	10–15	15–20	20–30	30–40	40–60	60–100	100 +	Total
0–200	7	6	7	2	7	19	10	15	8	13	10	8	112
200–400	2	4	7	0	2	7	5	9	8	1	0	0	45
400–600	4	1	2	0	1	5	4	3	0	0	0	0	20
600–800	1	0	0	0	1	1	5	1	2	0	0	0	11
800–1000	2	0	1	0	0	3	1	2	0	0	0	0	9
1000–1200	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	3
1200–1400	1	0	1	0	0	2	1	0	0	2	0	0	7
1400–1600	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
1600–1800	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
1800–2000	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2
2000+	0	0	0	2	1	0	1	1	1	0	0	0	6
Total	19	12	18	4	12	38	28	31	20	16	10	8	216

[a] Average absolute percentage error (relative mean deviation) = 16.24.

purposes only. It is not an appropriate goodness-of-fit test for the modified Friedlander method, since it is not independent of the objective function used. As a consequence, an objective comparison of the quality of the entropy and the quadratic methods is not straightforward. Further research on the development of appropriate test statistics is needed.

5 CONCLUSIONS

In migration analysis it frequently occurs that data on migration flows disaggregated by regions of origin and destination do not exist for subgroups of the population (such as age groups, income classes, educational levels, etc.) and that one has to infer these detailed flows from some more-aggregate information. This paper presents and generalizes two classes of estimation methods with great potential for solving this type of problem.

The classes and individual techniques may formally be presented as mathematical optimization problems with nonlinear objective functions and linear constraints. The various techniques differ in the objective function used.

The first class, namely, the bi- and multiproportional adjustment methods, combines the entropy maximization and the I-divergence minimizing problems. The two formulations have much in common, although they were developed independently. This paper presents a generalized formulation integrating both estimation techniques. The entropy method may be considered a special case of the more general I-divergence method. In the entropy problem, no initial values of the elements to be estimated are available and they are therefore uniformly set equal to unity. A single-solution algorithm is developed for both problems. Which of the techniques should be used will depend on the data available. The entropy method is more suited to estimating detailed migration flows on the basis of aggregate information only; the I-divergence method lends itself to updating migration-flow tables.

In the quadratic adjustment problems, weighted squared deviations between estimates and initial guesses are minimized. The latter may be derived from outdated migration tables or may represent *a priori* information on the migration pattern. A disadvantage of the quadratic adjustment methods, among them the Friedlander method, is that the estimates are not always of the appropriate sign. To avoid such anomalies as negative gross out-migration flows, a modified Friedlander method is presented.

The validity of the various estimation procedures has been demonstrated using migration data referring to Austria and Sweden. The numerical illustration shows that the estimates obtained by the multidimensional entropy method are very close to the observed data in the (3F) case. The estimates in other cases were not so good, but it was assumed that fewer data were available. However, one remarkable observation was that the (2F) case yielded estimates that did not deviate much from those obtained in the (3F) case, even though the latter required much more initial data. The reason is the high age specificity of migration. There seems to be a threshold level of information about the age composition of migrants that is sufficient to yield good estimates of detailed flows: after this threshold is reached, having more *a priori* information on the age structure does not add significantly to the quality of the estimates. This may lead to some interesting further research.

TABLE 6   Observed and estimated (modified Friedlander) migration flows by age for four regions of Austria, 1966–1971.

Migration from east to

Age	Total		East	South	North	West
0	1783	Est.	0	681	799	304
		Obs.	0	670	877	236
5	930	Est.	0	316	428	186
		Obs.	0	328	468	134
10	1597	Est.	0	466	729	402
		Obs.	0	537	828	232
15	4172	Est.	0	1522	2156	494
		Obs.	0	1280	2192	700
20	4227	Est.	0	1321	2411	494
		Obs.	0	1289	2231	707
25	2807	Est.	0	915	1486	407
		Obs.	0	910	1464	433
30	1123	Est.	0	362	560	201
		Obs.	0	368	588	167
35	915	Est.	0	273	465	176
		Obs.	0	293	480	142
40	871	Est.	0	252	471	148
		Obs.	0	312	438	121
45	579	Est.	0	190	304	85
		Obs.	0	222	289	68
50	618	Est.	0	223	300	95
		Obs.	0	241	312	65
55	689	Est.	0	257	339	92
		Obs.	0	280	331	78
60	700	Est.	0	253	375	72
		Obs.	0	269	357	74
65	543	Est.	0	198	292	53
		Obs.	0	210	280	53
70	353	Est.	0	128	191	34
		Obs.	0	138	182	33
75	194	Est.	0	68	107	19
		Obs.	0	74	101	19
80	68	Est.	0	23	38	6
		Obs.	0	26	35	7
85	34	Est.	0	13	19	3
		Obs.	0	13	18	3
Total	22203		0	7460	11471	3272

Migration from south to

Age	Total		East	South	North	West
0	1909	Est.	921	0	628	360
		Obs.	853	0	575	481
5	1115	Est.	503	0	413	199
		Obs.	530	0	329	256
10	3662	Est.	1426	0	1194	1042
		Obs.	1342	0	1044	1276
15	8323	Est.	3388	0	1815	3120
		Obs.	3760	0	1950	2613
20	4625	Est.	2197	0	1143	1285
		Obs.	2081	0	1381	1163
25	2625	Est.	1268	0	790	567
		Obs.	1225	0	800	600
30	1062	Est.	470	0	388	204
		Obs.	464	0	346	252
35	903	Est.	404	0	325	174
		Obs.	408	0	276	219
40	807	Est.	439	0	234	134
		Obs.	411	0	240	156
45	517	Est.	298	0	143	76
		Obs.	269	0	149	99
50	514	Est.	265	0	162	87
		Obs.	263	0	134	117
55	521	Est.	305	0	137	80
		Obs.	296	0	132	93
60	455	Est.	258	0	132	65
		Obs.	253	0	137	65
65	340	Est.	195	0	98	47
		Obs.	190	0	102	48
70	217	Est.	124	0	62	30
		Obs.	121	0	65	31
75	118	Est.	67	0	34	17
		Obs.	65	0	36	17
80	39	Est.	24	0	10	5
		Obs.	22	0	12	5
85	21	Est.	11	0	7	3
		Obs.	11	0	7	3
Total	27773		12564	0	7715	7494

TABLE 6   *Continued.*

			Migration from north to							Migration from west to			
Age	Total		East	South	North	West	Age	Total		East	South	North	West
0	1445	Est.	678	445	0	322	0	905	Est.	297	302	306	0
		Obs.	814	363	0	268			Obs.	229	395	281	0
5	917	Est.	443	283	0	192	5	416	Est.	140	135	141	0
		Obs.	448	282	0	187			Obs.	108	124	184	0
10	1568	Est.	650	401	0	517	10	563	Est.	188	186	194	0
		Obs.	771	344	0	453			Obs.	151	171	246	0
15	5297	Est.	3481	835	0	981	15	2240	Est.	555	855	830	0
		Obs.	2892	1123	0	1282			Obs.	772	809	659	0
20	3250	Est.	1796	676	0	779	20	2235	Est.	589	809	837	0
		Obs.	1861	701	0	688			Obs.	640	816	779	0
25	1885	Est.	911	510	0	464	25	1373	Est.	433	459	482	0
		Obs.	998	482	0	405			Obs.	389	491	493	0
30	924	Est.	444	282	0	198	30	606	Est.	208	191	207	0
		Obs.	485	255	0	184			Obs.	173	212	221	0
35	750	Est.	362	220	0	168	35	408	Est.	141	129	139	0
		Obs.	379	213	0	158			Obs.	119	116	173	0
40	688	Est.	381	176	0	131	40	361	Est.	130	111	120	0
		Obs.	411	141	0	136			Obs.	128	87	146	0
45	447	Est.	253	119	0	75	45	208	Est.	74	66	68	0
		Obs.	275	102	0	70			Obs.	81	50	77	0
50	478	Est.	251	142	0	86	50	241	Est.	85	77	79	0
		Obs.	273	119	0	86			Obs.	65	81	95	0
55	489	Est.	284	126	0	79	55	237	Est.	87	75	76	0
		Obs.	295	114	0	80			Obs.	84	64	89	0
60	439	Est.	253	122	0	64	60	185	Est.	65	59	60	0
		Obs.	263	114	0	62			Obs.	60	51	74	0
65	328	Est.	190	91	0	47	65	131	Est.	46	42	43	0
		Obs.	198	84	0	46			Obs.	43	37	51	0
70	209	Est.	121	58	0	30	70	82	Est.	29	26	27	0
		Obs.	125	54	0	30			Obs.	28	21	33	0
75	109	Est.	61	31	0	17	75	46	Est.	16	15	15	0
		Obs.	66	27	0	16			Obs.	14	13	19	0
80	35	Est.	20	9	0	5	80	14	Est.	5	4	5	0
		Obs.	22	8	0	5			Obs.	5	3	6	0
85	19	Est.	10	6	0	3	85	7	Est.	2	2	2	0
		Obs.	11	6	0	2			Obs.	2	2	3	0
Total	19277		10587	4532	0	4158	Total	10263		3091	3543	3629	0

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TABLE 7   Error analysis of the modified Friedlander migration estimates for Austria.

(a) Analysis by size of flow

Size of flow	Number of flows		Number of migrants		Cumulative absolute % error		χ^2	
	Total	%	Total	%	Value	%	Value	%
0–200	112	51.85	8452	10.63	1355	54.16	0.1903e 03	11.79
200–400	45	20.83	12742	16.02	545	21.79	0.2963e 03	18.35
400–600	20	9.26	9481	11.92	153	6.11	0.9538e 02	5.91
600–800	11	5.09	7687	9.67	168	6.73	0.3418e 03	21.17
800–1000	9	4.17	7705	9.69	63	2.50	0.6438e 02	3.99
1000–1200	3	1.39	3330	4.19	51	2.02	0.1301e 03	8.06
1200–1400	7	3.24	9075	11.41	90	3.61	0.2404e 03	14.89
1400–1600	1	0.46	1464	1.84	1	0.06	0.3149e 00	0.02
1600–1800	0	0.00	0	0.00	0	0.00	0.0000e 00	0.00
1800–2000	2	0.93	3811	4.79	10	0.42	0.1237e 02	0.77
2000+	6	2.78	15769	19.83	65	2.60	0.2431e 03	15.06
Total	216	100.00	79516	100.00	2502	100.00	0.1614e 04	100.00

(b) Analysis by error category

Error category	Percentage error[a]	Number of flows		Number of migrants		Average flow
		Total	%	Total	%	
1	0–2	22	10.19	9606	12.08	436.636
2	2–4	37	17.13	10261	12.90	277.324
3	4–6	18	8.33	7370	9.27	409.444
4	6–8	30	13.89	10016	12.60	333.867
5	8–10	17	7.87	10995	13.83	646.765
6	10–15	25	11.57	7359	9.25	294.360
7	15–20	26	12.04	10460	13.15	402.308
8	20–30	33	15.28	12085	15.20	366.212
9	30–40	5	2.31	1064	1.34	212.800
10	40–60	2	0.93	68	0.09	34.000
11	60–100	1	0.46	232	0.29	232.000
12	100+	0	0.00	0	0.00	0.000
Total		216	100.00	79516	100.00	368.130

(c) Analysis by size of flow and error category

Size of flow	Error category												Total
	0–2	2–4	4–6	6–8	8–10	10–15	15–20	20–30	30–40	40–60	60–100	100+	
0–200	10	22	7	15	6	13	16	17	4	2	0	0	112
200–400	3	9	5	5	4	5	4	9	0	0	1	0	45
400–600	3	2	3	5	3	3	0	1	0	0	0	0	20
600–800	1	1	1	2	0	1	1	3	1	0	0	0	11
800–1000	3	0	1	1	2	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	9
1000–1200	0	0	0	0	0	2	0	1	0	0	0	0	3
1200–1400	0	2	0	1	0	0	3	1	0	0	0	0	7
1400–1600	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
1600–1800	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
1800–2000	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2
2000+	1	0	1	0	2	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	6
Total	22	37	18	30	17	25	26	33	5	2	1	0	216

[a] Average absolute percentage error (relative mean deviation) = 11.03.

A number of topics that need more study have been mentioned in this paper. First, there is the question of how much we need to know in advance to generate acceptable or good estimates of migration flows for subgroups of the population. The answer depends on the homogeneity of the population structure with regard to variables underlying the classification scheme. For instance, the age curve of migrants is very homogeneous across populations. Limited information on the age composition may therefore give good estimates of the flows disaggregated by age.

A related research topic is the development of ways to improve the initial guesses m_{ijk}^0. One strategy is to derive the *a priori* distribution m_{ijk}^0 from a behavioral migration model in which moves are explained on the basis of push and pull factors, intervening factors, and personal factors or migrant characteristics. This approach was applied by Nijkamp (1976) to estimate commuting flows. Another possible strategy may be to introduce *a priori* expert opinions on detailed migration patterns. Yet another approach is to identify a structure in the interaction flows to be estimated, to represent this structure by a specific mathematical expression, and to introduce it as additional *a priori* information to improve the quality of the estimates. In the entropy methods presented in this paper, it is assumed that the estimates m_{ijk} are independent. However, some kind of interdependence may be introduced without over-complicating the estimation procedure. Current research on model migration schedules is of particular relevance in this regard (Castro and Rogers 1979). The increased attention devoted to the analysis of contingency tables or cross-classified data may also be very useful (Bishop *et al.* 1975, Goodman 1978). In fact, the limited data available require implicit or explicit assumptions to be made about the interdependence of the cross-classified variables. In the 3F problem, pairwise interactions between variables are introduced in the estimation procedure through the marginal constraints. These interaction patterns are absent in the 3E problem, and only partially present in the 1FE problem. The potential of contingency-table analysis for improved estimation of complex migration tables has been explored by Willekens (1980).

A third topic for further research is the extension and application of the techniques presented in this paper for updating migration tables. In countries such as the United States, the United Kingdom, Canada, Japan, and France, censuses are the main sources of migration statistics. Changes in migration patterns during the period between censuses are therefore difficult to assess at a detailed level. The multiproportional adjustment method may be relevant for updating census migration tables using marginal constraints derived from aggregate data for the years between censuses.

Finally, we need to know objectively how well the techniques perform. It is necessary, therefore, to develop one or a set of appropriate statistics to measure in objective terms the "goodness-of-fit" of the methods presented. The χ^2 statistic is used most frequently. Related statistics are also used by Nijkamp and Paelinck (1974a), Hinojosa (1978), and others. However, the use of these test statistics poses some severe problems; for example their values are affected heavily by smaller flows. (See also Forslund and Schoettner 1979.)

The research reported in this paper has led to some potentially very useful estimation methods for migration analysis. It has also led to the formulation of a number of challenging research topics to improve our knowledge of migration patterns. The results presented here and the research priorities identified are not

limited, however, to the study of migration. They are applicable to any kind of n-dimensional interaction tables, whether they are spatial (e.g., trip distribution, commuting), sectoral (input–output studies), or of some other type. It is not the nature of the data that is important, but their cross-classification; the methods may be applied to all cross-classified data or n-dimensional contingency tables regardless of their subject.

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APPENDIX A: PROOFS OF THEOREMS 1–5

Proof of Theorem 1

Let S denote the set of feasible solutions to constraints (19)–(27). S is a nonempty, bounded, closed convex set in R_+^γ ($\gamma = |\Gamma|$; the cardinality of set Γ).

Since the objective functions of both the multiproportional and the modified multidimensional Friedlander adjustment problems are strictly convex over R_+^γ, we have a unique optimal solution $s^* \in S$ in both cases. s^* is a vector containing the elements of the set $\{m_{ijk} | (i, j, k) \in \Gamma\}$.

We now show that if one element $s_i^* = 0$ for some i, then a contradiction ensues. By assumption, we know that there exists $\hat{s} \in S$ such that $\hat{s}_i > 0$ for $0 \le i \le \gamma$.

By definition, the value of the modified three-dimensional χ^2 measure $(xe:30)$ is $+\infty$ at point s^* and finite at $\hat{s}$, which obviously contradicts the fact that s^* is an optimal value for the modified multidimensional Friedlander adjustment problem.

For the multiproportional adjustment problem, and since S is a convex set, we have

$$\lambda \hat{s} + (1 - \lambda) s^* \in S \qquad (\forall 0 \le \lambda \le 1)$$

$$\lambda \hat{s} + (1 - \lambda) s^* > 0 \qquad (\forall 0 < \lambda \le 1)$$

Let

$$f(\lambda) = \sum_{i=1}^{\gamma} (\lambda \hat{s}_i + (1 - \lambda) s_i^*) \ln \left[\frac{\lambda \hat{s}_i + (1 - \lambda) s_i^*}{s_i^0} \right] \qquad 0 < \lambda < 1$$

where the vector s^0 represents the values of the set $\{m_{ijk}^0 | (i, j, k) \in \Gamma\}$ in the same way as the vector $s \in S$ represents the values of $\{m_{ijk} | (i, j, k) \in \Gamma\}$.

Consider now the derivative of $f(\lambda)$ for $0 < \lambda < 1$. We have

$$\frac{\partial f(\lambda)}{\partial \lambda} = \sum_{s_i^* = 0} \hat{s}_i \ln \left(\frac{\lambda \hat{s}_i}{s_i^0} \right) + \sum_{s_i^* \neq 0} (\hat{s}_i - s_i^*) \ln \left[\frac{\lambda \hat{s}_i + (1 - \lambda) s_i^*}{s_i^0} \right] + \sum_{i=1}^{\gamma} (\hat{s}_i - s_i^*)$$

Since

$$\sum_{s_i^* \neq 0} (\hat{s}_i - s_i^*) \ln \left[\frac{\lambda \hat{s}_i + (1 - \lambda) s_i^*}{s_i^0} \right]$$

is bounded over the interval $[0, 1]$ and

$$\lim_{\lambda \to 0} \sum_{s_i^* = 0} \hat{s}_i \ln \left(\frac{\lambda \hat{s}_i}{s_i^0} \right) = -\infty$$

there exist such $0 < \lambda_0 < 1$ that

$$\frac{\partial f(\lambda)}{\partial \lambda} < 0 \qquad (\forall 0 < \lambda < \lambda_0)$$

which obviously contradicts the fact that s_i^* is an optimal solution.

Proof of Theorems 2 and 3

Before starting the proof of Theorems 2 and 3, we first summarize some features of convex analysis, as presented by Rockafellar (1970).

Let f be a closed, proper convex function on R^n (i.e., f is convex and lower semicontinuous and never assumes the value $-\infty$, although $+\infty$ is allowed). The effective domain of f is the convex set dom $f = \{x : f(x) < +\infty\}$. The conjugate function of $f(x)$ is denoted by $f^*(x^*)$ and is defined as

$$f^*(x^*) = \sup \{\langle x, x^* \rangle - f(x) | x \in ri \, (dom \, f)\}$$

where ri denotes the relative interior of the set dom f. The proof of the duality results will rely on the decomposition principle suggested by Rockafellar (1970).

First, we shall consider the problem of minimizing

$$f_1(x_1) + \cdots + f_n(x_n) \qquad x = (x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_n) \in R^n \tag{A1}$$

subject to

$$\mathbf{A}x = b$$

and

$$x \geq 0$$

where $f_i(x_i)$ is a proper convex function and b is a given vector in R^n.

Theorem A1

If the infimum in the above problem is finite and there exists $x \in R^n$ such that

$$\mathbf{A}x = b$$

and

$$x > 0$$

(i.e., all the components of x are strictly positive), then by minimizing the convex function

$$w(\lambda) = f_1^*(-\langle a^{(n)}, \lambda \rangle) + \cdots + f_n(-\langle a^{(n)}, \lambda \rangle) + \langle b, \lambda \rangle \qquad \lambda \in R^n$$

(where f_i^* is conjugate to f_i and $a^{(i)}$ represents the ith column of matrix $\mathbf{A}$), and using any member of the minimum set $\lambda^* \in R^n$ of it, the following subproblems define an optimal solution to the primal problem

$$\min_{x_i} f_i(x_i) + x_i \langle a^{(i)}, \lambda^* \rangle \qquad (i = 1, 2, \ldots, n)$$

For the proof of Theorem A1, see Section 28 of Rockafellar (1970).

Both the I-divergence measure eqn. (28) and the modified three-dimensional χ^2 measure can be separated into single-valued convex functions of the variables m_{ijk}.

Since the constraints (19)–(27) are linear equations of variables m_{ijk}, we can decompose both the multiproportional and the modified multidimensional Friedlander adjustment problems as discussed above.

The conjugate of the functions

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} x \ln(x/a) & \text{if } x > 0 \\ 0 & \text{if } x = 0 \qquad a > 0 \qquad x \in R_+ \\ +\infty & \text{if } x < 0 \end{cases}$$

and

$$g(x) = \begin{cases} (x-a)^2/x & \text{if } x > 0 \\ +\infty & \text{if } x \leq 0 \end{cases}$$

can be obtained in the form

$$f^*(x^*) = a\, e^{x^* - 1} \qquad \forall x^* \in R$$

$$g^*(x^*) = \begin{cases} -2a\sqrt{1-x^*} + 2 & \text{if } x^* < 1 \\ +\infty & \text{if } x^* \geq 1 \end{cases} \qquad x \in R_+$$

It is now easy to see that the functions W for the multiproportional and for the modified multidimensional Friedlander problems will take the forms $L_1(\Lambda, \mathbf{N}, \mathbf{H})$ and $L_2(\Lambda, \mathbf{N}, \mathbf{H})$, respectively.

It is easy to prove that one of the dual variables can be fixed at any constant value in both dual problems without changing the optimal value of the objective function. Theorems 2 and 3 are direct corollaries of Theorem A1.

Proof of Theorems 4 and 5

Before starting the proof of Theorems 4 and 5, we must summarize a number of points from convex analysis.

The recession function of f is denoted by $f0^+$ and defined as

$$(f0^+)(x) = \lim_{\alpha \downarrow 0} \alpha f(\alpha^{-1}x) \quad x \in \text{dom } f$$

If, for a nonzero vector, $x \in \text{dom } f$, $(f0^+)(x) \le 0$, then vector x is known as the "direction in which f recedes" or the direction of recession of f.

In the following analysis, our attention will be focused on the properties of the parameterized nest of level sets

$$\text{lev}_\alpha f = \{x | f(x) \le \alpha\} \qquad \alpha \in R$$

belonging to a given proper convex function f.

Let inf f denote the infimum of $f(x)$ as x ranges over R^n. For $\alpha = \inf f$, $\text{lev}_\alpha f$ consists of the points x where the infimum of f is attained. We call this level set the minimum set of f.

We shall need the following properties of the level sets:

Lemma 1

Let f be a closed proper convex function which has no direction of recession. The infimum of f is then finite and attained. Moreover, all the level sets $\text{lev}_\alpha f (\alpha \ge \inf f)$ are nonempty, closed, bounded convex sets.

For the proof of Lemma 1, see Theorem 27.1 of Rockafellar (1970).

To prove the special algorithms given in Section 3 it is necessary to formulate a general procedure for a class of differentiable, closed proper convex functions which have no direction of recession and converge to the minimum set.

Let $f(x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_m)$ be a closed proper convex function on R^n, where $x_i \in R^{n_i}$ for all $1 \le i \le m$ and $\sum n_i = n$.

For a given $x^0 \in \text{dom } f$, let us define the sequence of points $x^{(1)}, x^{(2)}, \ldots$ recursively, by letting $x^{(k)}$ be one of the solutions of the minimizing problem

$$\min_{x_l \in R^{n_l}} f(x_1^{(s)}, \ldots, x_{l-1}^{(s)}, x_l, x_{l+1}^{(s-1)}, \ldots, x_m^{(s-1)}) \tag{A2}$$

where

$$k = ms + l \qquad 1 \le l \le m$$

Lemma 2

Let f be a closed, proper convex function on R^n as defined in the above algorithm. Further, let $x^{(1)}, x^{(2)}, \ldots,$ be the sequence generated by the algorithm.

If f is continuously differentiable at every $x \in \text{dom } f$ and has no direction of recession, then

$$\lim_{k \to \infty} f(x^{(k)}) = \inf f$$

and $x^{(1)}, x^{(2)}, \ldots$ is a bounded sequence and all its cluster points belong to the minimum set of f.

Proof

By definition of the sequence $x^{(1)}, x^{(2)}, \ldots$ we have

$$+\infty > f(x^{(0)}) \geq f(x^{(1)}) \geq, \ldots, \geq f(x^{(k-1)}) \geq f(x^{(k)}) \geq \alpha$$

Hence

$$\lim_{k \to \infty} f(x^{(k)}) = \alpha \geq \inf f \tag{A3}$$

From Lemma 1, it follows that the sequence $x^{(1)}, x^{(2)}, \ldots$ is bounded and $\inf f < +\infty$.

Let x_c denote a cluster point of the sequence $x^{(1)}, x^{(2)}, \ldots$. From (A3) we obtain

$$x_c \in \{x \mid f(x) = \alpha\} \tag{A4}$$

We shall assume that $\alpha > \inf f$ and demonstrate that this implies a contradiction. Since function f is differentiable over dom f, we have from eqn. (A2)

$$\left. \frac{\partial f(x_1, \ldots, x_l, \ldots, x_m)}{\partial x_{l_i}} \right|_{x = x^{(k)}} = 0 \qquad (\forall 1 \leq i \leq n_l)$$

for all l, i, and k, where $k = ms + l$ and $x_l = (x_{l1}, x_{l2}, \ldots, x_{ln_l}) \in R^{n_l}$. Hence

$$\left. \frac{\partial f(x)}{\partial x_i} \right|_{x = x_c} = 0 \qquad (\forall 1 \leq i \leq n) \tag{A5}$$

which contradicts the fact that $\alpha > \inf f$, because a necessary and sufficient condition for a given point x to belong to the minimum set is given by eqn. (A5).

Lemma 3

Let $L_1(\Lambda, N, H)$ and $L_2(\Lambda, N, H)$ be the functions defined in eqns. (31) and (32).

If there exists a feasible solution to the constraints (19)–(27) such that

$$m_{ijk} > 0 \qquad (i, j, k) \in \Gamma$$

then $L_1(\Lambda, N, H)$ and $L_2(\Lambda, N, H)$ are closed proper convex functions and have no direction of recession.

Proof

From the simple form of functions L_1 and L_2, it is almost a trivial matter to see that the function is a closed proper function over all values of variables Λ, N, H.

By definition, the recession function of L_1 is given as

$$(L_1 0^+)(\Lambda, N, H) = \lim_{\alpha \downarrow 0} \alpha L_1(\alpha^{-1}\Lambda, \alpha^{-1}N, \alpha^{-1}H)$$

Recall that λ_{11} is not treated as a variable but has a constant value of 1.

If there exist $(i, j, k) \in \Gamma$ such that

$$\lambda_{ij} + \nu_{ik} + \zeta_{jk} < 0 \qquad \text{if } i \neq 1 \text{ or } j \neq 1$$

$$\nu_{1k} + \zeta_{1k} < 0 \qquad \text{if } i = j = 1$$

then

$$(L_1 0^+)(\Lambda, \mathbf{N}, \mathbf{H}) = +\infty$$

In the case when $\nu_{1k} + \zeta_{1k} \geq 0$ for all $k \in K$, and $\lambda_{ij} + \nu_{ik} + \zeta_{jk} \geq 0$ for all $(i, j, k) \in \Gamma$, we have

$$(L_1 0^+)(\Lambda, \mathbf{N}, \mathbf{H}) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=1}^{m} c_{ij}\lambda_{ij} + \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{k=1}^{l} b_{ik}\nu_{ik} + \sum_{j=1}^{m} \sum_{k=1}^{l} a_{jk}\zeta_{jk}$$

Since there exists a feasible solution to the basic problem such that

$$m_{ijk} > 0 \qquad (i, j, k) \in \Gamma$$

$$m_{ijk} = m_{ijk}^0 \qquad (i, j, k) \notin \Gamma$$

we have

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=1}^{m} c_{ij}\lambda_{ij} + \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{k=1}^{l} b_{ik}\nu_{ik} + \sum_{j=1}^{m} \sum_{k=1}^{l} a_{jk}\zeta_{jk} = \sum_{(i,j,k)\in\Gamma} m_{ijk}(\lambda_{ij} + \nu_{ik} + \zeta_{jk})$$

Since

$$\lambda_{11} + \nu_{1k} + \zeta_{1k} > 0 \qquad k \in K$$

and since there exists $k \in K$ such that

$$(1, 1, k) \in \Gamma$$

we have

$$(L_1 0^+)(\Lambda, \mathbf{N}, \mathbf{H}) > 0$$

The proof for function $L_2(\Lambda, \mathbf{N}, \mathbf{H})$ can be derived in the same way as for function $L_1(\Lambda, \mathbf{N}, \mathbf{H})$. It is easy to see that the solution algorithms for our dual problems (31) and (32) are special cases of our general procedure.

The proof of Theorems 4 and 5 obviously follows from Lemmas 1, 2, and 3.

APPENDIX B: MULTIPROPORTIONAL SOLUTIONS FOR THE SPECIAL CASES (3E), (1FE), AND (2F)

Note that in the two-dimensional entropy problem excluding any cost factor, the most probable values of the elements of interaction tables can be obtained analytically and are given by the simple expression

$$m_{ij} = \frac{O_i I_j}{\sum_i I_i} = \frac{m_{i.} m_{.j}}{m_{..}}$$

The element $m_{i.}$ denotes the total number of departures out of i, and $m_{.j}/m_{..}$ is the proportion of all migrants that go to j. This proportion is independent of the region of

origin. The most probable number of migrants from i to j is simply the geometric average of the numbers of departures from i and arrivals at j. In other words, the best estimates are obtained by multiplying the number of out-migrants by a fixed in-migration profile (multiplicative spatial interaction model).

In the multidimensional case, there are also some analytical solutions to the I-divergence (entropy maximization) problem. A necessary condition for these solutions to exist, however, is that the initial distribution is uniform and that the constraints correspond to (3E), (1FE), or (2F).

The Three-edge (3E) Problem

In the (3E) problem it is necessary to minimize (18) subject to (22)–(26). Let i denote the region of origin, j the region of destination, and k the age group. The solution to the (3E) problem is given by

$$m_{ijk} = u_k v_j w_i / (ST)^2$$

or

$$m_{ijk} = m_{.j.} m_{..k} m_{i..} / (m_{...})^2 \tag{B1}$$

where

$$m_{i..} = \sum_{j,k} m_{ijk}$$

$$m_{.j.} = \sum_{i,k} m_{ijk}$$

$$m_{..k} = \sum_{i,j} m_{ijk}$$

Note that the solution assumes that all three classifications are mutually independent (e.g., number of arrivals is independent of number of departures).

The One-face, One-edge (1FE) Problem

In the (1FE) problem it is necessary to minimize (18) subject to (21), (22), and (26). Suppose the given face consists of the flow matrix of the total population c_{ij} and the edge represents the age structure of the migrants at the national level. The best estimates of the flow matrices disaggregated by age are given by

$$m_{ijk} = c_{ij} u_k / ST$$

or

$$m_{ijk} = m_{ij.} m_{..k} / m_{...} \tag{B2}$$

where

$$m_{ij.} = \sum_k m_{ijk}$$

The ratio $m_{..k}/m_{...}$ is the national age composition of the migrants. It is applied to all values of the flow matrix $m_{ij.}$ and hence the age structure is uniform for all flows.

The solution (B2) is therefore a model describing the migration flow under the assumption of a uniform age profile for migrants, and may be referred to as the age-profile model. If the given face consists of the age composition of the departing migrants ($m_{i.k}$), and the edge is the number of in-migrants by region ($m_{.j.}$), the model is an in-migration profile model. Conversely, if the age structure of arriving migrants ($m_{.jk}$) is known, together with the total number of out-migrants by region ($m_{i..}$), we have an out-migration profile model. Which of the models yields the best results depends on the homogeneity of the categories considered with respect to the profile adopted. Since the real age profile of migrants is quite uniform, the age-profile model may well yield better estimates.

The Two-face (2F) Problem

In the (2F) problem it is necessary to minimize (18) subject to (19), (21), and (26). The solution is for given values of c_{ij} and a_{jk}.

$$m_{ijk} = c_{ij}a_{jk}/v_j$$

or

$$m_{ijk} = m_{ij.}m_{.jk}/m_{.j.} \tag{B3}$$

The ratios $m_{.jk}/m_{.j.}$ are conditional probabilities. The solution therefore implies the assumption of conditional independence between the j (destination) and i (origin) classifications for every k (migrant category, e.g., age group). In eqn. (B3) the age structure of migrants is destination-specific. The ratio $m_{.jk}/m_{.j.}$ represents the age curve of in-migrants, and is independent of the region of origin.

AGE PATTERNS OF MIGRATION:
CAUSE-SPECIFIC PROFILES*

Andrei Rogers and Luis J. Castro

1 INTRODUCTION

Studies have shown that the age pattern of deaths varies systematically with the level of mortality. For example, as the expectation of life at birth increases, the largest absolute declines in mortality generally occur at ages below 5 and above 65. This is a consequence of the dramatic reduction in the contribution to overall deaths made by infectious diseases, which have a U-shaped age profile of mortality. Are there analogous systematic variations in age patterns of migration? Does the age pattern of migration vary with the level of migration? For example, if divorce is a reason for migration, and if the level of migration and the number of divorces per capita both increase with economic development, should one then expect a particular shift in the age profile of aggregate migration?

Preston (1976, p. 109) pointed out that:

> ... roughly half of the variance in age-curves of mortality at a particular mortality level can be accounted for by variance in relative importance of 6 or 7 cause of death categories among populations at that level ... it suggests that causes of death have substantial value in accounting for disparities in age patterns in mortality.

Can the same be said of disparities in age patterns of migration?

This paper seeks to illuminate the role played by various reasons for migration in the observed variations of age-specific migration rates. The focus is on the *levels* and *age profiles* of different reason-specific migration schedules and on their contribution to age curves of 'aggregate migration and their changes over time and space. Because we follow the "mortality" analogy in disaggregating migration schedules, we refer to reasons as causes. In future work, however, we shall consider the "fertility" analogy in analyzing such schedules, adopting a disaggregation by status instead of by cause.

2 MIGRATION DISAGGREGATED BY CAUSE

Why people move is a question that needs to be considered with respect to (1) those characteristics of potential migrants that condition receptivity to migration and

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(2) those environmental factors that stimulate migration from one community to another. Nevertheless, some insight into motivations for migration may be obtained simply by asking people why they moved. This approach has been adopted, for example, in nationwide surveys conducted by the U.S. Bureau of the Census (Long and Hansen 1979) and in national migration registers maintained in such countries as Czechoslovakia (Kühnl 1978).

Studies of reported causes for migration within a given country are subject to a number of serious limitations. First, usually only the "main" cause is tabulated and examined, yet multiple interdependent causes underlie migration behavior. Second, the number of alternative causes listed in migration questionnaires are typically broad aggregations of a much wider range of causes and therefore may inadequately reflect the true importance of motivations connected with migration. Finally, problems arise when the causes are not separately classified for the initiators of migration (e.g., household heads) and for their dependents (e.g., children). In short, reported causes of migration are often mutually interdependent, usually insufficient in number, and generally are not linked directly to the true decision maker. However, analogous limitations also appear in studies of mortality disaggregated by cause, without presenting insuperable obstacles. As noted by Preston (1976, p. 2):

> Causes are undoubtedly recorded with considerable inaccuracy and inter-population incomparability, and these problems have discouraged the exploitation of cause-of-death statistics. But demographic data are never perfectly accurate, and the choice is between neglecting them altogether and producing qualified statements about the tendencies they suggest.

Part A of Table 1 gives the percentage of household heads moving for each of five causes in the USA and in Hungary. These data confirm that it is a great oversimplification to explain migration solely in terms of economic motivations, i.e., employment. Although approximately half of the migrating household heads cited employment as the main reason for moving, education, marriage, housing, and other

TABLE 1 Migration data disaggregated by cause: USA[a], Hungary[b], and Czechoslovakia[c], various dates.

Region	Date	Percentage of migrants citing the cause				
		Employment	Education	Marriage	Housing	Other
A. Household heads only						
USA	1974–1976	56.6	5.4	1.6	8.1	28.3
Hungary	1958	49.7	2.5	15.4	12.0	20.4
Hungary	1968	43.8	1.7	21.5	14.1	18.9
B. All migrants						
USA	1974–1976	59.8	3.9	1.4	8.0	26.9
Czechoslovakia	1973	28.1	1.0	17.0	41.8	12.1
Czech Republic	1973	20.9	0.7	17.1	47.8	13.5

[a] USA data are taken from Long and Hansen (1979) and refer to inter-state migration.
[b] Hungarian data are taken from Compton (1971) and refer to all inter-community migration.
[c] Czechoslovakian data are taken from Kühnl (1978) and refer to all inter-community migration; the Czech Republic and the Slovak Republic together comprise the nation of Czechoslovakia.

reasons together provided the motivation for the other half to migrate. Moreover, the data indicate that, in Hungary, employment as a cause of migration has been declining in relative importance over time.

Part B of Table 1 presents comparable data for all migrants, including the household head. Only 36% of all migrants were found to be household heads in the USA survey; in Hungary the corresponding proportion ranged from 55% in 1958 to 63% in 1968. The data for Czechoslovakia do not distinguish between household heads and their accompanying dependents.

Housing reasons accounted for over 40% of all migration between communities (communes) in Czechoslovakia in 1973; this total is about five times as high as the figure for the USA. Data for the USA, however, refer to *inter-state* migration, and one would expect housing reasons to decline in importance relative to employment reasons when considering migrations over such relatively greater distances.

Less than 30% of migration within Czechoslovakia was caused by changes in employment. This relatively low share of the total is somewhat surprising and apparently reflects a leveling of regional economic differences (Kühnl 1978, p. 4):

> ... for the major part, it is the outcome of specific Czechoslovak conditions: In recent years, development in the whole Czechoslovak Socialist Republic, but particularly in the Czech Socialist Republic, was characterized by a relatively balanced territorial development of productive forces, accompanied by a levelling-out of regional differences in economic and income structure and in the training requirements of available jobs.

Table 2 shows that the cause-specific pattern of migration varies with distance migrated. For example, the two principal causes of migration in the Czech Republic,

TABLE 2 Migration data[a] disaggregated by cause and by distance migrated: Czech Republic, 1966–1973.

Distance migrated	Year	Percentage of migrants citing the cause[b]								
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Between regions	1967	30.6	6.3	0.9	5.2	13.5	2.0	36.0	4.3	1.2
	1969	28.4	5.6	1.5	5.0	15.3	3.0	37.0	4.1	0.1
	1971	26.4	6.0	1.3	5.2	13.6	2.9	39.1	5.4	0.1
	1973	24.4	5.7	1.4	5.6	15.5	3.4	38.3	5.7	0.0
Between districts within regions	1967	23.3	8.1	0.6	4.4	13.0	2.1	43.6	4.0	0.9
	1969	21.2	7.4	0.6	4.0	16.0	3.1	43.9	3.8	0.0
	1971	19.1	7.1	0.6	4.2	15.2	3.0	45.2	5.5	0.1
	1973	16.8	6.6	0.6	4.4	17.5	3.3	45.4	5.4	0.0
Between communities within districts	1967	12.2	7.9	0.2	4.5	13.1	1.7	55.8	3.9	0.7
	1969	9.5	6.8	0.2	4.8	18.4	2.7	54.3	3.7	0.1
	1971	8.7	6.1	0.2	3.8	16.6	2.6	56.5	5.3	0.2
	1973	7.6	5.9	0.2	4.5	17.9	2.8	55.4	5.7	0.0

[a] Taken from Kühnl (1978, p. 7).

[b] Causes for migration are abbreviated as follows:

1, change of employment; 2, moving closer to place of work; 3, education; 4, health; 5, marriage; 6, divorce; 7, housing; 8, other; 9, unknown.

employment and housing, exhibit opposite relationships with the distance migrated.*
They mirror the relationship shown in the USA and Czechoslovakian data given
earlier in Part B of Table 1, which reflect the commonly observed tendency that
short-distance migration is primarily motivated by housing reasons and long-
distance migration by employment reasons. For, as Hoover (1971, p. 169) pointed
out in a study of USA data:

> ... those men who only moved within the same county were predominantly
> influenced by housing considerations. Since all of a county is generally re-
> garded as being in a single labor market or commuting range, job changes are
> related only to a minor extent with intracounty moves: most such movers are
> not changing jobs.
>
> For those who moved to a different county ... the picture is quite
> different, with employment changes (including entry to or exit from military
> service) emerging as the major reasons for migrating. This reflects the fact that
> an intercounty migration generally involves shifting to a different labor market
> beyond the commuting range for the former job.

Causes of migration are related to a person's age and sex. For example,
migration motivated by health reasons is a phenomenon characteristic of old
persons, whereas education-related migration is predominantly associated with
young people. Wives tend to be younger than their husbands; therefore the age
profile of female migration peaks at an earlier age than the corresponding profile for
males. Thus, in order to understand better why people move, it is important to
disaggregate cause-specific migration data by age and by sex.

Table 3 illustrates typical migration-by-cause data disaggregated by age and
sex, and it may be seen that most moves occur before the age of 40. Only health- and
housing-related migrations occur in significant amounts at later ages. Finally, the
concentration of migration within certain age groups is most pronounced for
migration associated with marriage (60–80% between the ages of 20 and 30) and
education (94–97% between the ages of 16 and 30).

3 DESCRIPTION: CAUSE-SPECIFIC AGE PROFILES

If the age pattern of migration is influenced by its cause-specific structure then
it should be possible to attribute differences in age patterns of migration in two or
more populations, at least partially, to differences in their cause-specific structures.
Unfortunately, detailed age-specific migration data that are disaggregated by cause
are exceedingly scarce, and we have been able to find only one source for this study:
the Czechoslovakian migration register.**

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* There are twelve administrative regions in Czechoslovakia: eight in the Czech Republic and four in the
Slovak Republic. The nation is composed of about 100 districts and approximately 10,000 communities
(communes).

** Identification of causes of migration has been a part of the regular internal migration register of
Czechoslovakia since 1966. The data are based on responses given by migrants at the time that they notify
local authorities of their change of address. Dependents are not distinguished from household heads in
these data.

TABLE 3   Age and sex differentials in cause-specific patterns of migration: Hungary, 1958 and Czechoslovakia, 1973[a].

Causes of migration	Country[b]	Percentage citing a given cause in age group					
		16–19	20–29	30–39	40–49	50–59	60+
A. Males							
Change of	Hu	9.8	41.7	26.8	11.8	7.1	2.8
employment	Cz	7.9	48.2	23.1	15.1	4.7	1.0
Closer to	Hu	5.7	47.0	28.2	10.4	6.3	2.4
place of work	Cz	7.0	58.3	18.2	11.1	4.2	1.2
Education	Hu	68.8	28.0	2.4	0.5	0.3	—
	Cz	40.9	53.6	4.1	1.0	0.2	0.2
Health	Hu	2.5	15.0	17.2	13.0	18.6	33.7
	Cz	5.3	13.2	9.1	8.4	9.1	54.9
Marriage	Hu	3.9	73.0	14.0	4.6	2.8	1.7
	Cz	3.8	81.8	8.9	3.2	1.4	0.9
Housing	Hu	6.0	27.1	23.4	12.7	12.4	18.4
	Cz	7.1	53.0	17.5	8.5	4.4	9.5
B. Females							
Change of	Hu	20.8	44.8	18.7	8.8	4.8	2.1
employment	Cz	12.5	48.8	22.0	12.2	3.2	1.3
Closer to	Hu	15.0	52.9	19.4	7.2	4.0	1.5
place of work	Cz	12.9	61.2	14.8	7.4	2.8	0.9
Education	Hu	70.1	26.8	2.5	0.3	0.2	0.1
	Cz	62.8	34.6	1.2	0.8	0.6	0.0
Health	Hu	4.2	15.5	15.2	9.4	17.6	38.2
	Cz	2.9	11.9	5.3	4.5	8.1	67.3
Marriage	Hu	24.8	59.5	9.6	3.3	2.0	0.8
	Cz	22.3	69.1	4.7	2.3	1.0	0.6
Housing	Hu	6.6	27.8	18.6	11.0	12.0	24.0
	Cz	10.8	52.6	12.3	7.1	5.6	11.6

[a] Taken from Compton (1971, pp. 90, 91) and Czechoslovakian Federal Statistical Office (1974). The migration of those less than 16 years of age is assumed here to be dependent migration.
[b] Countries are abbreviated as Hu, Hungary and Cz, Czechoslovakia.

Figure 1 displays histograms and their associated cubic-spline interpolations (McNeil *et al.* 1977) for age-specific male and female migration rates in Czechoslovakia. Figure 2 presents the age-specific cause-of-migration structures that underlie these rates. For ease of visual comparison all age profiles have been scaled so that the area under the curve (the Gross Migraproduction Rate, or *GMR*) is unity.

The age profiles reveal that the causes of migration have quite different age patterns. Of the eight causes illustrated, the age profile of *housing* reasons is most similar to that of the aggregate migration schedule, exhibiting roughly the same four peaks: during infancy, during the early years of labor-force participation, at retirement, and in the oldest age group. Migrations due to *marriage* and *education*, on the other hand, are concentrated between the ages of 10 and 30 and are essentially unimodal in age profile. Migrations caused by *divorce, change of employment*, and *moving closer to the place of work* have profiles that are bimodal, with local peaks during infancy and during the early years of labor-force participation. Finally, *health*
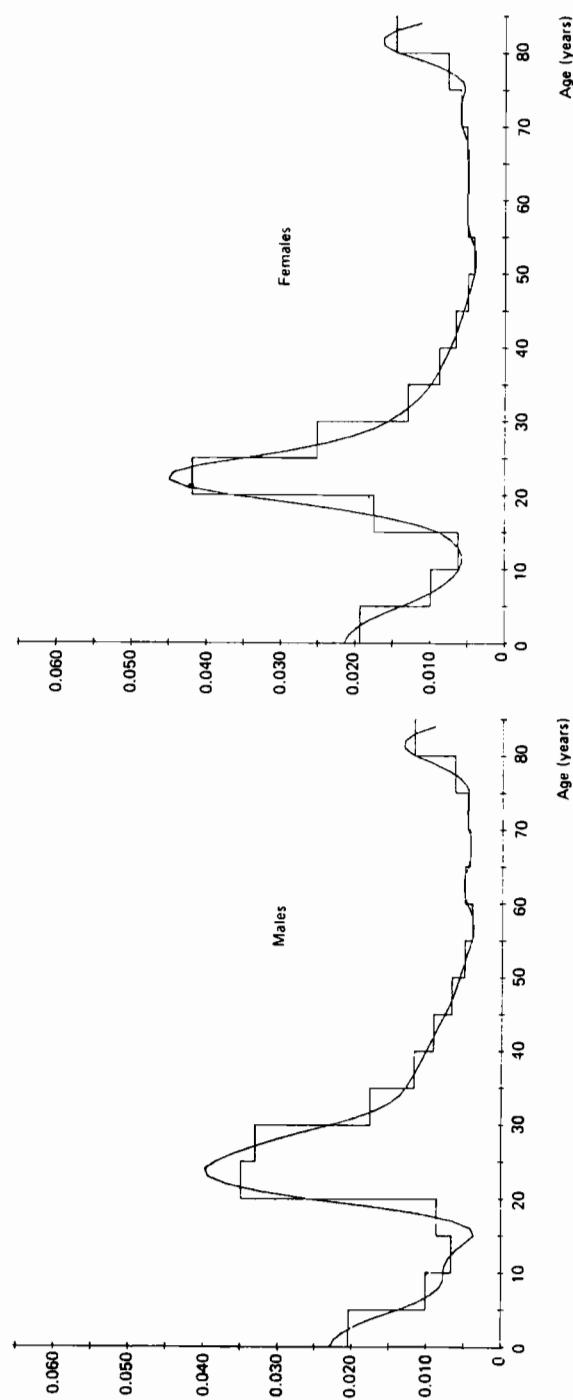
FIGURE 1   Observed annual migration rates for all causes combined: Czechoslovakia, males and females, 1973.

is apparently an important cause of migration only for the elderly. (The residual category "all other reasons" is aggregated with divorce in Figure 2 in order to give it a profile that is more amenable for our subsequent analysis.)

The different cause-specific age patterns may be interpreted within a life-cycle framework in which individuals pass through different states of existence. Starting with birth and then entry into the educational system at the elementary level, the "passage" may also include entry into military service or university, marriage, multiple entries into and withdrawals from the labor force, perhaps divorce and remarriage, retirement, death of spouse, and moves to enter sanatoria or to rejoin relatives.

Associated with this individual life-cycle perspective is a family life cycle which begins with marriage, passes on to procreation and child rearing (possibly interrupted by divorce or death), continues with child "launching", retirement, and ultimately ends with the death of both spouses. Young (1975, p. 61) described this family life cycle as follows:

> The main stages through which a family passes during its lifetime are the initial childless stage, usually lasting one or two years, the childbearing stage, defined by the interval between the first and last birth, usually extending over approximately eight years, and the intermediate stage occurring between the birth of the last child and the first child leaving home, extending for about 16 years and representing the only period during which all members of the family are living in the household. This is followed by what is often referred to as the "launching" stage, occurring between the events of the first and last child leaving home, usually of comparable length to the childbearing stage. Beyond the launching stage, when the parents are again alone in the household is the post-parental stage ending when one of the spouses dies. Then follows a period of widowhood until the death of the other parent. Obviously, the sequence and timing of the stages of the life cycle differ from this for families prematurely broken by death or divorce of the parents.

Figure 2 presented cause-specific age profiles scaled to a *GMR* of unity for ease of comparison. The *relative levels* of the cause-specific contributions are illustrated in Figure 3, which also includes comparable data for an earlier year, 1970, to permit an examination of changes over time. The aggregate migration profile, however, is still scaled such that the area under the curve is unity.

Figure 3 shows that both the *levels* and the *age profiles* of the 1970 and 1973 cause-specific structures of migration are roughly similar. Housing reasons account for approximately 40% of the total gross migraproduction rate, economic reasons (change of employment, moving closer to place of work) for an additional 25–30%, marriage for 12–15%, health for 8–11%, and all other reasons for the remaining 5–15%. The major difference in age profiles occurs in the post-retirement ages, with the 1973 schedules exhibiting a much more pronounced old-age peak.

Figure 4 compares the levels and age profiles of male *intra*-republic moves with those of male *inter*-republic moves in an effort to identify the possible effects of distance on the cause-specific structure of migration. Here the findings are not so clear cut. Although intra-republic migration levels disaggregated by cause seem to be similar in both the Czech and the Slovak republics, this is not true for the corresponding inter-republic migration data. Housing reasons, for example, contribute
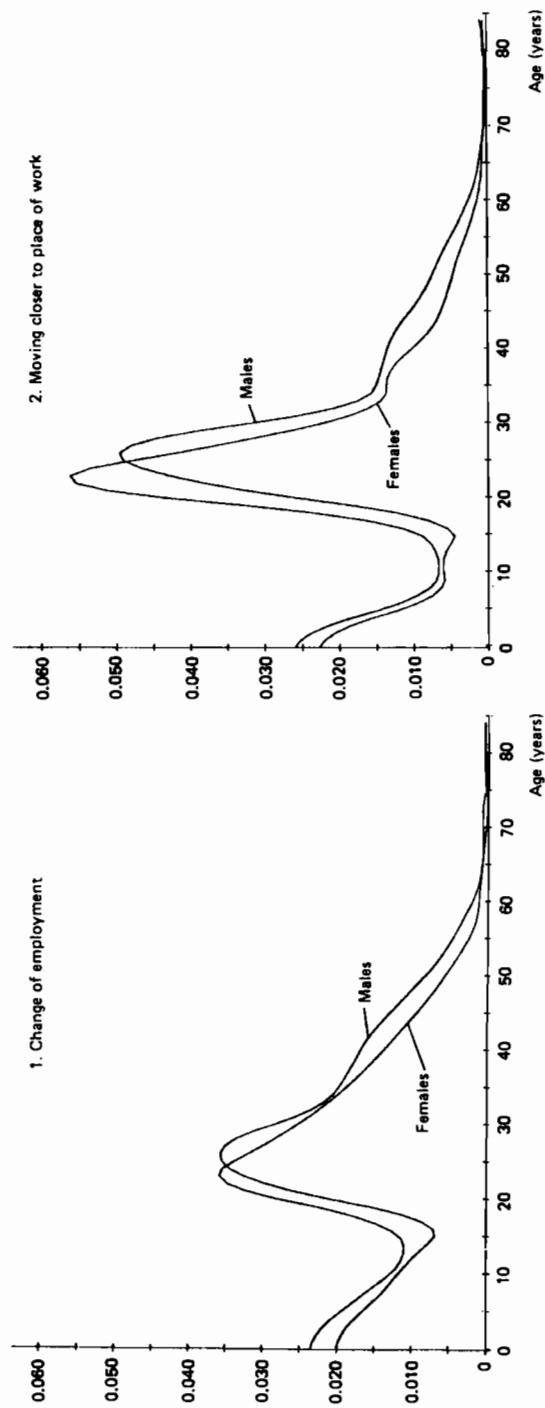
FIGURE 2   Observed cause-specific migration rates: Czechoslovakia, males and females, 1973.
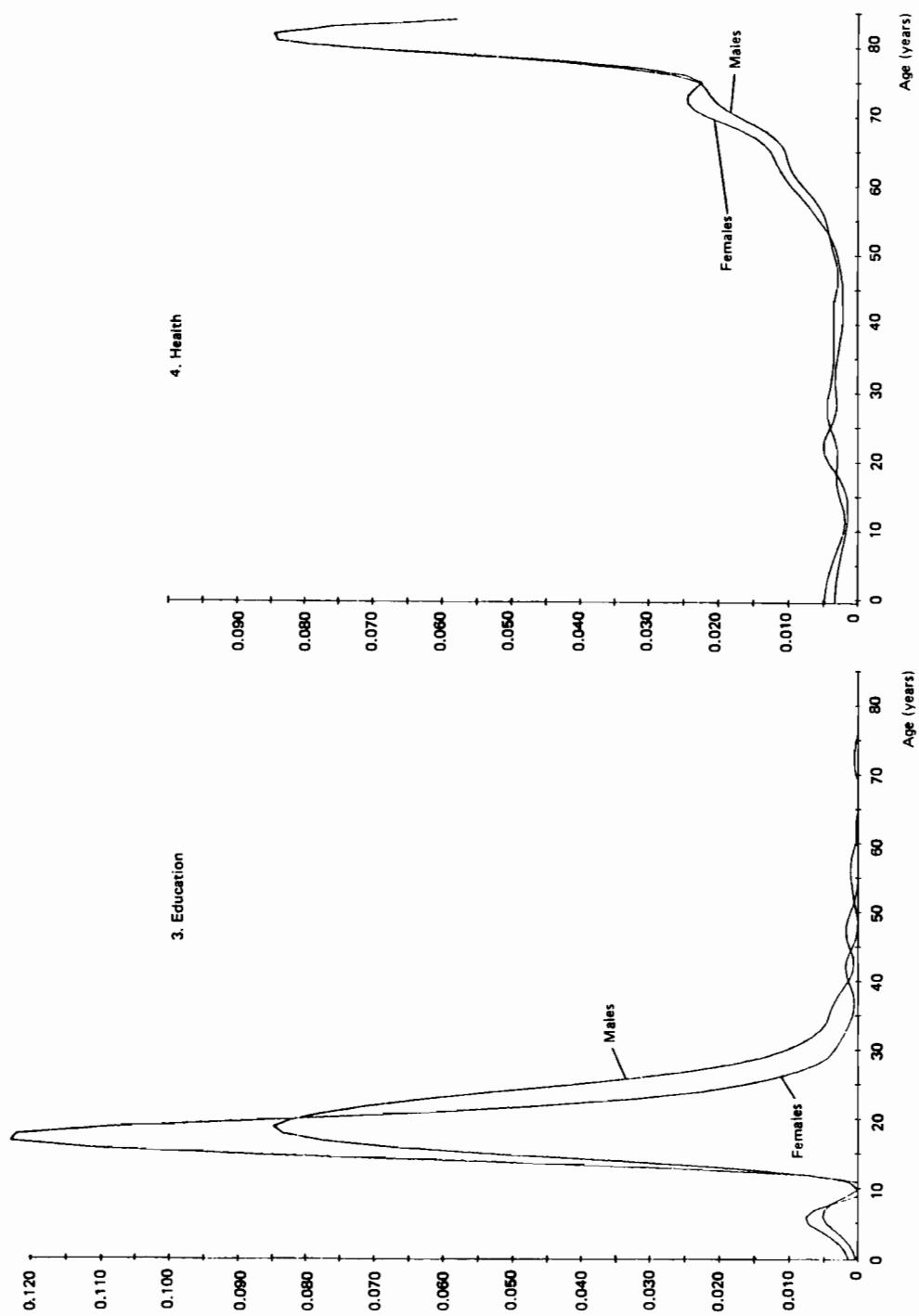
FIGURE 2 (*continued*)
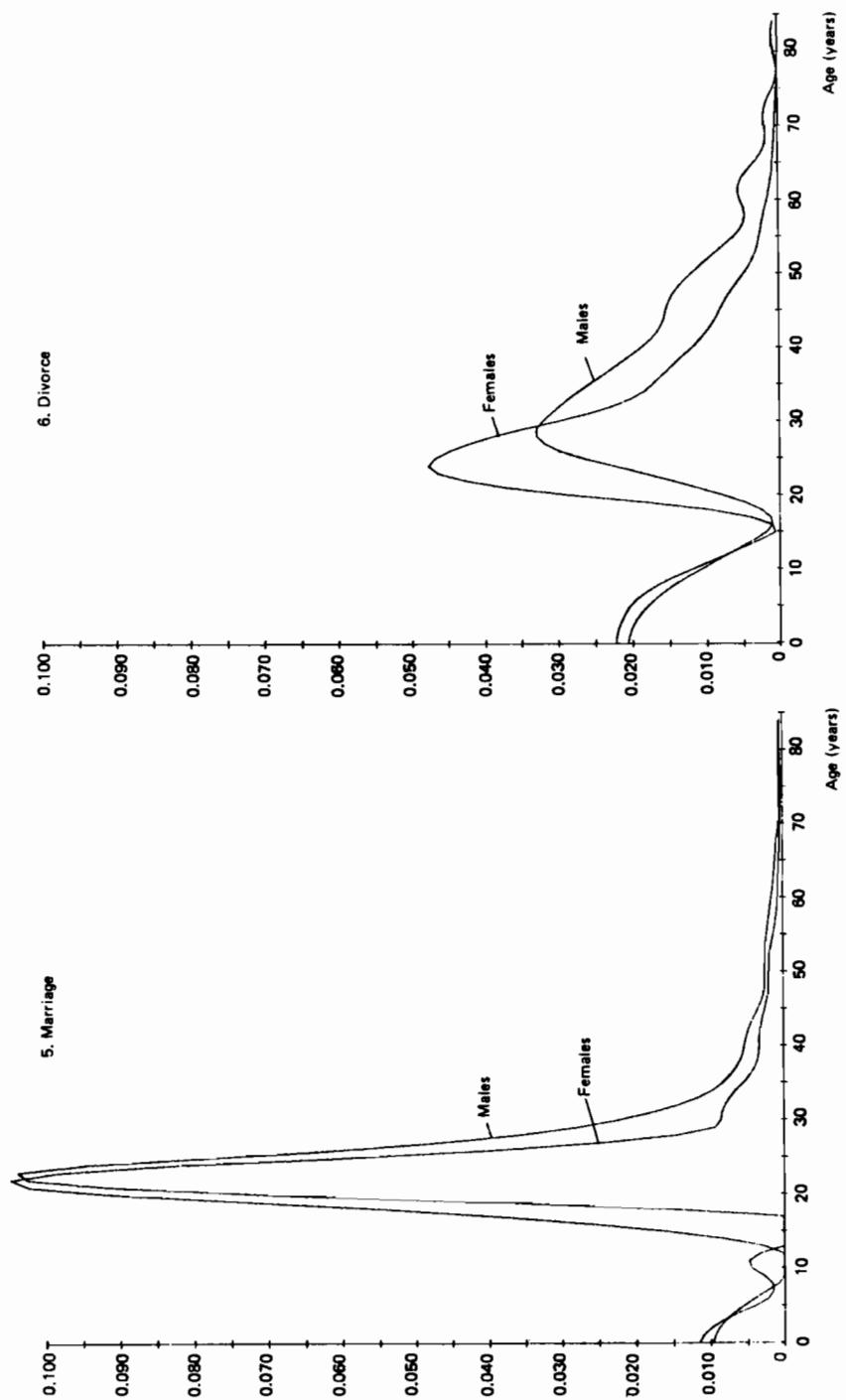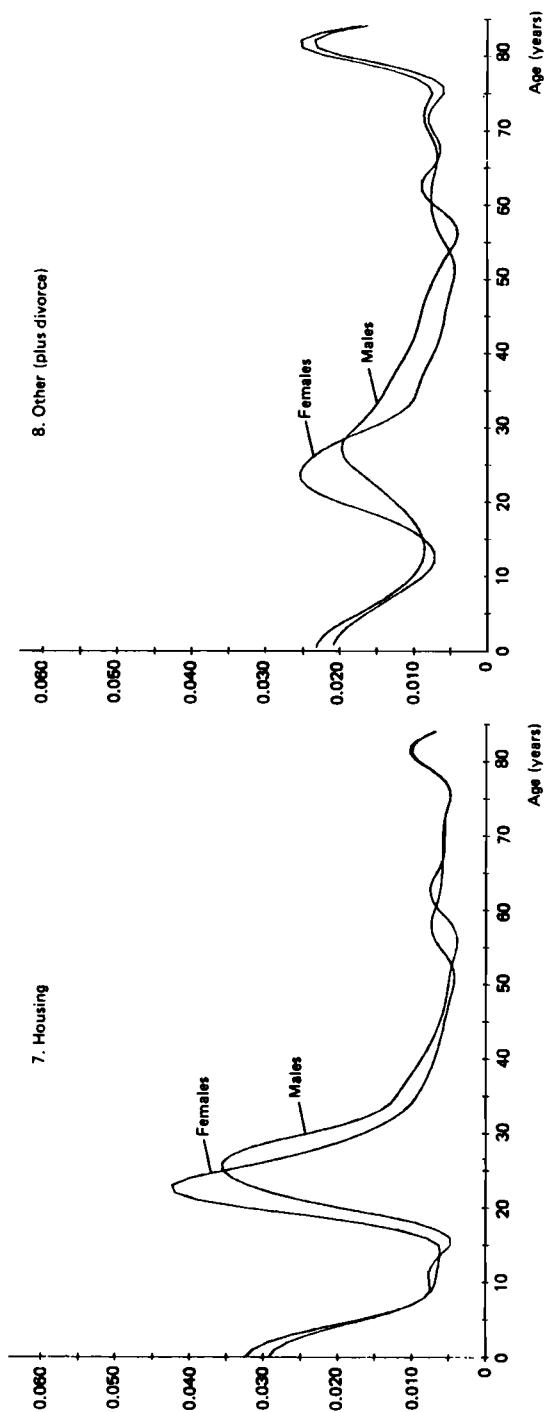
FIGURE 2 *(continued)*

FIGURE 2 *(continued)*
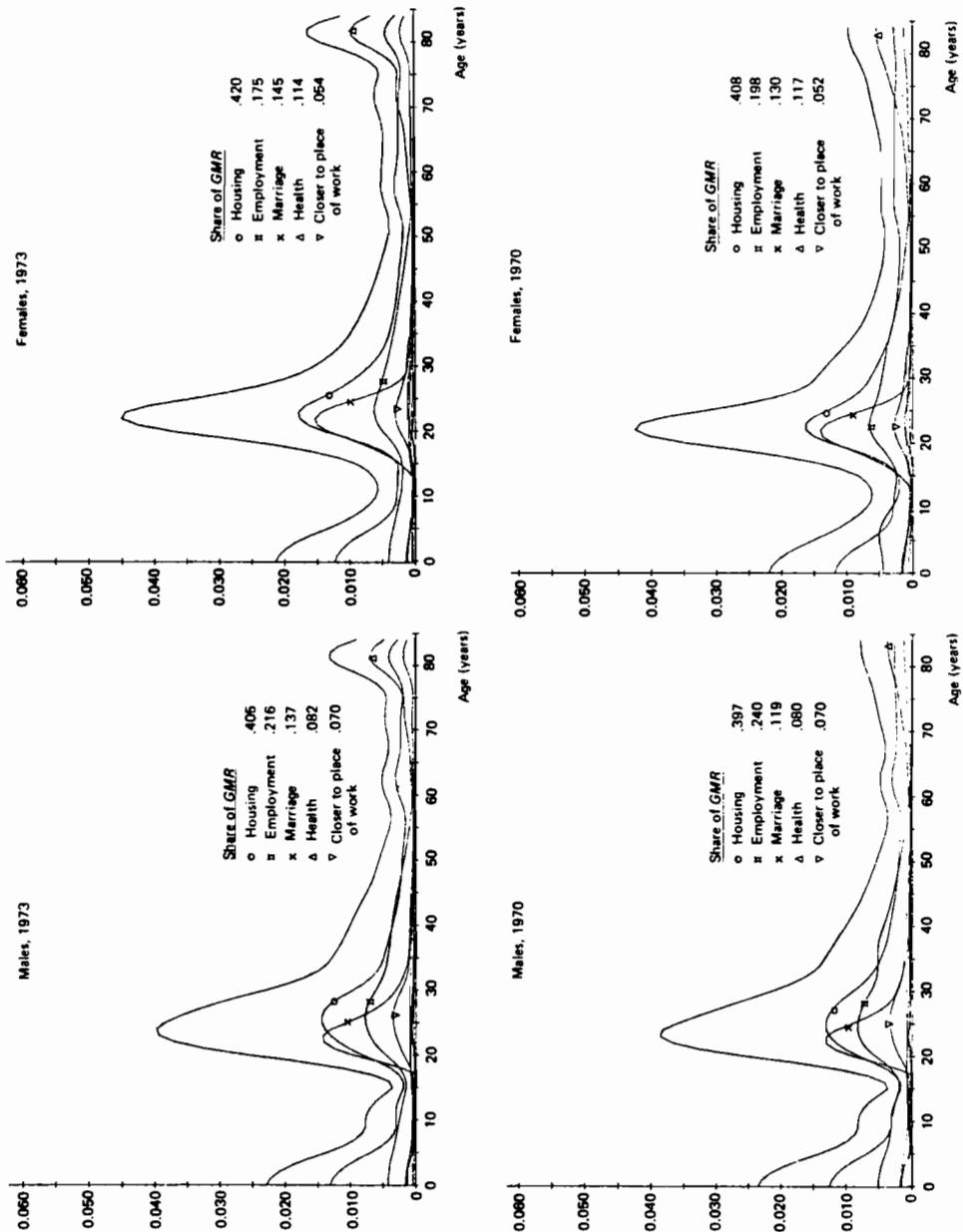
FIGURE 3   Observed cause-specific migration rates: Czechoslovakia, males and females, 1973 and 1970.
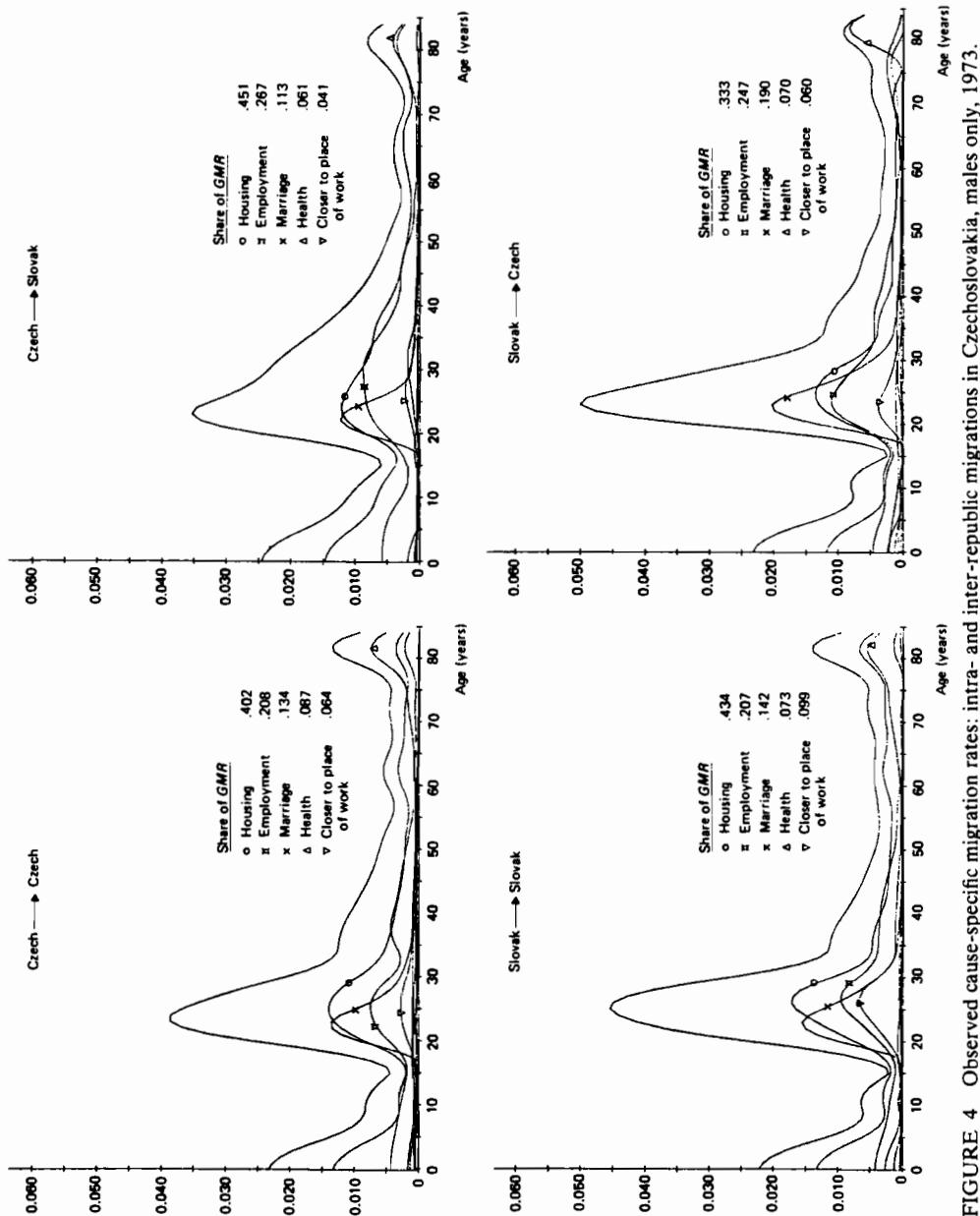
FIGURE 4   Observed cause-specific migration rates: intra- and inter-republic migrations in Czechoslovakia, males only, 1973.

45% of the total *GMR* in the flow from the Czech to the Slovak republic, but account for only 33% of the flow in the reverse direction. The age profiles also seem to differ, but a more accurate assessment requires that the profiles be scaled to a unit *GMR*, as in Figure 5.

Figure 5 shows the (scaled) age profiles of the following three causes of migration:

- change of employment
- moving closer to place of work
- housing

Differences in age profiles that are associated with differences in the distances migrated are hard to identify. Indeed, more significant differences seem to be associated with the republic of origin than with the category (intra- or inter-republic) of flow. For example, the age profiles of migration originating in Slovakia are more *labor dominant,* i.e., a higher proportion of the total *GMR* is associated with the young labor-force ages. Such labor-dominant curves are characterized by a relatively narrow, high peak between the ages of 20 and 30.

We conclude, therefore, that although the migration levels associated with various causes vary with distance migrated, the cause-specific age profiles may in fact be quite similar. However, only when more data of the sort used above become available will it be possible to clarify this matter: at present, our conclusions are merely conjectural.

4 ANALYSIS: MODEL SCHEDULES

Figure 6 illustrates both the *observed* age-specific migration schedules (histograms, scaled to unit *GMR*) for Czechoslovakian males and females in 1973 and their representation by a *model* schedule (the superimposed smooth curves) defined as the sum of four components:

- A single negative exponential curve for the *pre-labor-force* ages, with a rate of descent α_1.
- A unimodal curve for the *labor-force* ages, with rates of ascent and descent λ_2 and α_2, respectively.
- Another unimodal curve for the *post-labor-force* ages, with rates of ascent and descent λ_3 and α_3, respectively.
- A constant curve c, the inclusion of which improves the quality of fit provided by the mathematical expression of the schedule.

The decomposition described above suggests the following simple sum of four curves (Rogers *et al.* 1978)[*]:

$$
\begin{aligned}
M(x) = &\; a_1\, e^{-\alpha_1 x} \\
&+ a_2\, e^{-\alpha_2(x-\mu_2)-e^{-\lambda_2(x-\mu_2)}} \\
&+ a_3\, e^{-\alpha_3(x-\mu_3)-e^{-\lambda_3(x-\mu_3)}} \qquad (x = 0, 1, 2, \ldots, z) \qquad (1)\\
&+ c
\end{aligned}
$$

___

[*] Both the labor-force and the post-labor-force components in eqn. (1) are described by the "double-exponential" curve formulated by Coale and McNeil (1972) for their studies of nuptiality and fertility.
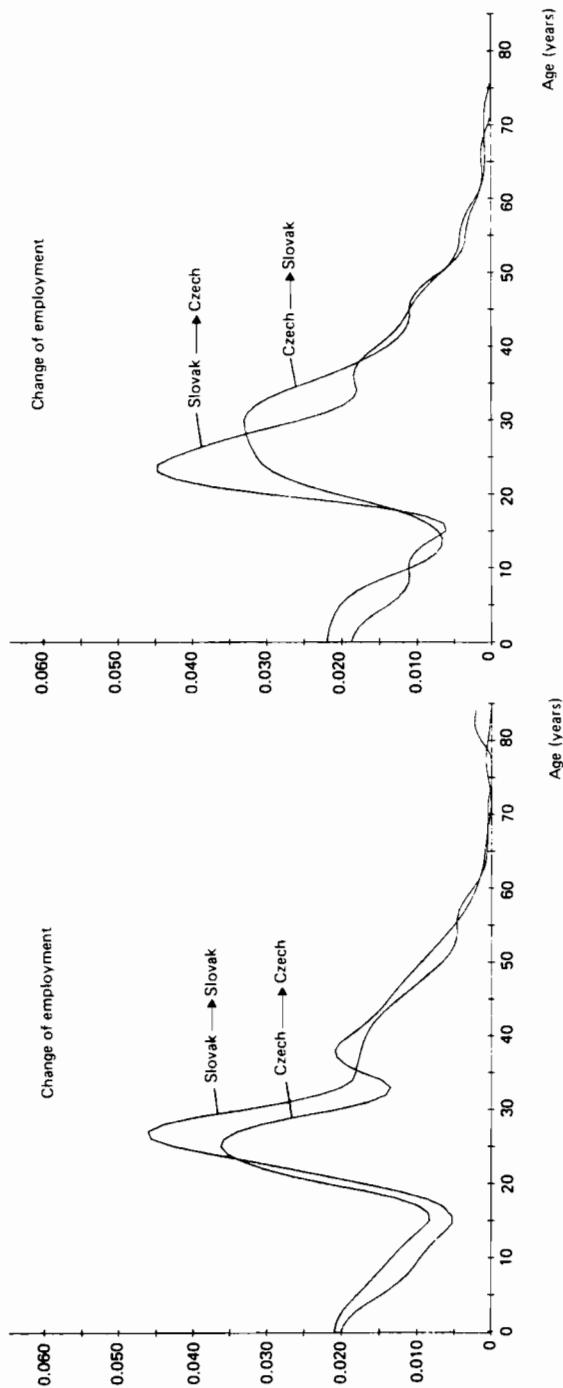
FIGURE 5   Observed cause-specific migration rates: intra- and inter-republic migrations in Czechoslovakia, males only, 1973, specific causes.
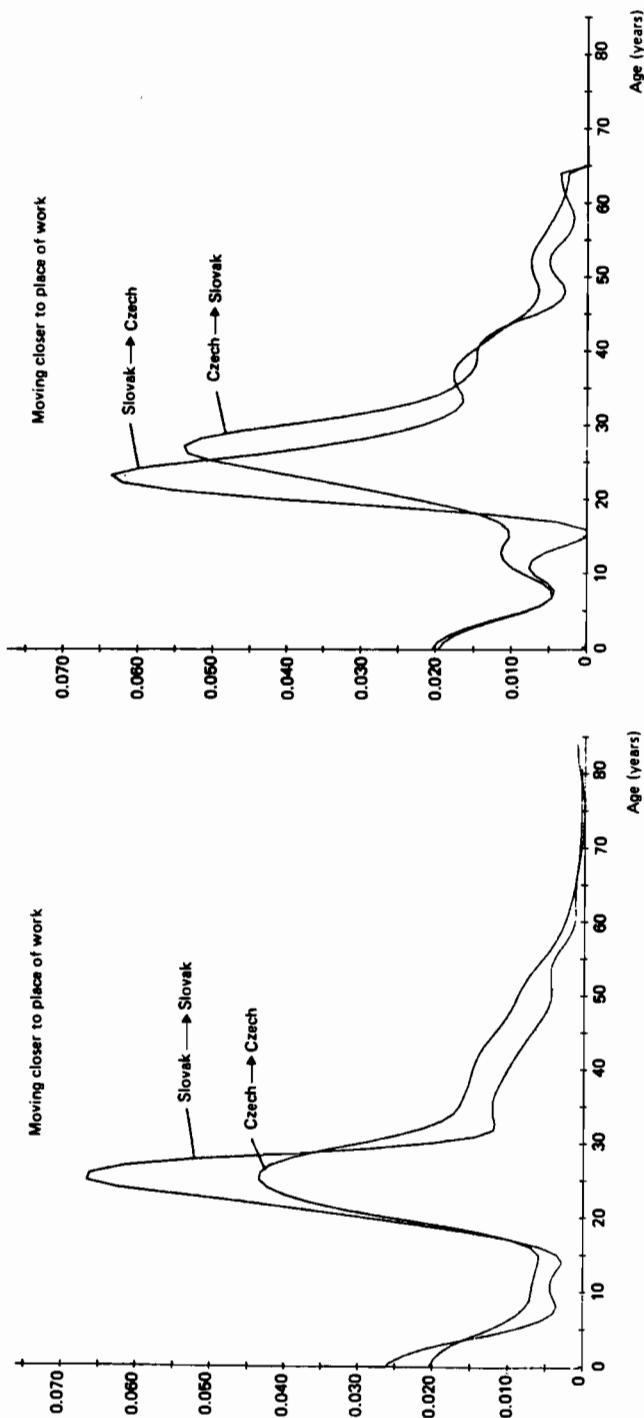
FIGURE 5 *(continued)*
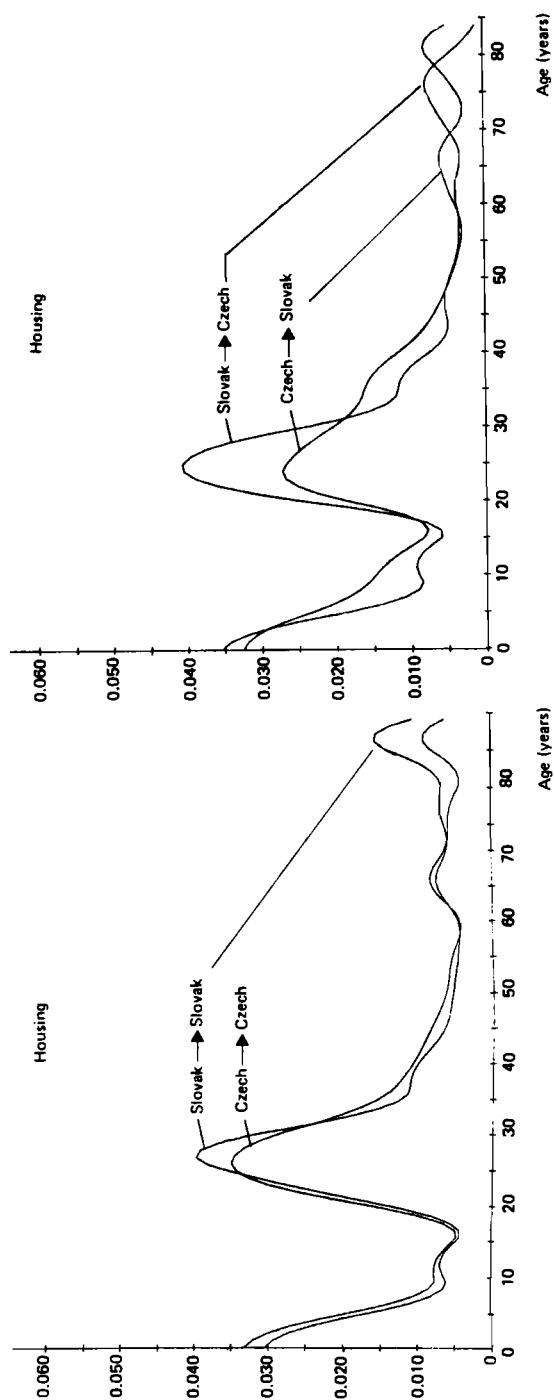
FIGURE 5 (*continued*)
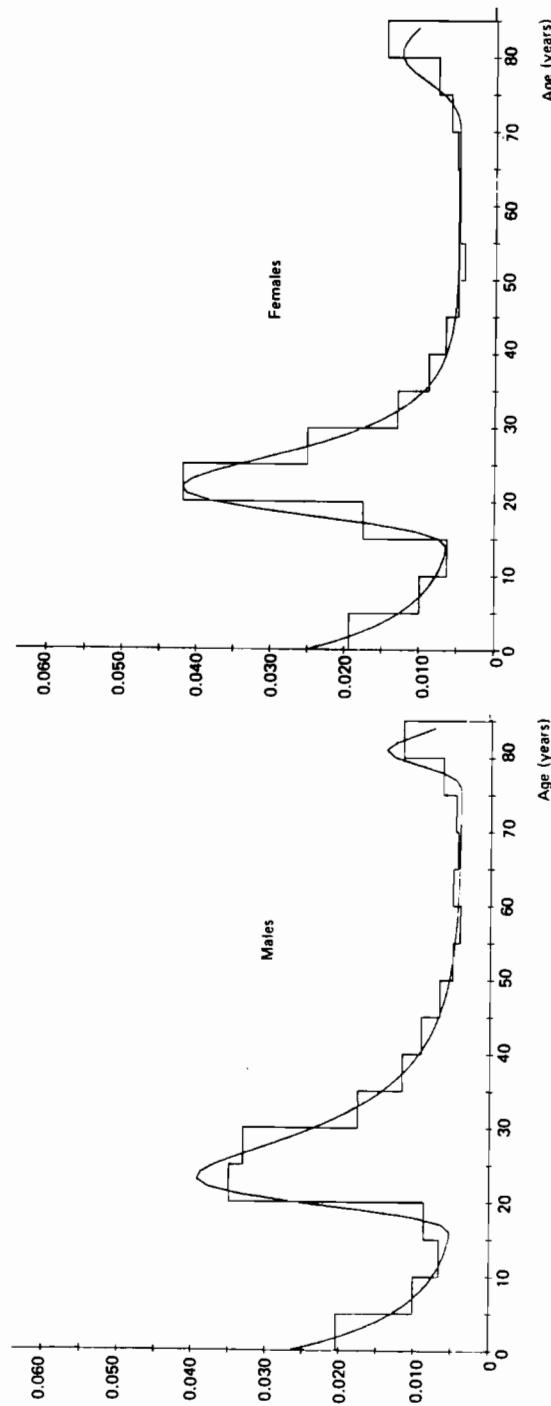
FIGURE 6 Model schedules of observed migration rates for all causes combined: Czechoslovakia, males and females, 1973.

The "full" model schedule in eqn. (1) has eleven parameters: a_1, α_1, a_2, μ_2, α_2, λ_2, a_3, μ_3, α_3, λ_3, and c. The *profile* of the full model schedule is defined by seven of the eleven parameters: α_1, μ_2, α_2, λ_2, μ_3, α_3, and λ_3. Its *level* is determined by the remaining four parameters: a_1, a_2, a_3, and c. A change in the value of the gross migraproduction rate of a particular model schedule alters proportionally the values of the level but does not affect the profile. Finally, migration schedules without a retirement or old-age peak may be represented by a "reduced" model with seven parameters, because in such instances the third component of eqn. (1) is omitted.

The model schedule defined in eqn. (1) may be used to fit all of the cause-specific profiles illustrated in Figures 2 and 5. The two profiles concerned with change of employment and moving closer to place of work and the profiles of migration associated with marriage and with divorce may be described by the reduced, seven-parameter model. Education-motivated migration profiles follow the model schedule with both the first and the third components omitted (i.e., $a_1 = a_3 = 0$). The age pattern of health-related migration can be described by the model schedule with both the first and the second components omitted (i.e., $a_1 = a_2 = 0$). Finally, migration caused by housing reasons and by the remaining "all other causes" (including divorce) takes on the profile of the full, eleven-parameter model, as does the aggregate schedule. Figures 7 and 8 display the results of such fits, and Appendixes A and B set out some of the numerical estimates of the various parameters and variables that define these model migration schedules. More detailed numerical outputs, together with their interpretation and methods of derivation, are described in Rogers and Castro (1979) and Castro and Rogers (1979), respectively.

The model-schedule profiles displayed in Figures 6, 7, and 8 repeat the patterns exhibited by the cubic-spline interpolations of the same data in Figures 1, 2, and 5, respectively. The principal advantage of the model-schedule representation is that the mathematical description is particularly well-suited for analytical studies of the properties of each cause-specific curve and of the impacts on the aggregate migration-age pattern of changes in each curve's relative importance.

The Czechoslovakian age patterns of internal migration disaggregated by cause may be characterized in a number of different ways, as described by Rogers and Castro (1979). We begin by observing that, among the seven causes examined, only health, housing, and the category "other reasons" exhibit a retirement (in fact a post-retirement) peak, with the one for housing occurring more than a dozen years earlier than the peak representing migration for health reasons. We also note that the *low point* and the *high peak*, x_l and x_h, respectively, occur earlier in female profiles than in male profiles, in all cases for which these measures have been calculated. This is undoubtedly a reflection of the differences in ages at marriage.

The age profiles of reduced-form model migration schedules (i.e., those with no retirement peak and only seven parameters) are determined by the four parameters α_1, μ_2, α_2, λ_2, and the ratio $\delta_{12} = a_1/a_2$. The parameters α_1 and α_2 define the rates of decrease with age of the migration rates of children and their parents, respectively; μ_2 locates the labor-force curve on the age axis, while λ_2 defines the rate of increase of the migration rates of those young adults who leave the family home primarily for marital, educational, or economic reasons. Finally, the ratio δ_{12} relates the height of the pre-labor-force curve to that of the labor-force component.

The model schedules illustrated in Figures 6–8 exhibit a wide range of values for these parameters of interest. The curve with the highest peak, that for marriage,
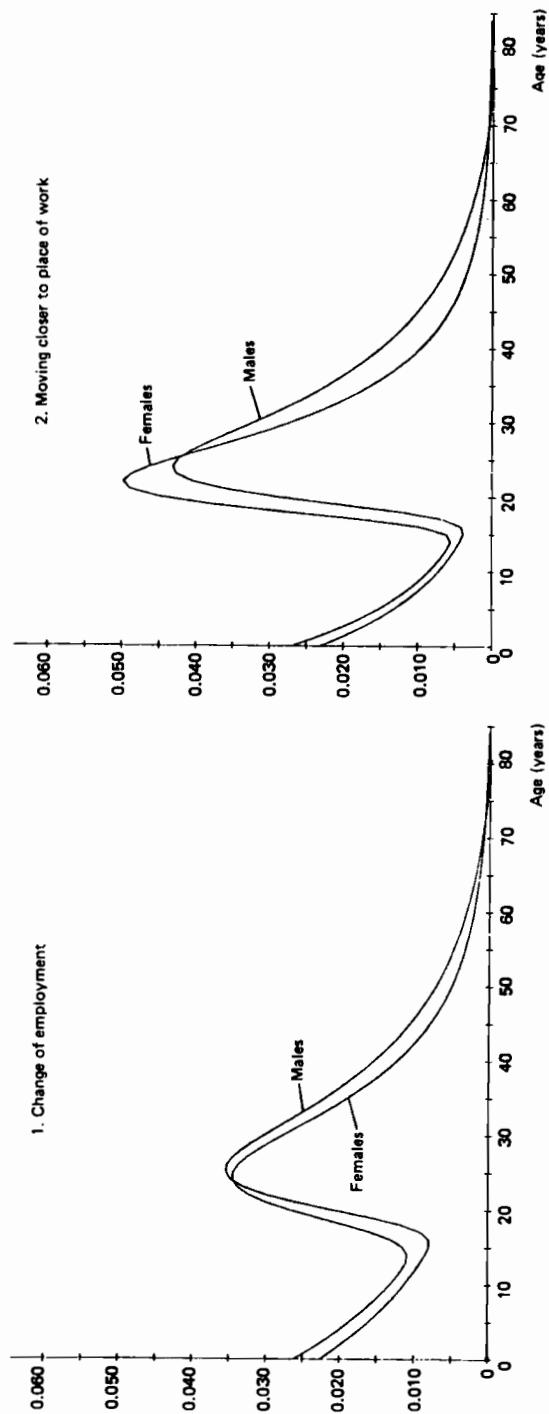
FIGURE 7   Model schedules of observed cause-specific migration rates: Czechoslovakia, males and females, 1973.
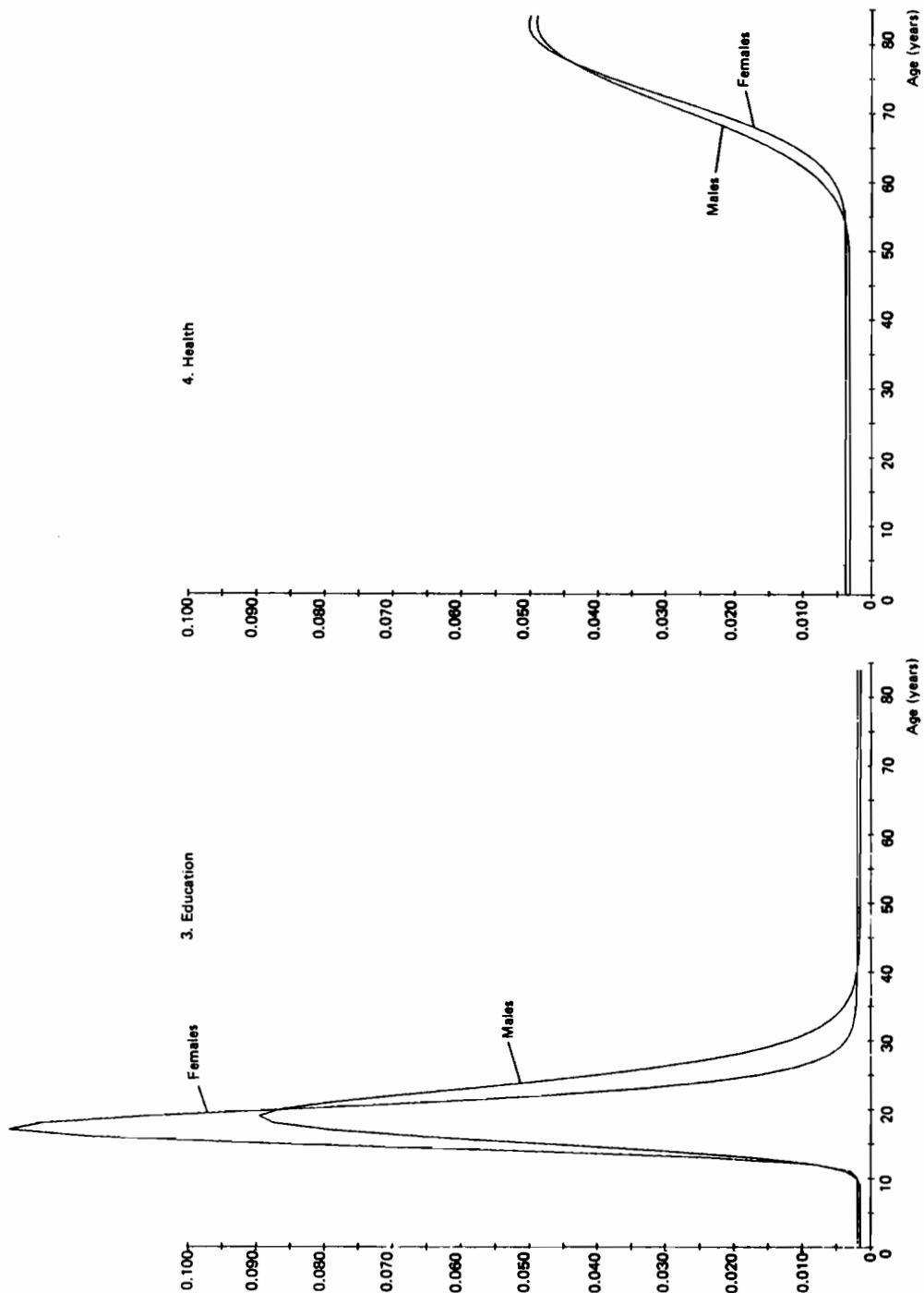
FIGURE 7 (*continued*)
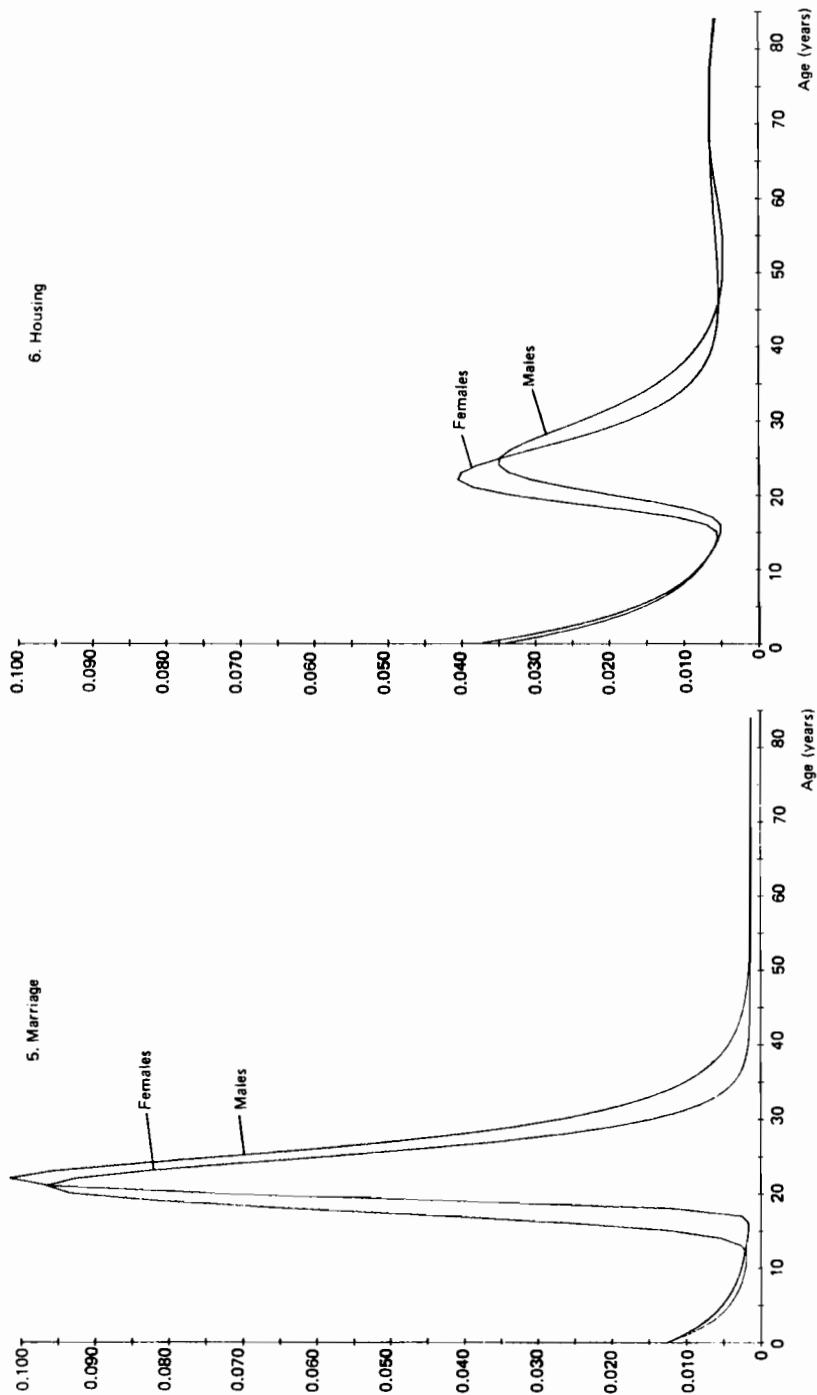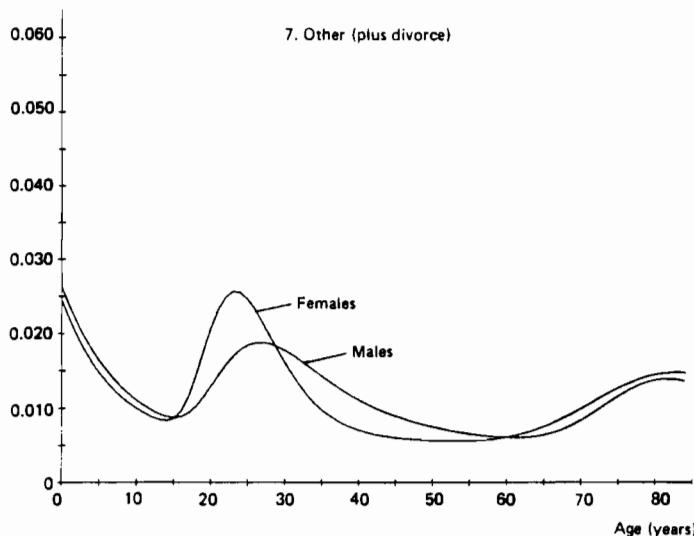
FIGURE 7 (continued)

FIGURE 7 *(continued)*

may be characterized by its relatively low value for δ_{12}, a value that is about one-fifth as large as those of the other profiles. This profile, with a relatively low δ_{12} value, may be termed *labor dominant*. In contrast, age patterns with much higher values of δ_{12} tend to show relatively higher migration rates for children, and may thus be said to be *child dependent*.

Labor dominance reflects the dominance of the migration levels of those in the working ages relative to those of children and pensioners. *Labor asymmetry* refers to the shape of the central bell-shaped curve and is measured by the ratio $\sigma_2 = \lambda_2/\alpha_2$. The numerical values for σ_2 given in the Appendixes and in Rogers and Castro (1979) indicate that the national profile for moving closer to place of work exhibits the most asymmetrical pattern of all the causes considered.

5 SYNTHESIS: SENSITIVITY EXPERIMENTS

The two preceding sections have been devoted to a description and an analysis of cause-specific age profiles of migration. We now turn to an examination of cause-deleted age profiles, focusing in particular on the impact that the deletion of a particular cause has on the remaining age pattern of aggregate migration.

Figure 9 illustrates four aggregate model-schedule age profiles*; a total of seven such profiles have been numerically defined in Appendixes A and B, and in Rogers and Castro (1979). In each case, the aggregate age profile with the contribution from a single cause deleted is compared with the profile in which the share of that single cause is increased to five times its observed level. The resulting contrasts clearly identify the contribution of each cause of migration to the aggregate age profile.

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* The area under each curve is once again scaled to a *GMR* of unity.
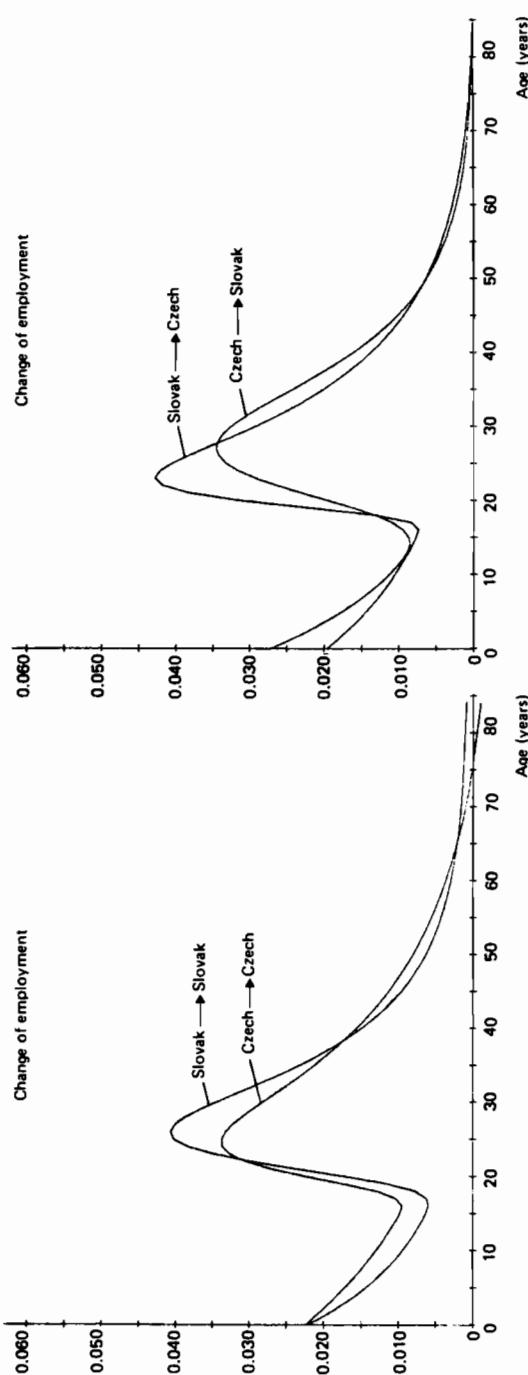
FIGURE 8 Model schedules of observed cause-specific migration rates: intra- and inter-republic migrations in Czechoslovakia, males only, 1973, specific causes.
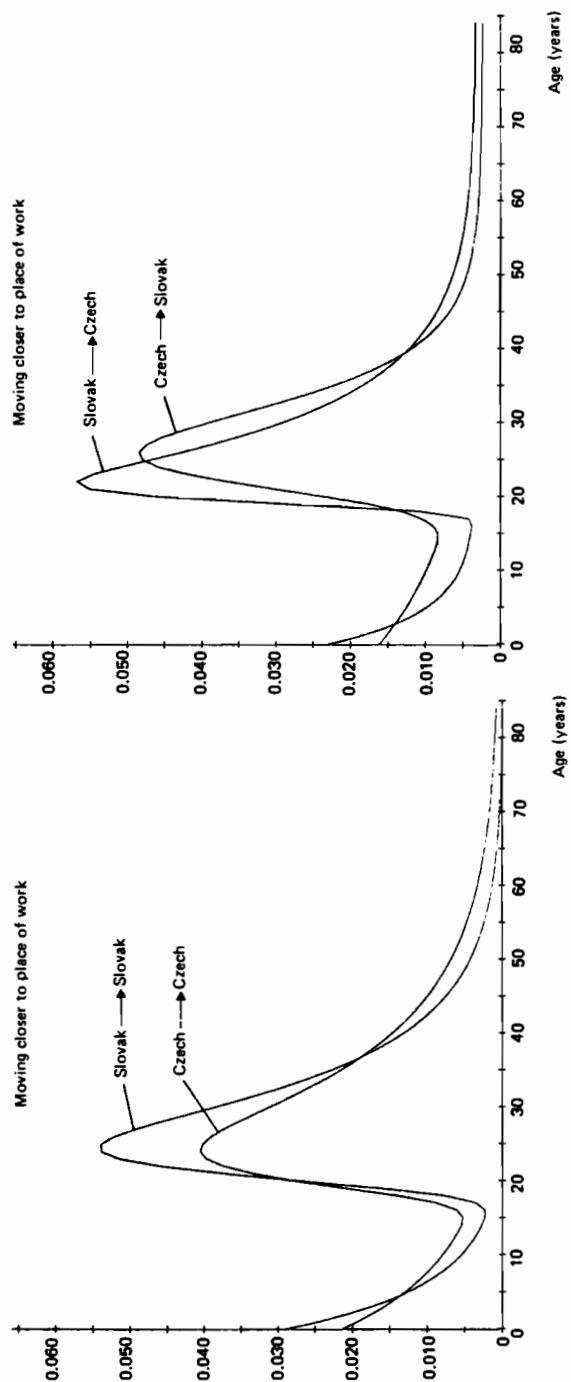
FIGURE 8 *(continued)*
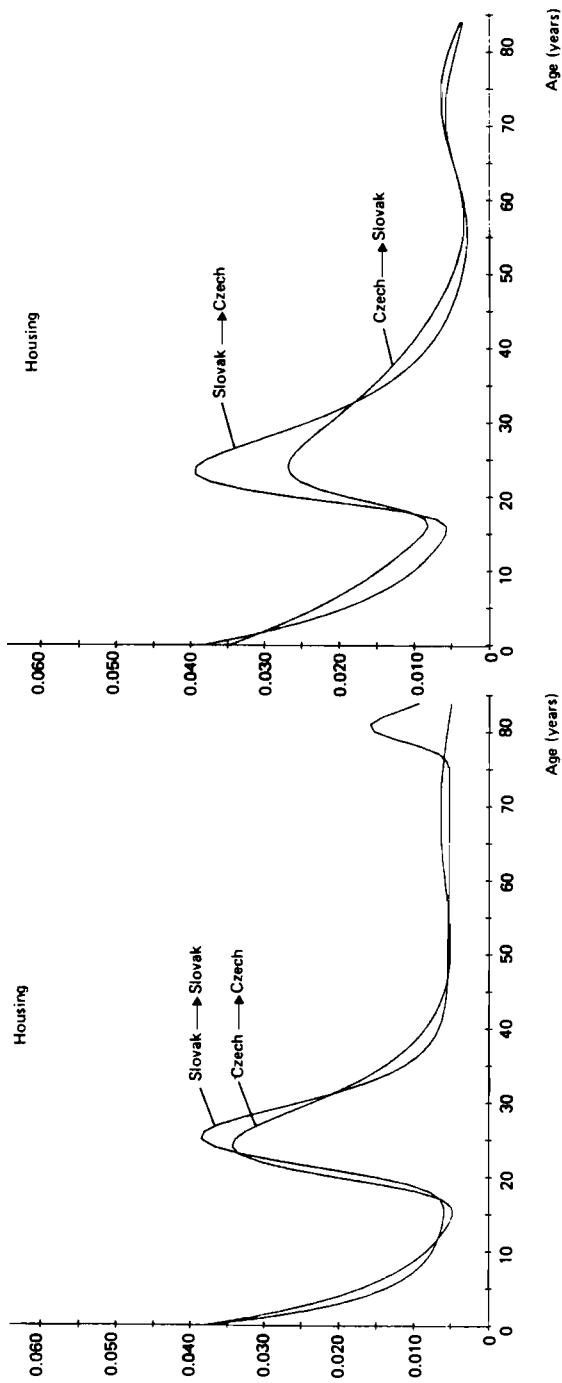
FIGURE 8 *(continued)*

Deleting change of employment as a cause of migration from the aggregate migration curve results in an increase in the mean age of migration because of the artificially increased relative importance of migration in the post-labor-force age groups. Increasing the relative importance of this cause of migration five-fold lowers the rates of descent of the migration rates of young adults, α_2, and of their children, α_1.

Health becomes an important reason for migrating only in the post-retirement age groups. Thus, deleting this cause removes the old-age peak; increasing the importance of this contribution five-fold simply increases the height of the peak. The slope parameters α_1, α_2, and λ_2 and the location parameter μ_2 remain unchanged.

A five-fold increase in the relative importance of marriage as a cause for migration dramatically increases the maximum value of the young adult peak. The rate of ascent λ_2 increases, but the rates of descent α_1 and α_2 are only slightly affected. The curve then becomes a member of the labor-dominant family, as analyzed by Castro and Rogers (1979). Deleting the contribution of marriage leaves the aggregate curve virtually unchanged.

Finally, the desire for different housing influences the aggregate migration profile at very early ages and at retirement ages. Deleting this contribution reduces the rate of descent of pre-labor-force migration, α_1, and increases the importance of old-age migration. The mean age of migration remains virtually unchanged.

Figure 9 shows that changes in the relative importance of different causes of migration produce predictable changes in the age profile of aggregate migration. Employment influences the rates of descent α_1 and α_2. Health reasons affect only the post-retirement profile, influencing λ_3 and the position of the post-retirement peak, x_r. Marriage dramatically affects the rate of ascent λ_2, but leaves α_1 and α_2 relatively unchanged. Housing, on the other hand, influences α_1 and α_2, but particularly α_1, and changes the pattern of old-age migration.

6 CONCLUSION

This paper was motivated by the conjecture that regularities in the age patterns of migration of different national populations are likely to be stronger and more evident in cause-specific schedules than in aggregate schedules. The implications of this for model migration schedules should be the same as for model mortality schedules, in the context of which Preston (1976, p. 118) observed (italics added for emphasis):

> Model mortality patterns are typically required for demographic estimation only if death registration is incomplete. But if the degree of incompleteness is largely invariant with respect to cause of death, then the *cause-structure* of mortality can be reliably estimated. In such a case the *age pattern* of mortality should be largely recoverable without reference to any external models. The *level* of mortality can then be estimated through conventional stable population or census survival techniques.

Substituting the word "migration" for "mortality" and "death" in the above quotation yields the observation that the age pattern (i.e., profile) of migration may be estimated by weighting each cause-specific profile by the migration structure (i.e.,
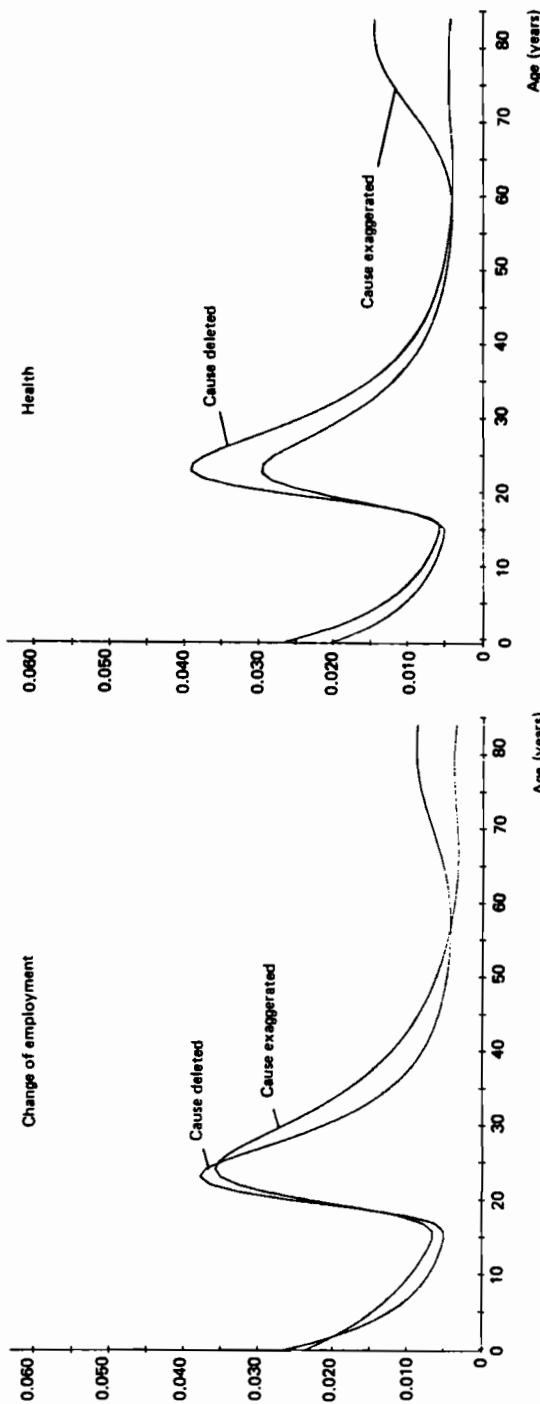
FIGURE 9   Model schedules of cause-deleted and cause-exaggerated aggregate migration rates.
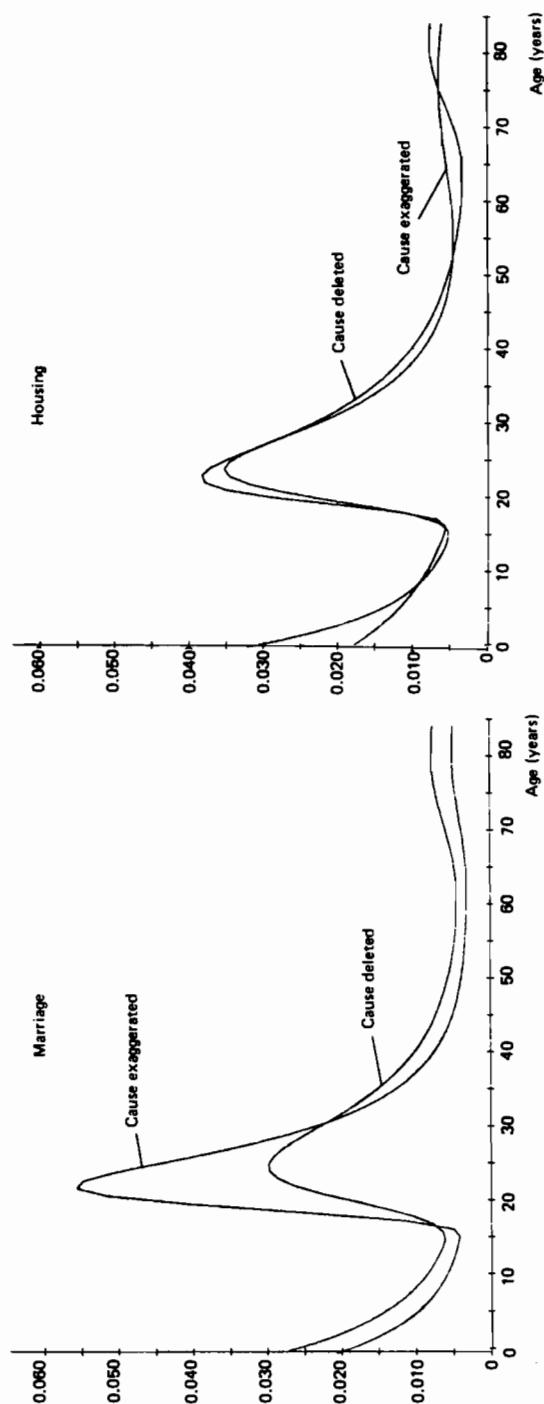
FIGURE 9 *(continued)*

the fraction of the total *GMR* that is attributable to each of k causes)

$$\bar{M}(x) = \sum_{i=1}^{k} \overline{GMR}^{(i)} \bar{M}^{(i)}(x) \qquad (x = 0, 1, 2, \ldots, z) \qquad (2)$$

where

$$\sum_{x}^{z} \bar{M}(x) = 1$$

$$\sum_{i}^{k} \overline{GMR}^{(i)} = 1$$

$$\sum_{i}^{k} \bar{M}^{(i)}(x) = 1$$

Equation (2) may also be expressed in the form of migration proportions

$$N(x) = \sum_{i=1}^{k} N^{(i)} N^{(i)}(x) \qquad (3)$$

where $N^{(i)}(x)$ denotes the proportion of migrants at age x among those citing cause i, and $N^{(i)}$ is the proportion of all migrants who cite cause i.

The estimation problem can also be "turned on its head" as Preston (1976, p. 116) observes:

> Just as the cause-structure of mortality can be used to predict the age pattern, the age pattern implies a special cause of death structure.

By analogy, if we apply these comments to migration this suggests that given, for example, the Hungarian aggregate age pattern of migration and the Czechoslovakian cause-specific age patterns of migration (or migration profiles) one could use eqns. (2) or (3) to develop estimates of the implied Hungarian cause-of-migration structure and compare it with the structure described earlier in this paper.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

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APPENDIXES

The parameters a_1, a_2, a_3, α_1, α_2, α_3, etc., used in the following tables are defined in the text. The columns 1–8 represent causes of migration, as follows:

1. Change of employment
2. Moving closer to place of work
3. Education
4. Health
5. Marriage
6. Housing
7. Other causes
8. All causes

APPENDIX A

Numerical estimates of various parameters and variables that define the model migration schedule: males, 1973.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
gmr (obs)	0.22832	0.07414	0.00973	0.08687	0.14475	0.42813	0.08501	1.05694
gmr (mms)	0.99706	0.99759	1.05827	1.36446	1.05302	1.04005	1.10948	1.02932
mae%m	8.28649	16.13420	12.62849	46.06667	13.52592	12.37815	16.78544	8.57164
a1	0.02461	0.02570	0.00000	0.00000	0.01258	0.03812	0.02265	0.02489
alfa1	0.06397	0.10403	0.00000	0.00000	0.21349	0.19165	0.12484	0.18486
a2	0.05519	0.06871	0.21037	0.00000	0.21069	0.07477	0.03021	0.06803
mu2	21.35782	20.22688	21.50009	0.00000	20.65884	22.66046	23.78325	20.88616
alfa2	0.06853	0.07191	0.31682	0.00000	0.21405	0.15098	0.09431	0.12812
lambda2	0.32095	0.41243	0.20419	0.00000	0.57113	0.29236	0.19419	0.42862
a3	0.00000	0.00000	0.00000	0.00038	0.00000	0.00031	0.00024	0.00005
mu3	0.00000	0.00000	0.00000	129.25330	0.00000	116.40599	116.25908	90.44624
alfa3	0.00000	0.00000	0.00000	0.23520	0.00000	0.16319	0.26248	1.28572
lambda3	0.00000	0.00000	0.00000	0.03902	0.00000	0.03521	0.04909	0.20373
c	-0.00131	-0.00143	0.00143	0.00366	0.00133	0.00311	0.00490	0.00394
mean age	26.92261	26.69720	24.64404	72.80155	26.81527	34.46154	42.99207	35.15611
%(0-14)	21.92932	17.50977	7.34002	4.10135	7.14720	22.40590	20.56418	17.88818
%(15-64)	77.76012	83.16303	88.41094	15.26308	89.27063	60.47754	50.00044	65.75255
%(65+)	0.31055	-0.67281	4.24904	80.63557	3.58218	17.11657	29.43537	16.35927
delta1c	-18.72077	-17.98383	0.00000	0.00000	9.49213	12.24543	4.62645	6.31150
delta12	0.44587	0.37401	0.00000	0.00000	0.05972	0.50985	0.74968	0.36582
delta32	0.00000	0.00000	0.00000	0.00000	0.00000	0.00419	0.00780	0.00073
beta12	0.93339	1.44665	0.00000	0.00000	0.99737	1.26936	1.32373	1.44285
sigma2	4.68306	5.73504	0.64452	0.00000	2.66813	1.93644	2.05913	3.34538
sigma3	0.00000	0.00000	0.00000	0.16588	0.00000	0.21577	0.18703	0.15845
x low	16.07025	15.85025	5.34001	0.00000	16.55026	15.99025	15.57024	16.23026
x high	25.77048	24.31044	19.36033	0.00000	22.39040	24.89046	27.13051	23.68043
x ret.				83.20175		72.57948	82.01150	81.41137
x shift	9.70022	8.46019	14.02032	0.00000	5.84013	8.90020	11.56026	7.45017
a	34.33701	37.80360	0.00000	0.00000	33.88362	29.07706	29.08875	32.32034
b	0.02759	0.03944	0.08813	0.04653	0.09999	0.03007	0.01012	0.03416

Numerical estimates of various parameters and variables that define the model migration schedule: females, 1973.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
gmr (obs)	0.18916	0.05818	0.00679	0.12306	0.15853	0.45577	0.09250	1.08399
gmr (mms)	0.99914	1.00747	1.09491	1.39222	1.05011	1.04442	1.12564	1.05941
mae%m	7.07582	12.64702	14.05034	47.88653	20.66070	11.48562	18.16703	12.67905
a1	0.02719	0.02848	0.00000	0.00000	0.01301	0.03388	0.02054	0.02230
alfa1	0.06730	0.11599	0.00000	0.00000	0.27833	0.19080	0.14362	0.18986
a2	0.06362	0.08654	0.28366	0.00000	0.17396	0.09271	0.05328	0.09538
mu2	21.37095	19.17327	19.43375	0.00000	24.90277	21.39939	24.12472	21.03097
alfa2	0.09251	0.10477	0.46279	0.00000	0.40363	0.20259	0.21418	0.20711
lambda2	0.23451	0.41851	0.28093	0.00000	0.20020	0.31701	0.20494	0.30105
a3	0.00000	0.00000	0.00000	0.00061	0.00000	0.00030	0.00028	0.00012
mu3	0.00000	0.00000	0.00000	134.39360	0.00000	137.68983	127.29836	97.25676
alfa3	0.00000	0.00000	0.00000	0.19788	0.00000	0.10295	0.19910	0.60703
lambda3	0.00000	0.00000	0.00000	0.03436	0.00000	0.02262	0.03773	0.10699
c	-0.00007	0.00022	0.00189	0.00305	0.00142	0.00342	0.00533	0.00463
mean age	25.03554	24.46350	23.72281	73.78278	24.92222	34.53135	44.09703	36.56535
%(0-14)	25.58745	20.30622	10.04876	3.35996	6.76956	20.82524	18.45527	17.11870
%(15-64)	73.26627	78.60558	84.57401	14.60548	89.36448	61.69809	48.62447	62.20044
%(65+)	1.14629	1.08820	5.37724	82.03456	3.86596	17.47667	32.92026	20.68086
delta1c	-366.79382	132.11542	0.00000	0.00000	9.13307	9.90647	3.85487	4.81541
delta12	0.42738	0.32904	0.00000	0.00000	0.07476	0.36545	0.38556	0.23385
delta32	0.00000	0.00000	0.00000	0.00000	0.00000	0.00328	0.00529	0.00126
beta12	0.72750	1.10717	0.60704	0.00000	0.68956	0.94179	0.67055	0.91672
sigma2	2.53505	3.99467	0.00000	0.00000	0.49599	1.56478	0.95686	1.45353
sigma3	0.00000	0.00000	0.00000	0.17365	0.00000	0.21969	0.18952	0.17625
x low	14.26021	14.75022	7.70006	0.00000	12.01016	15.00023	14.44022	14.13021
x high	24.84045	22.38040	17.67029	0.00000	21.41038	22.79041	23.81043	22.26040
x ret.	0.00000	0.00000	0.00000	83.43180	0.00000	70.53905	83.22176	81.04129
x shift	10.58024	7.63017	9.97023	0.00000	9.40022	7.79018	9.37021	8.13019
a	29.73326	30.90177	0.00000	0.00000	28.99369	26.51705	25.22472	27.32467
b	0.02371	0.04437	0.12430	0.04594	0.09476	0.03514	0.01741	0.03573

APPENDIX B

Numerical estimates of various parameters and variables that define the model migration schedule: males, 1970.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
gmr (obs)	0.29635	0.08633	0.01197	0.09902	0.14644	0.48970	0.10358	1.23339
gmr (mms)	1.01490	1.00524	1.05739	1.26116	1.06026	1.02457	1.08862	1.03365
mae%m	9.11786	18.20402	13.44149	7.42840	13.83925	6.26912	6.84090	5.31996
a1	0.02481	0.02661	0.00000	0.00000	0.01596	0.03760	0.03054	0.02554
alfa1	0.06229	0.09435	0.00000	0.00000	0.26587	0.16101	0.11857	0.16790
a2	0.05466	0.05322	0.23743	0.00000	0.23200	0.07236	0.02462	0.06010
mu2	21.41127	19.24976	19.25745	0.00000	20.70897	22.34701	21.45374	20.44023
alfa2	0.06993	0.05193	0.26361	0.00000	0.23683	0.14367	0.06815	0.11497
lambda2	0.29810	0.50858	0.25130	0.00000	0.57681	0.29268	0.24080	0.48173
a3	0.00000	0.00000	0.00000	0.00700	0.00000	0.00113	0.00032	0.00099
mu3	0.00000	0.00000	0.00000	144.75052	0.00000	140.82730	149.12640	120.73910
alfa3	0.00000	0.00000	0.00000	0.12361	0.00000	0.08521	0.15639	0.16812
lambda3	0.00000	0.00000	0.00000	0.02880	0.00000	0.02133	0.02890	0.04242
c	-0.00101	-0.00250	0.00151	0.00312	0.00146	0.00129	0.00234	0.00345
mean age	27.13773	27.90430	24.65069	75.00883	26.61332	35.16151	44.05198	36.21602
%(0-14)	22.44630	17.61143	7.14535	3.63024	7.50273	22.52970	22.99731	18.41443
%(15-64)	76.53215	82.10146	88.75771	14.63406	88.57130	59.43447	44.00539	63.24842
%(65+)	1.02155	0.28712	4.09695	81.73570	3.92598	18.03583	32.99730	18.33715
delta1c	-24.67950	-10.64596	0.00000	0.00000	10.95189	29.11929	13.06424	7.41177
delta12	0.45389	0.50000	0.00000	0.00000	0.06880	0.51960	1.24073	0.42503
delta32	0.00000	0.00000	0.00000	0.00000	0.00000	0.01568	0.01300	0.01646
beta12	0.89072	1.81687	0.95333	0.00000	1.12262	1.12067	1.73971	1.46036
sigma2	4.26284	9.79323	0.00000	0.00000	2.43556	2.03720	3.53323	4.19007
sigma3	0.00000	0.00000	0.00000	0.23295	0.00000	0.25031	0.18478	0.25233
x low	15.78025	15.81025	6.37003	0.00000	16.53026	15.93025	15.63024	16.40026
x high	25.83048	23.49042	19.08032	0.00000	22.26040	24.72045	25.99048	23.38042
x ret.	0.00000	0.00000	0.00000	94.15409	0.00000	75.33007	90.43330	88.20282
x shift	10.05023	7.68018	12.71029	0.00000	5.73013	8.79020	10.36024	6.98016
a	33.67702	39.66355	0.00000	0.00000	33.03363	32.36700	26.43486	31.65367
b	0.02600	0.03475	0.08745	0.04977	0.10661	0.02890	0.00891	0.03242

Numerical estimates of various parameters and variables that define the model migration schedule: females, 1970.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
gmr (obs)	0.25620	0.06765	0.00713	0.15162	0.16827	0.52903	0.11641	1.29630
gmr (mms)	1.00283	1.02095	1.10634	1.26649	1.05566	1.03134	1.08222	1.04361
mae%m	10.68861	16.82710	21.40944	10.51390	21.67021	6.72738	5.22975	7.05139
a1	0.03050	0.03101	0.00000	0.00000	0.01747	0.03401	0.02742	0.02269
alfa1	0.06115	0.09488	0.28905	0.00000	0.31199	0.17930	0.15458	0.16517
a2	0.05225	0.05554	0.00000	0.00000	0.17416	0.08398	0.04628	0.08209
mu2	21.05717	18.17378	18.36008	0.00000	24.94529	21.12695	21.00349	20.36508
alfa2	0.08771	0.06215	0.41998	0.00000	0.41376	0.20297	0.17692	0.18910
lambda2	0.26106	0.65986	0.31031	0.00000	0.20119	0.34715	0.33487	0.35138
a3	0.00000	0.00000	0.00000	0.00113	0.00000	0.00397	0.00179	0.00278
mu3	0.00000	0.00000	0.00000	158.81168	0.00000	191.60085	167.78363	111.57628
alfa3	0.00000	0.00000	0.00000	0.13826	0.00000	0.03228	0.09642	0.16549
lambda3	0.00000	0.00000	0.00000	0.02553	0.00000	0.01086	0.02210	0.05004
c	-0.00019	-0.00165	0.00298	0.00267	0.00125	0.00178	0.00447	0.00449
mean age	24.15170	24.70141	25.91103	75.21085	24.28372	35.83890	44.50188	37.45120
%(0-14)	29.50291	21.96146	11.71107	3.25016	7.36534	20.98272	20.85575	18.41419
%(15-64)	69.33871	78.60107	80.39476	14.49330	89.27168	59.54916	44.74255	59.26760
%(65+)	1.15838	-0.56254	7.89417	82.25653	3.36298	19.46813	34.40170	22.31821
delta1c	-156.61819	-18.73866	0.00000	0.00000	13.93153	19.10191	6.13840	5.04880
delta12	0.58370	0.55832	0.00000	0.00000	0.10033	0.40496	0.59235	0.27645
delta32	0.00000	0.00000	0.00000	0.00000	0.00000	0.04729	0.03867	0.03388
beta12	0.69719	1.52680	0.73887	0.00000	0.75404	0.88339	0.87374	0.87344
sigma2	2.97637	10.61806	0.00000	0.18469	0.48626	1.71036	1.89281	1.85813
sigma3	0.00000	0.00000	0.00000	0.00000	0.00000	0.33657	0.22921	0.30239
x low	14.92023	15.49024	7.86007	0.00000	12.06016	15.30024	15.45024	14.65022
x high	24.60045	21.55038	17.39028	0.00000	21.37037	22.67040	22.81041	22.10039
x ret.	0.00000	0.00000	0.00000	92.66377	0.00000	91.22346	101.12558	87.68271
x shift	9.68022	6.06014	9.53022	0.00000	9.31021	7.37017	7.36017	7.45017
a	26.90043	32.57695	0.00000	0.00000	28.56203	32.77700	22.64613	26.22182
b	0.01966	0.03712	0.11248	0.04722	0.09768	0.03288	0.01756	0.03276

MULTIREGIONAL ZERO-GROWTH POPULATIONS WITH CHANGING RATES

Young J. Kim

1   INTRODUCTION

In recent years, fertility in most developed countries has fallen toward or has already nearly reached replacement levels, with perturbations from time to time resulting from social and economic conditions. We are interested in describing mathematically the dynamics of such populations. To do this we begin with the result of the *weak ergodic theorem*, which states that the age structure of a population subject to an arbitrary sequence of fertility and mortality schedules over time eventually loses its dependence on the initial age distribution and comes to be a function only of its relatively recent history of fertility and mortality rates (e.g., Lopez 1961). Nothing is said in this theorem, however, about how age structure is determined by recent vital rates or how the effect of an initial age structure is lost. This has led us to examine the dynamics of populations with arbitrarily changing vital rates but with a Net Reproduction Rate (*NRR*) of unity (Kim and Sykes 1978).

As levels and changes in levels of fertility and mortality diminish, in-migration and out-migration play an increasingly important role in determining the dynamics of regional populations. Rogers (1975) has developed a model of multiregional population dynamics in which migration schedules as well as mortality and fertility schedules play an important role. He has thereby extended stable population theory to include multiregional populations. By analogy to stable-population theory, multiregional stable-population theory states that if regional age-specific schedules of fertility, mortality, and migration are fixed for a long time, the population evolves into a multiregional stable population with fixed regional shares and regional age compositions.

Stable theory for populations with fixed vital rates cannot be extended in a predictable way to populations with rates that are arbitrarily changing over time. We can, however, obtain specific formulas for various attributes of such populations and see how weak ergodicity works explicitly for populations that are almost stationary but with otherwise arbitrary rates. To do this we restrict the number of age groups to two for a closed population and the number of regions to two for a multiregional population without age structure. The results obtained are *qualitatively* true for populations with a greater number of age groups and regions. We also follow the usual restriction of a one-sex model when age structure is considered.

In Section 2 we review the dynamics of closed populations with changing rates but with an *NRR* equal to unity. In Section 3 we formulate general biregional population dynamics with changing vital rates, and obtain specific formulas for the dynamics of special zero-growth biregional populations in Section 4. In Section 5,

examples are given and discussed. We discuss the dynamics of populations with age groups *and* regions in Section 6, and conclude the paper (Section 7) with a discussion of several interpretations of some old and some new concepts.

2 DYNAMICS OF CLOSED ZERO-GROWTH POPULATIONS

In this section we summarize the results of Kim and Sykes (1978). However, the vectors and matrices describing population dynamics are given here in more conventional forms. This change makes the generalization to multiregional dynamics easier, allowing one to retain the representations usually used by demographers.

We consider a closed population with two age groups expressed in vector form

$$\mathbf{X}_t = (X_{t1} X_{t2})' \qquad (t = 0, 1, 2, \ldots) \tag{1}$$

and introduce the 2×2 population projection matrix (ppm)

$$\mathbf{A}_t = \begin{bmatrix} b_{t1} & b_{t2} \\ s_t & 0 \end{bmatrix} \qquad (t = 1, 2, \ldots) \tag{2}$$

(See Kim and Sykes 1978, for a more detailed explanation of the notation used.) Since the dynamics of a population with age structure $\mathbf{X}_t$ at time t are given by

$$\mathbf{X}_{t+1} = \mathbf{A}_{t+1} \mathbf{X}_t \qquad (t = 0, 1, 2, \ldots) \tag{3}$$

it follows that the age distribution at time t is

$$\mathbf{X}_t = \mathbf{A}_t \mathbf{A}_{t-1} \cdots \mathbf{A}_2 \mathbf{A}_1 \mathbf{X}_0 = \mathbf{M}_t \mathbf{X}_0 \tag{4}$$

where we have written the backward product of t ppms as $\mathbf{M}_t$ to avoid writing a long string of matrices in the rest of the analysis.

We first consider the dynamics of populations when the ppm is row-stochastic, i.e.,

$$\mathbf{A}_t = \begin{bmatrix} 1 - b_t & b_t \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \qquad (t = 1, 2, \ldots) \tag{5}$$

in which fertility is split arbitrarily between the two age groups and mortality is set to zero. Note that the period net reproduction rate $NRR_t = 1$ for all t, but that the cohort (generation) $NRR_t = 1 - b_t + b_{t+1} \neq 1$. By directly multiplying the matrices, it can be shown that

$$\mathbf{M}_t = \begin{bmatrix} G_t & 1 - G_t \\ G_t - \gamma_t & 1 - G_t + \gamma_t \end{bmatrix} \qquad (t = 1, 2, \ldots) \tag{6}$$

where

$$\begin{aligned} G_t &= 1 - b_1 + b_1 b_2 - \cdots + (-1)^t b_1 \cdots b_t \\ \gamma_t &= (-1)^t b_1 \cdots b_t \end{aligned} \tag{7}$$

If the sequence of birth rates $\{b_t\}$ is bounded below 1 (a sufficient, but not a necessary condition) then the two limits

$$\begin{aligned} &\lim_{t \to \infty} \gamma_t = 0 \\ &\lim_{t \to \infty} G_t = G \end{aligned} \tag{8}$$

exist. Hence the product matrix $\mathbf{M}_t$ converges to a constant matrix of rank 1, i.e.

$$\lim_{t \to \infty} \mathbf{M}_t = \begin{bmatrix} G & 1-G \\ G & 1-G \end{bmatrix} \tag{9}$$

where G satisfies

$$1 - b_1 < G < 1 - b_1 + b_1 b_2 \tag{10}$$

and thus is completely determined by the first two values of the sequence $\{b_t\}$. From eqns. (4) and (9), the age distribution at time t, for large t, is given by

$$\boldsymbol{X}_t = [GX_{01} + (1-G)X_{02}]\boldsymbol{I} \tag{11}$$

where $\boldsymbol{I}$ is the unit vector. The eventual population size is a weighted average of the initial population in the two age groups, with the weight determined by early vital rates; the relative age distribution is uniform. Thus, even with a changing fertility pattern over time, strong ergodicity holds and all of the usual measures describing the population eventually become constant.

We next consider the dynamics of populations with column-stochastic ppms, i.e., $\mathbf{A}_t$ now has the form

$$\mathbf{A}_t = \begin{bmatrix} 1 - s_t & 1 \\ s_t & 0 \end{bmatrix} \qquad (t = 1, 2, \ldots) \tag{12}$$

In this case, fertility in the second age group is constant, while that in the first age group varies with mortality. For this ppm, both period and cohort *NRR* are unity. By directly multiplying the ppms, it can be shown that

$$\mathbf{M}_t = \begin{bmatrix} H_t & H_t - \eta_t \\ 1 - H_t & 1 - H_t + \eta_t \end{bmatrix} \qquad (t = 1, 2, \ldots) \tag{13}$$

where

$$\begin{aligned} H_t &= 1 - s_t + s_t s_{t-1} - \cdots + (-1)^t s_t \cdots s_1 \\ \eta_t &= (-1)^t s_t \cdots s_1 \end{aligned} \tag{14}$$

Although the form of H_t is superficially similar to the expression for G_t given in eqn. (7), it differs crucially in that H_t is mainly determined by the later elements of the sequence $\{s_t\}$. Because of this, the sequence $\{H_t\}$ has no limit as t increases, although

$$1 - s_t < H_t < 1 - s_t + s_t s_{t-1} \tag{15}$$

The value of H_t can be calculated to any required degree of accuracy by using more terms. The sequence of product matrices $\{\mathbf{M}_t\}$ satisfies

$$\lim_{t \to \infty} \left\{ \mathbf{M}_t - \begin{bmatrix} H_t & H_t \\ 1 - H_t & 1 - H_t \end{bmatrix} \right\} = 0 \tag{16}$$

Thus, from eqns. (4) and (16), the population at time t, for large t, is given by

$$\boldsymbol{X}_t = (X_{01} + X_{02}) \begin{bmatrix} H_t \\ 1 - H_t \end{bmatrix} \tag{17}$$

i.e., although the total population size is fixed at all times, the number of births and

the age distribution constantly change over time and are determined by the most recent values of the vital rates. (See Kim and Sykes 1978 for more detailed discussion and generalization.)

3 BIREGIONAL POPULATION DYNAMICS

We now consider populations without age structure located in two regions. A major formal difference between this population and the "closed" population with two age groups is that now all four transitions are possible, whereas for the closed population the contribution from the second age group to itself was zero. When this is translated into a transition matrix (also a ppm) all four cells have non-zero entries for the two-region (biregional) dynamics.

We can formulate the dynamics of regional populations in two ways. First, we may take a period approach by using the two-region accounting relationship (Rogers 1968):

$$\begin{bmatrix} P_1(t) \\ P_2(t) \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 + b_1(t) - d_1(t) - o_1(t) & o_2(t) \\ o_1(t) & 1 + b_2(t) - d_2(t) - o_2(t) \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} P_1(t-1) \\ P_2(t-1) \end{bmatrix}$$

$$(t = 1, 2, \ldots) \qquad (18)$$

where $P_i(t)$, $(i = 1, 2)$, is the population size in region i at time t, and $b_i(t)$, $d_i(t)$, and $o_i(t)$, $(i = 1, 2)$, are the crude rates of birth, death, and out-migration, respectively, for region i at time t. If the rates given are the usual single-year rates, the time unit of eqn. (18) is also one year. If we denote the matrix in eqn. (18) as $\mathbf{C}(t)$, i.e.

$$\mathbf{C}(t) = \begin{bmatrix} 1 + b_1(t) - d_1(t) - o_1(t) & o_2(t) \\ o_1(t) & 1 + b_2(t) - d_2(t) - o_2(t) \end{bmatrix} \qquad (19)$$

then the dynamics of regional populations at time t are given by

$$\boldsymbol{P}(t) = \mathbf{C}(t)\mathbf{C}(t-1) \cdots \mathbf{C}(2)\mathbf{C}(1)\boldsymbol{P}(0) \qquad (20)$$

The dynamics of a two-region population can also be described using the generation method. The birth sequence in two regions satisfies the expression

$$\begin{bmatrix} B_1(t) \\ B_2(t) \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} R_{11}(t) & R_{21}(t) \\ R_{12}(t) & R_{22}(t) \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} B_1(t-1) \\ B_2(t-1) \end{bmatrix} \qquad (21)$$

where $B_i(t)$, $(i = 1, 2)$, is the number of births in region i at time t, and $R_{ij}(t)$, $(i, j = 1, 2)$, is the Spatial Net Reproduction Rate (*SNRR*) in region j of women born in region i at time $t - 1$. Here, the time unit is the length of a generation. $R_{ij}(t)$ is given by

$$R_{ij}(t) = \int_{\alpha}^{\beta} p_{ij}^t(x) m_j^t(x)\, \mathrm{d}x \qquad (i, j = 1, 2) \qquad (22)$$

where $p_{ij}^t(x)$ is the probability of surviving to age x in region j for those born in region i at time t, and $m_j^t(x)$ is the age-specific fertility rate for age x in region j at time t. Note that although Rogers and Willekens (1976a, eqn. 4.2; 1976b, eqn. 3) described expressions similar to eqn. (21), they restricted themselves to the limiting stationary birth sequence of populations with zero growth rates. Also note that $R_{ij}(t)$ in eqns.

(21) and (22) is $_iR_j(0)$ at time t in the notation of Rogers and Willekens. From eqn. (21), the dynamics of births at time t are given by

$$\boldsymbol{B}(t) = \mathbf{R}(t)\mathbf{R}(t-1) \cdots \mathbf{R}(2)\mathbf{R}(1)\boldsymbol{B}(0) \tag{23}$$

and are thus determined by the product of *SNRR* matrices.

We may consider the dynamics of population size in a similar way to the dynamics of births. The population at time t in terms of births at time t may be expressed as

$$\begin{bmatrix} Y_1(t) \\ Y_2(t) \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11}(t) & a_{21}(t) \\ a_{12}(t) & a_{22}(t) \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} B_1(t) \\ B_2(t) \end{bmatrix} \tag{24}$$

where $Y_i(t)$ is the population in region i at time t, and $a_{ij}(t)$ represents the "discounted" number of years lived in region j, on the average, by individuals born in region i at time t. The $a_{ij}(t)$ may be formally expressed as

$$a_{ij}(t) = \int_0^w \exp\left[-r_j(t)x\right]p_{ij}^t(x)\,\mathrm{d}x$$

whereas the usual multiregional expectation of life at birth at time t is

$$e_{ij}(t) = \int_0^w p_{ij}^t(x)\,\mathrm{d}x$$

$p_{ij}^t(x)$ has already been defined in eqn. (22), and $r_j(t)$ is the annual growth rate of the population of region j at time t. We may note that the a_{ij} correspond to an actuarial function, a_0, which is the value at birth of a *life annuity*.

By combining eqns. (21) and (24), we obtain the dynamics of populations

$$\boldsymbol{Y}(t) = [\mathbf{A}(t)\mathbf{R}(t)\mathbf{A}^{-1}(t-1)]\boldsymbol{Y}(t-1) = \mathbf{N}(t)\boldsymbol{Y}(t-1) \tag{25}$$

$\mathbf{N}(t)$ in eqn. (25) is defined as

$$\mathbf{N}(t) = \mathbf{A}(t)\mathbf{R}(t)\mathbf{A}^{-1}(t-1) \tag{26}$$

and may be called the Spatial Net Reproduction Rate for a Population (*SNRRP*). Its element $N_{ij}(t)$ has the same interpretation as the more widely used $R_{ij}(t)$, except that $N_{ij}(t)$ refers to populations and $R_{ij}(t)$ to births. From eqn. (25), it follows that the regional population distribution at time t is given by

$$\boldsymbol{Y}(t) = \mathbf{N}(t)\mathbf{N}(t-1) \cdots \mathbf{N}(2)\mathbf{N}(1)\boldsymbol{Y}(0) \tag{27}$$

The three formulations of biregional population dynamics given by eqns. (20), (23), and (27) are formally identical in that the dynamics are completely determined by the product of 2×2 ppms. In addition, the three ppms $\mathbf{C}$, $\mathbf{R}$, and $\mathbf{N}$ are related in the following manner. First, the *SNRR* matrix $\mathbf{R}$ and *SNRRP* matrix $\mathbf{N}$ are related by eqn. (26). Moreover, the product matrices have the relationship

$$\mathbf{N}(t)\mathbf{N}(t-1) \cdots \mathbf{N}(2)\mathbf{N}(1) = \mathbf{A}(t)[\mathbf{R}(t)\mathbf{R}(t-1) \cdots \mathbf{R}(2)\mathbf{R}(1)]\mathbf{A}^{-1}(0)$$

We notice that when the rates are constant over time, $\mathbf{N}$ is a similarity transform of $\mathbf{R}$, and the product matrix of $\mathbf{N}$s is a similarity transform of the product matrix of $\mathbf{R}$s. Second, since $\mathbf{C}(t)$ projects the population forward one year, while $\mathbf{N}(t)$ projects the population forward the length of a generation, they satisfy the relationship

$$\mathbf{C}(t+T-1) \cdots \mathbf{C}(t+1)\mathbf{C}(t) = \mathbf{N}(t) \tag{28}$$

where T is the length of a generation. When the rates are assumed to be constant during a generation, eqn. (28) reduces to

$$[\mathbf{C}(t)]^T = \mathbf{N}(t) \tag{29}$$

To give a better idea of the magnitude of the elements of $\mathbf{C}$ and $\mathbf{N}$, 1970 data for India and the USSR are used in the following illustration. The single-year ppms, $\mathbf{C}$, are given by Rogers (1980) as

$$\mathbf{C}(\text{India}) = \begin{bmatrix} 1.010 & 0.007 \\ 0.010 & 1.015 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\mathbf{C}(\text{USSR}) = \begin{bmatrix} 0.998 & 0.035 \\ 0.011 & 0.975 \end{bmatrix} \tag{30}$$

from which we obtain the ppms, $\mathbf{N}$,

$$\mathbf{N}(\text{India}) = \begin{bmatrix} 1.373 & 0.290 \\ 0.415 & 1.581 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\mathbf{N}(\text{USSR}) = \begin{bmatrix} 1.068 & 0.741 \\ 0.233 & 0.581 \end{bmatrix} \tag{31}$$

where it is assumed that T is 28 years, and that the birth, death, and migration rates are constant over time. The ppm $\mathbf{R}$ may be obtained by using the relationship

$$\mathbf{R} = \mathbf{A}^{-1}\mathbf{N}\mathbf{A}$$

However, the *SNRR* matrix calculated in this way will not agree with values calculated from age-specific rates of fertility, mortality, and migration. This discrepancy is due to a bias introduced by assuming that crude rates of birth, death, and migration are constant over time.

4 DYNAMICS OF BIREGIONAL ZERO-GROWTH POPULATIONS

Before exploring the dynamics of regional populations with changing vital rates, let us briefly summarize the dynamics of stable stationary populations (see Rogers and Willekens 1976b). When the rates are constant over time, the limiting distribution is determined by the maximum eigenvalue and the corresponding eigenvectors of the ppm. A stationary multiregional population results if the maximum eigenvalue is unity, i.e., in the case of a 2×2 matrix

$$\mathbf{N} = \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix}$$

if the elements satisfy the relationship

$$(1-a)(1-d) = bc \tag{32}$$

A special case of eqn. (32) is a row-stochastic matrix, which may be written as

$$\mathbf{N} = \begin{bmatrix} 1-b & b \\ c & 1-c \end{bmatrix} \tag{33}$$

An example of this form is given by Rogers and Willekens (1976b, p. 8). The limiting stationary distribution becomes

$$Y = \left(\frac{bY_1(0) + cY_2(0)}{b+c}\right)I \tag{34}$$

which states that the two regions will contain equal numbers of people, and that the ultimate population will be determined by a weighted average of the initial populations in the two regions.

Another special case of eqn. (32) is a column-stochastic matrix (Rogers and Willekens 1976b, p. 7)

$$\mathbf{N} = \begin{bmatrix} 1-c & b \\ c & 1-b \end{bmatrix} \tag{35}$$

When the matrix is of this form, the limiting stationary distribution is given by

$$Y = [Y_1(0) + Y_2(0)]\begin{bmatrix} b/(b+c) \\ c/(b+c) \end{bmatrix} \tag{36}$$

so that the ratio of regional shares will be b/c.

Now we consider the dynamics of populations in two regions with changing rates specified by any of the eqns. (20), (23), and (27). Before going into details, we first summarize and interpret useful theorems given by Chatterjee and Seneta (1977) on backward products of row-stochastic matrices. For backward products

$$\mathbf{M}_t = \mathbf{A}_t\mathbf{A}_{t-1}\cdots\mathbf{A}_2\mathbf{A}_1$$

of row-stochastic matrices $\{\mathbf{A}_t\}$, weak and strong ergodicity are equivalent, i.e.,

$$\lim_{t\to\infty}\mathbf{M}_t = \boldsymbol{IP'} \tag{37}$$

where $\boldsymbol{P'}$ is a probability vector that depends on the elements of the first two matrices in the series $\mathbf{A}_t$ (Theorem 1). A sufficient condition for ergodicity is

$$\lim_{t\to\infty}\sum_{k=1}^{t}\varepsilon_k = \infty \tag{38}$$

where ε_k is the minimum element of the matrix $\mathbf{N}_t$ (corollary of Theorem 4).

Although the limit theorem given in eqn. (37) is known, it does not tell us anything about how the sequence converges, or what the elements of the limiting matrix are. To see how the sequence converges, we proceed as in the previous section.

When the matrices representing changing rates are of the form

$$\mathbf{A}_t = \begin{bmatrix} 1-a_t & a_t \\ c_t & 1-c_t \end{bmatrix} \qquad (t=1,2,\ldots) \tag{39}$$

the row elements sum to one. This condition is equivalent to

$$d_i(t) + o_i(t) = b_i(t) + o_j(t) \qquad (i,j=1,2) \tag{40}$$

for the period model of eqn. (18), and to

$$R_{ii}(t) + R_{ji}(t) = 1 \quad \text{or} \quad N_{ii}(t) + N_{ji}(t) = 1 \qquad (i,j=1,2) \tag{41}$$

for the generation models. By directly multiplying the matrices, we obtain

$$\mathbf{M}_1 = \mathbf{A}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 - a_1 & a_1 \\ c_1 & 1 - c_1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\mathbf{M}_2 = \mathbf{A}_2\mathbf{A}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 - \{a_1 + a_2[1 - (a_1 + c_1)]\} & a_1 + a_2[1 - (a_1 + c_1)] \\ c_1 + c_2[1 - (a_1 + c_1)] & 1 - \{c_1 + c_2[1 - (a_1 + c_1)]\} \end{bmatrix}$$

and so on.

It can be shown that the upper right-hand corner element of $\mathbf{M}_t$ is given by

$$G_t = a_1 + a_2[1 - (a_1 + c_1)] + a_3[1 - (a_1 + c_1)][1 - (a_2 + c_2)]$$
$$+ \cdots + a_t[1 - (a_1 + c_1)] \cdots [1 - (a_{t-1} + c_{t-1})] \tag{42}$$

for all t. Since $0 < |1 - (a_t + c_t)| < 1$, for all t, the sequence $\{G_t\}$ converges to some value G, i.e.

$$\lim_{t \to \infty} G_t = G \tag{43}$$

exists and hence

$$\lim_{t \to \infty} \mathbf{M}_t = \begin{bmatrix} 1 - G & G \\ 1 - G & G \end{bmatrix}$$

The value of G can be calculated explicitly to any required degree of accuracy from eqn. (42), by using only the early rates. The speed of convergence depends on the values of a_t and c_t; more specifically, we see from eqn. (42) that the smaller the value of $|1 - (a_t + c_t)|$, $(t = 1, 2, \ldots)$, the faster is the convergence. Consequently the regional population is given by

$$\lim_{t \to \infty} \begin{bmatrix} y_1(t) \\ y_2(t) \end{bmatrix} = [(1 - G)y_1(0) + Gy_2(0)] \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \tag{44}$$

Equation (44) should be interpreted with $y_i(t)$, a_t, and c_t replaced by $P_i(t)$, $o_2(t)$, and $o_1(t)$ in the period model, and by $Y_i(t)$, $N_{21}(t)$, and $N_{12}(t)$, or $B_i(t)$, $R_{21}(t)$, and $R_{12}(t)$ in the generation models. Thus, despite constantly changing rates over time, the regional population will eventually have a constant (stationary) distribution: the population will have equal regional shares and the size of the population will be a weighted average of the initial population distribution, where the weights (spatial reproductive values) are given by $(1 - G)$ and G.

We next consider the dynamics of populations when the ppm is column-stochastic, i.e.

$$\mathbf{A}_t = \begin{bmatrix} 1 - a_t & c_t \\ a_t & 1 - c_t \end{bmatrix} \qquad (t = 1, 2, \ldots) \tag{45}$$

This condition is equivalent to

$$b_i(t) = d_i(t) \qquad (i = 1, 2) \tag{46}$$

with arbitrary $o_i(t)$ for the period model, and to

$$R_{ii}(t) + R_{ij}(t) = 1 \quad \text{or} \quad N_{ii}(t) + N_{ij}(t) = 1 \qquad (i, j = 1, 2) \tag{47}$$

for the generation models. Letting H_t denote the upper right-hand element of the product matrix $\mathbf{M}_t$, and multiplying directly, we obtain

$$H_1 = c_1$$
$$H_2 = c_2 + c_1[1 - (a_2 + c_2)]$$

and, in general

$$H_t = c_t + c_{t-1}[1 - (a_t + c_t)] + c_{t-2}[1 - (a_t + c_t)][1 - (a_{t-1} + c_{t-1})]$$
$$+ \cdots + c_1[1 - (a_t + c_t)] \cdots [1 - (a_2 + c_2)] \tag{48}$$

for all t.

Since $0 < |1 - (a_t + c_t)| < 1$, for all t, the value of H_t depends only on the most recent rates. Although H_t has no limit, the product matrix $\mathbf{M}_t$ satisfies

$$\lim_{t \to \infty} \left\{ \mathbf{M}_t - \begin{bmatrix} H_t & H_t \\ 1 - H_t & 1 - H_t \end{bmatrix} \right\} = 0 \tag{49}$$

(In fact, it is a transpose of a non-homogeneous Markov chain.) For large t, the population in two regions is given by

$$\begin{bmatrix} y_1(t) \\ y_2(t) \end{bmatrix} = [y_1(0) + y_2(0)] \begin{bmatrix} H_t \\ 1 - H_t \end{bmatrix} \tag{50}$$

The size of the total population is constant, but regional shares change over time. This occurs in the period model when the period rate of natural increase in each region is zero but interregional migration occurs at arbitrary rates. In the generation model, this situation arises when the *SNRRP* in the region of origin is unity, i.e., one child is born per person on the average in such a way that N_{ii} is associated with the region of origin and the rest $(1 - N_{ii})$ with the other region.

5 EXAMPLES

Table 1 shows an example of the dynamics of regional populations with row-stochastic ppms. The second and third columns give off-diagonal elements a_t and c_t of the ppm. Columns 4 and 5 give the populations $Y_1(t)$, $Y_2(t)$ in regions 1 and 2, column 6 gives the total combined population, $Y(t)$, and column 7 gives the percentage of the total population residing in region 1, % $Y_1(t)$; the data correspond to an initial population such that there are 100 persons in region 1 and zero in region 2. Columns 8–11 correspond to columns 4–7 for an initial population of zero in region 1 and 100 persons in region 2. Since any arbitrary initial distribution may be expressed as a linear combination of these two populations, it is possible to compute the dynamics of any population evolving under these given rates.

The elements a_t and c_t may be thought of either as $o_2(t)$ and $o_1(t)$ in the period model, or as $R_{21}(t)$ and $R_{12}(t)$, or $N_{21}(t)$ and $N_{12}(t)$ in the generation models. However, the values used in this example are more compatible with the generation models, as suggested by the actual data for India and the USSR presented in eqns. (30) and (31). Even with values that reflect period out-migration rates, our results hold but the time needed for convergence is too long (about 28 years are required for

TABLE 1   Biregional population dynamics with row-stochastic ppms.

t	a_t	c_t	$Y(0) = (100\ \ 0)'$				$Y(0) = (0\ \ 100)'$			
			$Y_1(t)$	$Y_2(t)$	$Y(t)$	$\% Y_1(t)$	$Y_1(t)$	$Y_2(t)$	$Y(t)$	$\% Y_1(t)$
0			100	0	100	100	0	100	100	0
1	0.10	0.05	90.0	5.0	95.0	94.7	10.0	95.0	105.0	9.5
2	0.15	0.10	77.3	13.5	90.8	85.1	22.8	86.5	109.3	20.8
3	0.20	0.15	64.5	23.1	87.6	73.7	35.5	76.9	112.4	31.6
4	0.25	0.20	54.1	31.4	85.5	63.3	45.9	68.7	114.6	40.0
5	0.30	0.25	47.3	37.1	84.4	56.1	52.7	63.0	115.7	45.6
6	0.35	0.30	43.7	40.1	83.8	52.1	56.3	59.9	116.2	48.5
7	0.40	0.35	42.3	41.4	83.7	50.5	57.7	58.6	116.3	49.6
8	0.45	0.40	41.9	41.7	83.6	50.1	58.1	58.3	116.4	49.9
9	0.50	0.45	41.8	41.8	83.6	50.0	58.2	58.2	116.4	50.0
10	0.45	0.40	41.8	41.8	83.6	50.0	58.2	58.2	116.4	50.0
11	0.40	0.35	41.8	41.8	83.6	50.0	58.2	58.2	116.4	50.0
12	0.35	0.30	41.8	41.8	83.6	50.0	58.2	58.2	116.4	50.0

convergence in this example). Values for a_t and c_t were chosen so that $a_t > c_t$ at all times. This implies that for the period model

$$o_2(t) > o_1(t) \qquad \text{(for all } t)$$

and for the generation model

$$N_{11}(t) + N_{12}(t) = N_{1.}(t) > 1$$
$$N_{21}(t) + N_{22}(t) = N_{2.}(t) > 1 \qquad \text{(for all } t) \qquad (51)$$

(In the cohort model, we may consider either the ppm **R** for births, or the ppm **N** for populations. Here we chose the ppm **N** for our explanation.)

It is obvious that, in spite of the condition imposed, populations stabilize with an equal and constant number of people in each region, regardless of their initial distributions. However, how a population achieves this and what the eventual population size is depends on the initial distribution. When the initial population is entirely in region 1, the population in region 1 decreases, while the population in region 2 increases over time. The total population decreases before it stabilizes. On the other hand, when the initial population is entirely in region 2, the opposite occurs. The size of the final population is a combined effect of the initial distribution and the spatial reproductive values. A mathematical expression of this result is given in eqn. (44). It is interesting to note that this strong ergodicity results when eqn. (51) holds. We also note that

$$N_{.1}(t) = N_{.2}(t) = 1 \qquad \text{(for all } t) \qquad (52)$$

i.e., the *SNRRP* at the destination is conserved in this case.

Table 2 shows an example of the dynamics of regional populations with column-stochastic ppms. We consider two populations with the same initial distributions and the same set of rates as in Table 1. Since the total population size $Y(t) = 100$ is fixed at *all* times, the sizes of population in each region give their respective percentages, and hence $Y(t)$ and $\% Y_1(t)$ are omitted from the table. We

TABLE 2 Biregional population dynamics with column-stochastic ppms.

t	a_t	c_t	$Y(0) = (100\ \ 0)'$		$Y(0) = (0\ \ 100)'$	
			$Y_1(t)$	$Y_2(t)$	$Y_1(t)$	$Y_2(t)$
0			100	0	0	100
1	0.10	0.05	95.0	5.0	10.0	90.0
2	0.15	0.10	86.3	13.7	22.5	77.5
3	0.20	0.15	76.1	23.9	34.6	65.4
4	0.25	0.20	66.8	33.2	44.0	56.0
5	0.30	0.25	60.1	39.9	49.8	50.2
6	0.35	0.30	56.0	44.0	52.4	47.6
7	0.40	0.35	54.0	46.0	53.1	46.9
8	0.45	0.40	53.1	46.9	53.0	47.0
9	0.50	0.45	52.7	47.3	52.6	47.4
10	0.45	0.40	52.9	47.1	52.9	47.1
11	0.40	0.35	53.2	46.8	53.2	46.8
12	0.35	0.30	53.6	46.4	53.6	46.4
13	0.30	0.25	54.1	45.9	54.1	45.9

notice that regional populations reflect the effect of their initial distributions at first, although this effect is gradually lost and they eventually become identical. However, the populations do not stabilize over time but keep changing constantly. This result is contained in eqn. (50). We notice that this occurs when

$$N_{1.}(t) = N_{2.}(t) = 1 \tag{53}$$

is satisfied.

6 DYNAMICS OF ZERO-GROWTH MULTIREGIONAL POPULATIONS

The dynamics of multiregional populations, taking age structure into account, may be written (Rogers 1975, pp. 122, 123) as

$$K^{(t)} = G(t)K^{(t-1)} \tag{54}$$

or

$$\bar{K}^{(t)} = H(t)\bar{K}^{(t-1)} \tag{55}$$

where the multiregional ppms now depend on time t, in contrast to the fixed multiregional ppms of Rogers. (See Rogers 1975 for a description of the elements of the vectors and matrices.) When we consider populations with two age groups and two regions, eqns. (54) and (55) become, respectively,

$$\begin{bmatrix} K_1^t(1) \\ K_2^t(1) \\ \hline K_1^t(2) \\ K_2^t(2) \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} b_{11}^t(1) & b_{21}^t(1) & | & b_{11}^t(2) & b_{21}^t(2) \\ b_{12}^t(1) & b_{22}^t(1) & | & b_{12}^t(2) & b_{22}^t(2) \\ \hline s_{11}^t & s_{21}^t & | & 0 & 0 \\ s_{12}^t & s_{22}^t & | & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} K_1^{t-1}(1) \\ K_2^{t-1}(1) \\ \hline K_1^{t-1}(2) \\ K_2^{t-1}(2) \end{bmatrix} \tag{56}$$

$$
\begin{bmatrix} K_1^t(1) \\ K_1^t(2) \\ \hline K_2^t(1) \\ K_2^t(2) \end{bmatrix} =
\left[\begin{array}{cc|cc} b_{11}^t(1) & b_{11}^t(2) & b_{21}^t(1) & b_{21}^t(2) \\ s_{11}^t & 0 & s_{21}^t & 0 \\ \hline b_{12}^t(1) & b_{12}^t(2) & b_{22}^t(1) & b_{22}^t(2) \\ s_{12}^t & 0 & s_{22}^t & 0 \end{array}\right]
\begin{bmatrix} K_1^{t-1}(1) \\ K_1^{t-1}(2) \\ \hline K_2^{t-1}(1) \\ K_2^{t-1}(2) \end{bmatrix}
\tag{57}
$$

where $K_i^t(j)$ denotes the number of persons in region i in age group j at time t; $b_{ij}^t(k)$ is the number of persons in the first age group in region j at time t, per person in region i in age group k at time $t-1$; and s_{ij}^t is the proportion surviving in the second age group in region j at time t, per person in the first age group in region i at time $t-1$. Since eqn. (54) seems to be simpler to manipulate, we shall use it in the rest of our analysis. The dynamics of multiregional population at time t are given by

$$
\begin{aligned}
K^{(t)} &= \mathbf{G}(t)\mathbf{G}(t-1)\cdots\mathbf{G}(2)\mathbf{G}(1)K^{(0)} \\
&= \mathbf{M}(t)K^{(0)}
\end{aligned}
\tag{58}
$$

and hence the dynamics are completely determined by the backward product $\mathbf{M}(t)$ of multiregional ppms $\{\mathbf{G}(t)\}$.

As a special case of zero-growth dynamics, we first consider the case of row-stochastic multiregional ppms. Since the multiregional ppm $\mathbf{G}(t)$ is regular, from the theorems of Chatterjee and Seneta (1977) given by eqn. (37), we conclude that

$$
\lim_{t\to\infty} \mathbf{M}(t) = \boldsymbol{I}p'
$$

holds, so that

$$
\lim_{t\to\infty} K^{(t)} = (p, K^{(0)})\boldsymbol{I}
\tag{59}
$$

where $(p, K^{(0)})$ represents the inner product of the vectors p and $K^{(0)}$. Notice that the elements of the vector p represent spatial reproductive values. Thus when fertility, mortality, and migration rates change over time with the constraints

$$
\begin{cases}
\sum_{j=1}^{m} \sum_{k=1}^{n} b_{ji}^t(k) = 1 & (i = 1, 2, \ldots, m) \\
\sum_{j=1}^{m} s_{ji}^t(k) = 1 & (i = 1, 2, \ldots, m; k = 1, 2, \ldots, n-1)
\end{cases}
\tag{60}
$$

for populations with n age groups and m regions, the population evolves into a multiregional stationary population with constant age distribution and regional shares.

When the multiregional ppm $\mathbf{G}(t)$ is column-stochastic, for all t, the sequence of product matrices $\{\mathbf{M}(t)\}$ is a transpose of a non-homogeneous Markov chain, so that

$$
\lim_{t\to\infty} [\mathbf{M}(t) - h_t\boldsymbol{I}'] = 0
\tag{61}
$$

holds and hence, for large t, the multiregional population becomes

$$
K^{(t)} = (\boldsymbol{I}, K^{(0)})h_t
\tag{62}
$$

where the inner product $(\boldsymbol{I}, K^{(0)})$ gives the initial total population, and the vector h_t

satisfies $(\mathbf{I}, \mathbf{h}_t) = 1$. Here the vector $\mathbf{h}_t$ is determined by recent rates. The result of eqn. (62) holds, for all t, when

$$\sum_{j=1}^{m} [b_{ij}^{t}(k) + s_{ij}^{t}(k)] = 1 \qquad (i = 1, 2, \ldots, m; k = 1, 2, \ldots, n-1) \tag{63}$$

for populations with n age groups and m regions.

7 DISCUSSION

We have seen that the dynamics of populations (both single-region and multiregional) represented by a sequence of row-stochastic ppms lead to strong ergodicity, while the dynamics of populations represented by a sequence of column-stochastic ppms result in only weak ergodicity. Specific expressions originally obtained for populations with two age groups in a single region were extended to populations without age structure in two regions. From these expressions we can see explicitly how strong and weak ergodicity work. The dynamics of populations with n age groups and m regions are qualitatively the same as the examples discussed above, although we cannot give explicit formulas in such general cases.

Populations spread over two regions without age structure were modeled in two different ways: a period formulation, which involves the crude rates of birth, death, and migration over each period; and a generation formulation. For the generation model, we formulated the dynamics of births and populations separately, because when the rates change over time an unchanging birth sequence does not generate an unchanging population, and vice versa. We defined the *SNRRP* for the dynamics of populations, in addition to the *SNRR* for the dynamics of births: when we discuss whether the system is stationary we must make it clear whether we are referring to births or populations.

Demographic interpretations of row- and column-stochastic ppms merit some further discussion. For populations with two age groups in a single region, if mortality is fixed, and if a lifetime fertility of unity is split arbitrarily into two age groups (only the period *NRR* is equal to unity), all important features of the population eventually become constant. When fertility in the first age group and the survivorship proportions adjust themselves to a sum of unity, with fertility in the second age group being unity (both period and cohort *NRR* = 1), then the birth sequence and the age structure of the population change over time.

In the case of biregional populations, strong ergodicity results when the *SNRRP* at the region of destination is unity. This may be denoted as "location *SNRRP* = 1" or the *location replacement alternative*. When the *SNRRP* at the region of origin is unity, weak ergodicity results. This may be defined as "cohort *SNRRP* = 1," or the *cohort replacement alternative* (Rogers and Willekens 1976b, p. 6). As noted earlier, the equivalent conditions for the *SNRR* generate the corresponding dynamics of births. It is important to note that, when we consider age distribution, vital rates in most developed countries have ppms which are almost row-stochastic, but when we consider regional distribution, the ppms are more nearly column-stochastic (e.g., USSR data). The implication of this fact is that, under the conditions described above, changes in age distribution will probably be small, but changes in regional distribution will persist in the future.

It may be instructive to demonstrate how strong ergodicity is produced by row-stochastic ppms. The row-stochastic N implies

$$Y_i(t+1) = Y_i(t) + N_{ji}(t)[Y_j(t) - Y_i(t)] \qquad (i, j = 1, 2)$$

so that, when $Y_j(t) > Y_i(t)$

$$Y_i(t+1) > Y_i(t)$$

$$Y_j(t+1) < Y_j(t)$$

This process continues until regional populations satisfy $Y_i(t) = Y_j(t)$, and from this point on everything stays constant, as seen in Table 1.

Next we illustrate how weak ergodicity results from column-stochastic ppms. The column-stochastic ppm N yields

$$Y_1(t+1) = Y_1(t) + [N_{21}(t) Y_2(t) - N_{12}(t) Y_1(t)]$$

$$Y_2(t+1) = Y_2(t) - [N_{21}(t) Y_2(t) - N_{12}(t) Y_1(t)]$$

We immediately see that the total population $Y_1(t) + Y_2(t)$ is fixed at all times, and that the regional shares $Y_1(t)$ and $Y_2(t)$ change constantly according to the current migration rates and regional distribution. This was illustrated in Table 2. Only when

$$\frac{N_{21}(t)}{N_{12}(t)} = \frac{Y_1(t)}{Y_2(t)}$$

do we get

$$Y_i(t+1) = Y_i(t) \qquad (i = 1, 2)$$

Finally, the main advantage of having specific formulas for the 2×2 ppms, in addition to the limit theorems, is that we can see the particular workings of strong and weak ergodicity, and can identify the specific features required for the stable stationary case. For example, in eqns. (42) and (48), if $a_t = a$ and $c_t = c$ for all t, G_t for large t reduces to

$$G = a\{1 + [1 - (a+c)] + [1 - (a+c)]^2 + \cdots\}$$

$$= \frac{a}{a+c}$$

and H_t, for large t, reduces to

$$H = c\{1 + [1 - (a+c)] + [1 - (a+c)]^2 + \cdots\}$$

$$= \frac{c}{a+c}$$

which thus gives the results of eqns. (34) and (36) which are obtained from eigenvectors of the constant ppm.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

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AGGREGATION OF POPULATION PROJECTION MODELS

Robert Gibberd

1 INTRODUCTION

The issue of aggregation arises frequently in the study of dynamic systems. This is particularly true in mathematical demography, where the analyst is concerned with measuring and projecting flows from one state, such as region of residence, or marital or employment status, to another. When modeling any demographic system it is necessary to consciously or unconsciously aggregate over some of the above variables in order to obtain a manageable model. The aggregation is usually performed with respect to the variables which are of no immediate interest to the particular problem being studied. For example, when performing projections by region, age, and sex, the variables marital status, employment, and education level are frequently ignored, despite the fact that migration rates are related to these variables. Similarly, projections for household formation may neglect region of residence or occupation. Whether ignoring these extra variables produces an important bias in the results is not known, although it is recognized that erroneous results are obtained if the variables age or sex are aggregated. Now that multistate demographic models are being used to provide projections at very fine levels of detail, there is a growing need to understand the effect of aggregation on the results of these models.

Demographic projection models are often written as linear, discrete, time-invariant systems of the form

$$\boldsymbol{K}(t+1) = \mathbf{G}\boldsymbol{K}(t) \tag{1}$$

where both $\mathbf{G}$, an $n \times n$ matrix with non-negative elements, and the initial n-dimensional population vector $\boldsymbol{K}(0)$ are assumed to be known. Equation (1) exhibits the Markovian property (or assumption), which states that the population vector $\boldsymbol{K}(t+1)$ is determined entirely in terms of the vector $\boldsymbol{K}(t)$. This property greatly simplifies the use of the model and the empirical calculation of the elements of the transition matrix $\mathbf{G}$.

From the n-dimensional population vector $\boldsymbol{K}(t)$ it is possible to form an m-dimensional vector $\hat{\boldsymbol{K}}(t)$ by partitioning the n original elements into a new set of m elements. A property of aggregated population vectors is that if a linear, time-invariant equation is used to model $\hat{\boldsymbol{K}}(t)$, as given in eqn. (2)

$$\hat{\boldsymbol{K}}(t+1) = \hat{\mathbf{G}}\hat{\boldsymbol{K}}(t) \tag{2}$$

then the vector $\hat{\boldsymbol{K}}(t)$ will generally be inconsistent with $\boldsymbol{K}(t)$. The special case where $\hat{\boldsymbol{K}}(t)$ does obey eqn. (2) for all time intervals and initial population vectors, and $\hat{\boldsymbol{K}}(t)$ is consistent with $\boldsymbol{K}(t)$ has been denoted "perfect aggregation" (Rogers 1976).

The concept of aggregation of multistate systems has been used in input–output analysis in economics (Hatanaka 1952; McManus 1956; Ara 1959; Simon and Ando 1961; Ando and Fisher 1963; Fisher 1969), in control theory for dynamic systems (Aoki 1968; Luenberger 1978), in Markov-chain theory (Burke and Rosenblatt 1958; Kemeny and Snell 1960; Lewis 1979), and in demographic analysis (Keyfitz 1972; Rogers 1969, 1971, 1975, 1976; Rogers and Philipov 1979).

The aggregation problem in demographic analysis was first noted by Rogers (1969) and was studied with regard to matrix cohort-survival models of interregional population growth. The fact that conditions for perfect aggregation were not likely to be met in practice was emphasized, and Rogers suggested that aggregation procedures which gave the "best possible" accuracy rather than "perfect" accuracy should be considered. In his most recent article on the subject, Rogers (1976) showed the need to develop improved methods for reducing large-scale population-projection models by considering a combination of aggregation and decomposition techniques.

One of the simplest examples of aggregation error was illustrated by Keyfitz (1972), who considered two independent populations with different growth rates. Keyfitz showed that if both populations were combined and an average growth rate were applied to the total population, the sum of the separate projections was always greater than the projection for the combined population. For more general results and a good summary of the aggregation problem see the article by Rogers (1976).

This paper develops a formalism for determining the general relationship between an n-dimensional population vector and the corresponding m-dimensional aggregated vector. The following main results will be presented. Firstly, that an aggregated population vector generally obeys a non-Markovian equation of the form

$$\hat{\boldsymbol{K}}(t+1) = \hat{\mathbf{G}}_0 \hat{\boldsymbol{K}}(t) + \hat{\mathbf{G}}_1 \hat{\boldsymbol{K}}(t-1) + \hat{\mathbf{G}}_2 \hat{\boldsymbol{K}}(t-2) + \cdots \tag{3}$$

Secondly, that after a large number of time intervals, the above non-Markovian equation can be replaced by an almost equivalent Markovian equation, with the aggregated transition matrix having the same maximum eigenvalue and corresponding eigenvector as **G**. Thirdly, Luenberger's use of upper and lower aggregated transition matrices is employed to estimate the error caused by aggregation. The paper concludes with some comments on the "best" aggregation procedure.

2   TYPES OF AGGREGATION

If the population vector $\boldsymbol{K}(t)$ is assumed to obey eqn. (1), there are three possible ways to aggregate this linear model

(a) aggregate with respect to time only
(b) aggregate the elements of the vector $\boldsymbol{K}(t)$
(c) aggregate the vector elements and time simultaneously

When eqn. (1) is aggregated with respect to time, the demographer is usually concerned with going from, say, a one-year interval to a five-year interval. This can be achieved by writing eqn. (1) as

$$\boldsymbol{K}(t+5) = \mathbf{G}^5 \boldsymbol{K}(t) \qquad (t = 0, 5, 10, \ldots) \tag{4}$$

The dimension of the population vector is unaffected and the model clearly retains the Markovian property, with the transition matrix now being taken as $\mathbf{G}^5$. This result can be generalized to any time interval and illustrates that aggregation with respect to time still preserves the linear, time-invariant, Markovian properties of the model.

The second kind of aggregation occurs when a vector $\mathbf{K}(t)$ of dimension n is aggregated to an m-dimensional vector $\hat{\mathbf{K}}(t)$ $(m < n)$. This can be represented formally by the equation

$$\hat{\mathbf{K}}(t) = \mathbf{C}\mathbf{K}(t) \tag{5}$$

where $\mathbf{C}$ is an $m \times n$ dimensional matrix, and generally has only one non-zero element in each column. Rogers (1975) has called $\mathbf{C}$ the consolidation matrix.

Consider, as an example, a three-region population vector where

$$\mathbf{K}(t) = \begin{pmatrix} k_1(t) \\ k_2(t) \\ k_3(t) \end{pmatrix}$$

If the populations for regions 1 and 2 are to be combined, then

$$\mathbf{C} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

and

$$\hat{\mathbf{K}}(t) = \mathbf{C}\mathbf{K}(t) = \begin{pmatrix} k_1(t) + k_2(t) \\ k_3(t) \end{pmatrix}$$

In the general case, we will write the vector $\mathbf{K}(t)$ as a partitioned vector

$$\mathbf{K}(t) = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{K}_1(t) \\ \mathbf{K}_2(t) \\ \vdots \\ \mathbf{K}_m(t) \end{bmatrix}$$

where the $\mathbf{K}_i(t)$ are vectors whose elements are going to be summed to form the ith element of the aggregated vector $\hat{\mathbf{K}}(t)$.

The consolidation matrix $\mathbf{C}$ will be partitioned as

$$\mathbf{C} = \begin{bmatrix} c_1 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ 0 & c_2 & \cdots & 0 \\ \vdots & & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & \cdots & & c_m \end{bmatrix}$$

where c_i is a row vector of ones. Similarly, the transition matrix $\mathbf{G}$ can be partitioned as

$$\mathbf{G} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{G}_{11} & \mathbf{G}_{12} & \cdots & \mathbf{G}_{1m} \\ \mathbf{G}_{21} & \mathbf{G}_{22} & \cdots & \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \mathbf{G}_{m1} & & \cdots & \mathbf{G}_{mm} \end{bmatrix}$$

In the example considered above

$$\boldsymbol{K}_1(t) = \begin{pmatrix} k_1(t) \\ k_2(t) \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\boldsymbol{K}_2(t) = k_3(t)$$

$$\boldsymbol{c}_1 = (1 \quad 1)$$

$$\boldsymbol{c}_2 = 1$$

$$\mathbf{G}_{11} = \begin{pmatrix} g_{11} & g_{12} \\ g_{21} & g_{22} \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\mathbf{G}_{12} = \begin{pmatrix} g_{13} \\ g_{23} \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\mathbf{G}_{21} = (g_{31} \quad g_{32})$$

$$\mathbf{G}_{22} = g_{33}$$

This notation will be used extensively in the remaining sections.

In demography it is often desirable to aggregate the population vector in conjunction with a change in the unit time interval. A common example is the Leslie projection model using one-year cohorts, where the Leslie matrix $\mathbf{G}$ consists of the transition rates from one year to the next. A natural simplification is to aggregate adjacent state variables forming five-year cohort classes while also extending the basic time period from one year to five years, so that the time step is equal to the cohort time width. Mathematically, this can be seen as equivalent to performing a time aggregation and then aggregating the population vector. That is, it is necessary to aggregate eqn. (4) with respect to the elements of $\boldsymbol{K}(t)$ only. Hence, in principle, aggregating with respect to time and vector elements together is no different to aggregating with respect to vector elements alone.

3 DERIVATION OF NON-MARKOVIAN EQUATIONS FOR AN AGGREGATED SYSTEM

In this section, an equation for $\hat{\boldsymbol{K}}(t+1)$ is derived assuming that $\boldsymbol{K}(t+1)$ obeys eqn. (1). Equations (1) and (5) give the equation

$$\hat{\boldsymbol{K}}(t+1) = \mathbf{C}\boldsymbol{K}(t+1) = \mathbf{C}\mathbf{G}\boldsymbol{K}(t) \tag{6}$$

To express the right-hand side of eqn. (6) in terms of aggregated vectors, we construct a projection operator, $\mathbf{P}$, defined by

$$\mathbf{P} = \mathbf{C}^+\mathbf{C} \tag{7}$$

where

$$\mathbf{C}^+ = \mathbf{W}'(\mathbf{C}\mathbf{W}')^{-1} \tag{8}$$

$\mathbf{W}'$ is an $n \times m$ matrix which can be partitioned as follows

$$\mathbf{W}' = \begin{bmatrix} \boldsymbol{W}_1 & \boldsymbol{0} & \cdots & \boldsymbol{0} \\ \boldsymbol{0} & \boldsymbol{W}_2 & \cdots & \\ \vdots & & \ddots & \\ \boldsymbol{0} & \cdots & & \boldsymbol{W}_m \end{bmatrix} \tag{9}$$

and the $\boldsymbol{W}_i$ are column vectors. A particular example of $\mathbf{W}'$ is the transpose of $\mathbf{C}$, denoted by $\mathbf{C}'$. The matrix $\mathbf{CW}'$ has dimensions $m \times m$ and a sufficient condition for its inverse to exist is that $\boldsymbol{W}_i$ ($i = 1, 2, \ldots, m$) contains no negative elements and is not a null vector.

We define the operator $\mathbf{Q}$ by

$$\mathbf{Q} = \mathbf{I} - \mathbf{P} \tag{10}$$

where $\mathbf{I}$ is the identity matrix and eqns. (7)–(10) can be used to show that $\mathbf{P}$ and $\mathbf{Q}$ are idempotent operators satisfying the conditions

$$\mathbf{P}^2 = \mathbf{P} \qquad \mathbf{Q}^2 = \mathbf{Q} \qquad \mathbf{PQ} = \mathbf{QP} = \mathbf{0} \tag{11}$$

Using these operators, eqns. (1) and (6) can be written as

$$\mathbf{C}\boldsymbol{K}(t+1) = \mathbf{CG}\boldsymbol{K}(t) = \mathbf{CGP}\boldsymbol{K}(t) + \mathbf{CGQ}\boldsymbol{K}(t) \tag{12}$$

$$\mathbf{Q}\boldsymbol{K}(t+1) = \mathbf{QG}\boldsymbol{K}(t) = \mathbf{QGP}\boldsymbol{K}(t) + \mathbf{QGQ}\boldsymbol{K}(t) \tag{13}$$

Continued substitution for $\mathbf{Q}\boldsymbol{K}(t)$ in eqn. (12), using eqn. (13), gives

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{C}\boldsymbol{K}(t+1) = \ & \mathbf{CGP}\boldsymbol{K}(t) + \mathbf{CGQ} \cdot \mathbf{QGP}\boldsymbol{K}(t-1) \\ & + \mathbf{CGQGQGP}\boldsymbol{K}(t-2) + \cdots \\ & + \mathbf{CGQ(QGQ)}^{t-1}\mathbf{QGP}\boldsymbol{K}(0) \\ & + \mathbf{CGQ(QGQ)}^{t}\boldsymbol{K}(0) \end{aligned} \tag{14}$$

This equation can be written as

$$\begin{aligned} \hat{\boldsymbol{K}}(t+1) = \ & \hat{\mathbf{G}}_0\hat{\boldsymbol{K}}(t) + \hat{\mathbf{G}}_1\hat{\boldsymbol{K}}(t-1) + \hat{\mathbf{G}}_2\hat{\boldsymbol{K}}(t-2) + \cdots \\ & + \hat{\mathbf{G}}_t\hat{\boldsymbol{K}}(0) + \mathbf{G}_{t+1}\boldsymbol{K}(0) \end{aligned} \tag{15}$$

where

$$\hat{\mathbf{G}}_0 = \mathbf{CGC}^+$$

$$\hat{\mathbf{G}}_k = \mathbf{CGQ(QGQ)}^{k-1}\mathbf{QGC}^+ \qquad (k = 1, 2, \ldots, t)$$

$$\mathbf{G}_{t+1} = \mathbf{CGQ(QGQ)}^{t}$$

Equation (15) is clearly a non-Markovian equation, satisfied by the aggregated population vector $\hat{\boldsymbol{K}}(t+1)$. A special case occurs when $\mathbf{CGQ}$ is a null matrix. In this case, eqn. (15) reduces to an exact Markovian equation, namely

$$\hat{\boldsymbol{K}}(t+1) = \mathbf{CGC}^+\hat{\boldsymbol{K}}(t) = \hat{\mathbf{G}}_0\hat{\boldsymbol{K}}(t) \tag{16}$$

Population models which satisfy eqn. (16) are of the special type studied by Burke and Rosenblatt (1958), Kemeny and Snell (1960), and Rogers (1968, 1975). Kemeny and Snell used the term "lumpable" to describe a Markovian chain with the

property that an aggregated process is also a Markovian chain. Rogers recognized a similar situation in the modeling of demographic systems, and used the term "perfect aggregation." It is possible to show that the conditions for "lumpability" and "perfect aggregation" are equivalent to the condition $\mathbf{CGQ} = \mathbf{0}$, and this condition will be discussed in more detail in Section 4.

For most systems, $\mathbf{CGQ} \neq \mathbf{0}$, and hence if a Markovian assumption is valid for a certain population vector $\boldsymbol{K}(t)$, then a coarser or aggregated classification using $\hat{\boldsymbol{K}}(t)$ will no longer be Markovian; extra terms, called "memory" terms, will need to be included in the equation. This is a disturbing result since almost all demographic accounting models assume that the Markovian assumption is valid. By neglecting the "memory" terms, an error or bias in the results will occur. However, because of the complicated nature of the expressions given in eqn. (15), it would be unrealistic to expect future models to use the non-Markovian equation. What is required is to choose $\mathbf{W}'$ such that the "memory" terms are minimized, and eqn. (15) can be approximated by

$$\hat{\boldsymbol{K}}(t+1) \simeq \hat{\mathbf{G}}_0 \hat{\boldsymbol{K}}(t) \tag{17}$$

In the next three sections five alternative formulations of $\hat{\mathbf{G}}_0$ are considered; in Section 7 of the paper, these alternatives are applied to a numerical example.

4   ASYMPTOTIC APPROXIMATION TO THE NON-MARKOVIAN EQUATION

The stable or equilibrium solution of eqn. (1) is often of interest, since the long-term behavior of $\boldsymbol{K}(t)$ magnifies any trends or spatial changes that are occurring in the system. In this section it will be shown that the long-term behavior of an aggregated system can be closely approximated by a Markovian equation with a transition matrix that has the same maximum eigenvalue as the original transition matrix. The derivation of this result is given in detail by Lewis (1979), and is only briefly derived here.

For the case when the eigenvalues of $\mathbf{G}$ are distinct, the population vector $\boldsymbol{K}(t)$ $(t = 0, 1, 2, \ldots, m)$ can be written as

$$\boldsymbol{K}(t) = \lambda_1^t \left[\boldsymbol{u}_1 a_1 + \boldsymbol{u}_2 a_2 \left(\frac{\lambda_2}{\lambda_1} \right)^t + \cdots + \boldsymbol{u}_n a_n \left(\frac{\lambda_n}{\lambda_1} \right)^t \right] \tag{18}$$

where $\boldsymbol{u}_i$ is the right eigenvector of $\mathbf{G}$ corresponding to eigenvalue λ_i, and a_i is a constant $(i = 1, 2, \ldots, n)$. It is assumed that λ_1 is the eigenvalue with maximum absolute value, and hence, for $i = 2, 3, \ldots, n$

$$\lim_{t \to \infty} \left(\frac{\lambda_i}{\lambda_1} \right)^t = 0$$

Consequently, for large t, a first approximation to eqn. (18) is

$$\boldsymbol{K}(t) \simeq \lambda_1^t \boldsymbol{u}_1 a_1$$

If we rewrite eqn. (14) as

$$\mathbf{C}\boldsymbol{K}(t+1) = \mathbf{CGP}\boldsymbol{K}(t) + \mathbf{CGQ} \sum_{i=0}^{t-1} (\mathbf{QGQ})^i \mathbf{QGP}\boldsymbol{K}(t-1-i)$$
$$+ \mathbf{CGQ}(\mathbf{QGQ})^t \boldsymbol{K}(0) \tag{19}$$

Then, for large t

$$\sum_{i=0}^{t-1} (\mathbf{QGQ})^i \mathbf{QGP}\boldsymbol{K}(t-1-i) \simeq \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} (\mathbf{QGQ})^i \mathbf{QGP}\lambda_1^{t-1-i} \boldsymbol{u}_1 a_1$$
$$\simeq \lambda_1^{-1} \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} (\mathbf{QGQ}/\lambda_1)^i \mathbf{QGP}\boldsymbol{K}(t) \tag{20}$$

Provided the series $\sum_{i=0}^{\infty} (\mathbf{QGQ}/\lambda_1)^i$ converges, it can be replaced by the expression $[\mathbf{Q} - (\mathbf{QGQ}/\lambda_1)]^{-1}$.

Equation (20) becomes, for large t

$$\sum_{i=0}^{t-1} (\mathbf{QGQ})^i \mathbf{QGP}\boldsymbol{K}(t-1-i) \simeq \lambda_1^{-1}[\mathbf{Q}-(\mathbf{QGQ}/\lambda_1)]^{-1} \mathbf{QGP}\boldsymbol{K}(t)$$
$$= (\lambda_1 \mathbf{Q} - \mathbf{QGQ})^{-1} \mathbf{QGP}\boldsymbol{K}(t)$$

Thus, eqn. (19) can be approximated as

$$\mathbf{C}\boldsymbol{K}(t+1) \simeq \mathbf{CGP}\boldsymbol{K}(t) + \mathbf{CGQ}(\lambda_1 \mathbf{Q} - \mathbf{QGQ})^{-1} \mathbf{QGP}\boldsymbol{K}(t)$$
$$+ \mathbf{CGQ}(\mathbf{QGQ})^t \boldsymbol{K}(0)$$

or

$$\hat{\boldsymbol{K}}(t+1) \approx \hat{\mathbf{G}}_{as} \hat{\boldsymbol{K}}(t)$$

where

$$\hat{\mathbf{G}}_{as} = \mathbf{CGC}^+ + \mathbf{CGQ}(\lambda_1 \mathbf{Q} - \mathbf{QGQ})^{-1} \mathbf{QGC}^+ \tag{21}$$

and the term $\mathbf{CGQ}(\mathbf{QGQ})^t \boldsymbol{K}(0)$ has been neglected since it becomes relatively small as t becomes large.

The maximum eigenvalue of $\mathbf{G}, \lambda_1$, and the corresponding eigenvector $\boldsymbol{u}_1$ satisfy the relation

$$\mathbf{G}\boldsymbol{u}_1 = \lambda_1 \boldsymbol{u}_1$$

It can be shown by substitution that, if $\hat{\mathbf{G}}_{as}$ is defined by eqn. (21), then

$$\hat{\mathbf{G}}_{as}\hat{\boldsymbol{u}}_1 = \lambda_1 \hat{\boldsymbol{u}}_1$$

Thus, $\hat{\mathbf{G}}_{as}$ has the corresponding maximum eigenvalue and eigenvector of $\mathbf{G}$, guaranteeing that eqns. (1) and (21) are consistent for large t.

The asymptotic properties of an aggregated system can be illustrated by considering a simple example, the 2×2 Leslie matrix in which the two age groups are aggregated into one age group

$$\begin{pmatrix} k_1(t+1) \\ k_2(t+1) \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} b_1 & b_2 \\ s_1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} k_1(t) \\ k_2(t) \end{pmatrix} \tag{22}$$

The aggregated population vector is $\hat{\boldsymbol{K}}(t) = k_1(t) + k_2(t)$ and hence

$$\mathbf{C} = (1 \quad 1)$$

We then choose $\mathbf{W}'$ such that $(\mathbf{CW}')$ is the identity matrix, that is

$$\mathbf{W}' = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} = \mathbf{C}^+$$

Matrix algebra then yields the following results

$$\mathbf{P} = \mathbf{W}'(\mathbf{CW}')^{-1}\mathbf{C} = \mathbf{W}'\mathbf{C} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\mathbf{Q} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\mathbf{CGC}^+ = b_1 + s_1$$

$$\mathbf{CGQ} = (0 \quad b_2 - b_1 - s_1)$$

$$\mathbf{CGQ}(\mathbf{QGQ})^k \mathbf{QGC}^+ = -(b_2 - b_1 - s_1)(-s_1)^{k+1}$$

Substituting into eqn. (15) gives the following equation for the total population $\hat{\boldsymbol{K}}(t+1)$

$$\begin{aligned}
\hat{\boldsymbol{K}}(t+1) = {} & (b_1 + s_1)\hat{\boldsymbol{K}}(t) \\
& + (b_2 - b_1 - s_1)[s_1\hat{\boldsymbol{K}}(t-1) - s_1^2\hat{\boldsymbol{K}}(t-2) + s_1^3\hat{\boldsymbol{K}}(t-3) - \cdots] \\
& + (-s)^t(b_2 - b_1 - s_1)k_2(0)
\end{aligned} \tag{23}$$

It can be seen that, if $b_2 = b_1 + s_1$, then eqn. (23) becomes Markovian. That is

$$\hat{\boldsymbol{K}}(t+1) = (b_1 + s_1)\hat{\boldsymbol{K}}(t) = b_2\hat{\boldsymbol{K}}(t)$$

This corresponds to the case $\mathbf{CGQ} = 0$ or "perfect aggregation" as discussed earlier.

In the case when $b_1 + s_1 \neq b_2$, we assume that the population has a constant growth rate r for large t. Then

$$\hat{\boldsymbol{K}}(t) \simeq r^n\hat{\boldsymbol{K}}(t-n) \tag{24}$$

and substituting in eqn. (23) gives

$$\begin{aligned}
\hat{\boldsymbol{K}}(t+1) &\simeq (b_1 + s_1)\hat{\boldsymbol{K}}(t) \\
&\quad + \frac{s_1(b_2 - b_1 - s_1)}{r}\left[1 - \left(\frac{s_1}{r}\right) + \left(\frac{s_1}{r}\right)^2 - \cdots\right]\hat{\boldsymbol{K}}(t) \\
&\simeq \left[b_1 + s_1 + \frac{s_1(b_2 - b_1 - s_1)}{r + s_1}\right]\hat{\boldsymbol{K}}(t)
\end{aligned} \tag{25}$$

However, for eqns. (24) and (25) to be consistent, we require

$$b_1 + s_1 + \frac{s_1(b_2 - b_1 - s_1)}{r + s_1} = r$$

That is

$$r = \frac{b_1 \pm \sqrt{(b_1^2 + 4s_1b_2)}}{2}$$

However, these values of r are the same as the eigenvalues of the original Leslie matrix, and hence the aggregated eqn. (23) becomes approximately Markovian for large t and can be approximated by

$$\hat{\boldsymbol{K}}(t+1) = \left[\frac{b_1 + \sqrt{(b_1^2 + 4s_1b_2)}}{2}\right] \hat{\boldsymbol{K}}(t)$$

This is a particular case of the general equation derived in eqn. (17).

The matrix $\hat{\mathbf{G}}_{as}$ depends on the choice of the matrix $\mathbf{W}'$, and two possible alternative choices for the above example are

$$\begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \quad \text{or} \quad \begin{pmatrix} \frac{1}{2} \\ \frac{1}{2} \end{pmatrix}$$

Although the non-Markovian equation corresponding to eqn. (23) will now be different, the property that $\hat{\mathbf{G}}_{as}$ has the maximum eigenvalue and eigenvector of $\mathbf{G}$ is invariant to the choice of $\mathbf{W}'$.

The implications for demographic modeling when studying long-term behavior are that the transition matrix $\hat{\mathbf{G}}_{as}$ should be used. However, as discussed in Section 8, this may not be computationally feasible for very large systems.

5 UPPER AND LOWER AGGREGATION MATRICES

Luenberger (1978) introduced the idea of developing two aggregated systems: one serving as an upper bound and the other as a lower bound. To construct the upper and lower aggregated systems, it is necessary to determine in detail what "perfect aggregation" requires. If the two population vectors $\boldsymbol{K}(t+1)$ and $\hat{\boldsymbol{K}}(t+1)$ are consistent, then the equations

$$\mathbf{C}\boldsymbol{K}(t+1) = \mathbf{CG}\boldsymbol{K}(t)$$

$$\mathbf{C}\boldsymbol{K}(t+1) = \hat{\boldsymbol{K}}(t+1) = \hat{\mathbf{G}}\hat{\boldsymbol{K}}(t) = \hat{\mathbf{G}}\mathbf{C}\boldsymbol{K}(t)$$

should be consistent (Rogers 1975). For this to be true for all vectors $\boldsymbol{K}(t)$, we require

$$\mathbf{CG} = \hat{\mathbf{G}}\mathbf{C} \tag{26}$$

Writing eqn. (26) in terms of the submatrices $\mathbf{G}_{ij}$ and vectors c_{ii} gives

$$c_{ii}\mathbf{G}_{ij} = \hat{\mathbf{G}}_{ij}c_{jj} \qquad (i, j = 1, 2, \ldots, m) \tag{27}$$

Since the c_{ii} are row vectors with each element being equal to one, eqn. (27) is only true when the column sums of each submatrix $\mathbf{G}_{ij}$ are equal to the element $\hat{\mathbf{G}}_{ij}$. If this is true for all $i, j = 1, 2, \ldots, m$ then the system can be aggregated without producing any error or bias. Alternatively, if the column sums of any $\mathbf{G}_{ij}$ are not equal, then eqns. (26) and (27) cannot be satisfied. To construct the upper aggregated transition matrix $\hat{\mathbf{G}}_u$, we define the elements of $[\hat{\mathbf{G}}_u]_{ij}$ as equal to the maximum column sum of $\mathbf{G}_{ij}$ $(i, j = 1, 2, \ldots, m)$. Then it can be seen that

$$\hat{\mathbf{G}}_u\mathbf{C} \geqslant \mathbf{CG}$$

and hence, that [for non-negative $\boldsymbol{K}(t)$]

$$\hat{\boldsymbol{K}}_u(t+1) = \hat{\mathbf{G}}_u\mathbf{C}\boldsymbol{K}(t) \geqslant \mathbf{CG}\boldsymbol{K}(t) = \mathbf{C}\boldsymbol{K}(t+1) = \hat{\boldsymbol{K}}(t+1)$$

where the inequality refers to the components of the matrix equations above.

Similarly, a lower aggregated transition matrix $\hat{\mathbf{G}}_l$ is defined as having elements $[\hat{\mathbf{G}}_l]_{ij}$ equal to the minimum column sum of $\mathbf{G}_{ij}$ $(i, j = 1, 2, \ldots, m)$. Thus

$$\hat{\mathbf{G}}_l \mathbf{C} \leq \mathbf{CG}$$

and

$$\hat{\boldsymbol{K}}_l(t+1) = \hat{\mathbf{G}}_l \mathbf{C} \boldsymbol{K}(t) \leq \mathbf{CG} \boldsymbol{K}(t) = \hat{\boldsymbol{K}}(t+1)$$

The transition matrices $\hat{\mathbf{G}}_u$ and $\hat{\mathbf{G}}_l$ can be easily constructed from the matrix $\mathbf{G}$, and when applied t times to the initial population vector $\hat{\boldsymbol{K}}(0)$ will yield upper and lower bounds for the vector $\hat{\boldsymbol{K}}(t)$. A numerical example is given in Section 7.

6 ALTERNATIVE AGGREGATION MATRICES

In Section 5 it was shown how upper and lower aggregated systems could be obtained. We now consider the aggregated systems whose transition matrix $\hat{\mathbf{G}}_a$ is obtained by defining $[\hat{\mathbf{G}}_a]_{ij}$ as the unweighted or weighted mean of the column sums of $\mathbf{G}_{ij}$. Since the mean must lie between the maximum and minimum values, it can be shown that

$$\hat{\mathbf{G}}_l \leq \hat{\mathbf{G}}_a \leq \hat{\mathbf{G}}_u$$

and hence that the population vectors obtained from $\hat{\mathbf{G}}_a$ lie between the upper and lower vectors obtained from $\hat{\mathbf{G}}_u$ and $\hat{\mathbf{G}}_l$.

To derive the matrices $\hat{\mathbf{G}}_a$, recall that we need to find $\hat{\mathbf{G}}$ such that

$$\mathbf{CG} = \hat{\mathbf{G}}\mathbf{C} \tag{26}$$

This is an $m \times n$ matrix equation with m^2 unknown parameters $\hat{\mathbf{G}}_{ij}$ $(i, j = 1, 2, \ldots, m)$. As there are more equations than unknowns, there is, in general, no exact solution. However, a least-squares solution can be obtained from the generalized inverse of $\mathbf{C}$, defined as $\mathbf{C}^+$ in eqn. (8). The matrix $\mathbf{W}'$ provides the weights for the least-squares solution. Multiplying eqn. (26) by $\mathbf{C}^+$ gives

$$\hat{\mathbf{G}}_a = \mathbf{CGC}^+ = \mathbf{CGW}'(\mathbf{CW}')^{-1} \tag{28}$$

The unweighted least-squares solution is obtained by defining $\mathbf{W}'$ as the transpose of $\mathbf{C}$, and hence

$$\hat{\mathbf{G}}_{l.s.} = \mathbf{CGC}'(\mathbf{CC}')^{-1}$$

It can be shown that the i, j element of $\hat{\mathbf{G}}_{l.s.}$ is the arithmetic mean of the column sums of $\mathbf{G}_{ij}$, and hence represents the least-squares solution to eqn. (26).

Since the elements of $\mathbf{G}_{ij}$ are rates (such as migration, mortality, and fertility rates), it would appear more appropriate to use a weighted average, where the weights are proportional to some population distribution. There are two obvious choices: namely, that the weights should be proportional either to the initial population vector $\boldsymbol{K}(0)$ or to the stable population vector $\boldsymbol{u}_1$. If the vectors $\boldsymbol{W}_i$ are set equal to the corresponding elements of $\boldsymbol{u}_1$, then it can be shown that

$$\mathbf{W}'(\mathbf{CW}')^{-1}\mathbf{C}\boldsymbol{u}_1 = \boldsymbol{u}_1$$

and hence it follows that $\hat{\mathbf{G}}_{eq} = \mathbf{CGC}^+$ has an eigenvalue λ_1 and eigenvector $\mathbf{C}\boldsymbol{u}_1$. This

is the same property that the matrix $\hat{\mathbf{G}}_{as}$ was shown to have in the earlier section on asymptotic approximation, and hence both matrices will describe the asymptotic behavior of the aggregated system correctly.

The most pragmatic weighting is to construct an aggregated matrix using the initial population vector $\boldsymbol{K}(0)$. Defining the weighting matrix $\mathbf{W}'$ in terms of $\boldsymbol{K}(0)$ gives the following expression for the components of the aggregated matrix $\hat{\mathbf{G}}_0$

$$(\hat{\mathbf{G}}_0)_{ij} = \sum_l' g_{il} k_l(0) \Big/ \sum_l' k_l(0) \tag{29}$$

where the summation over l is restricted to those elements that are summed to form the jth component of the aggregated system. With such a choice for $\mathbf{W}$ it can be shown that

$$\mathbf{W}'(\mathbf{CW}')^{-1}\mathbf{C}\boldsymbol{K}(0) = \boldsymbol{K}(0)$$

and hence that

$$\hat{\boldsymbol{K}}(1) = \hat{\mathbf{G}}_0\hat{\boldsymbol{K}}(0) = \mathbf{CGW}'(\mathbf{CW}')^{-1}\mathbf{C}\boldsymbol{K}(0) = \mathbf{CG}\boldsymbol{K}(0) = \mathbf{C}\boldsymbol{K}(1)$$

Thus, the matrix $\hat{\mathbf{G}}_0$ gives consistent answers for the vectors $\hat{\boldsymbol{K}}(1)$ and $\boldsymbol{K}(1)$ and it can be assumed to be reasonably consistent for small values of t. Three other aspects to note are as follows. Firstly, in this case, $\mathbf{W}'(\mathbf{CW}')^{-1}\mathbf{C}$ is equivalent to the deconsolidation operator $\mathbf{D}(t)$ for $t = 0$ used by Rogers (1975). Secondly, the matrix $\hat{\mathbf{G}}_0$ as defined above is equivalent to the observed transition matrix for the aggregated system in the time period $t = 0$ to $t = 1$. And finally, $\hat{\mathbf{G}}_0$ will be a better approximation, the closer $\boldsymbol{K}(0)$ is to the equilibrium vector $\boldsymbol{u}_1$.

7 NUMERICAL EXAMPLE

The results derived in Sections 3–6 will now be illustrated in an example using interstate migration data for Australia during the period 1966–1971. The data which form the basis of the migration model are given in Table 1 in the form of a migration matrix of total movers and stayers. The population vector is eight dimensional, representing the population in the eight states and territories. Note that the total population remains constant, since births, deaths, and migration into and out of Australia have been ignored. For this reason, the vector $\boldsymbol{K}(t)$ will be normalized to give the proportion of people in each state. ·

The transition matrix $\mathbf{G}$ is obtained from the migration matrix in Table 1 by dividing each element of a column by the sum of the elements in that column, as shown in Table 2.

To illustrate the properties of aggregated models, the population vector $\boldsymbol{K}(t)$ will be reduced to a 3-dimensional vector by combining regions 3–8 into a single region. Also, it is assumed that the 8-dimensional population vector satisfies eqn. (1).

The expression for the consolidation matrix $\mathbf{C}$ is given by

$$\mathbf{C} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

TABLE 1   Internal migration between Australian states and territories[a], 1966–1971[b].

Destination in 1971	Origin in 1966								
	N.S.W.	Vic.	Qld.	S.A.	W.A.	Tas.	A.C.T.	N.T.	Total
N.S.W.	3,493,601	44,759	38,621	13,131	8,179	4,862	8,227	2,374	3,613,754
Vic.	37,813	2,672,388	15,949	17,139	7,649	8,764	2,453	1,448	2,763,603
Qld.	46,033	27,124	1,341,316	6,021	3,971	2,998	1,653	2,555	1,431,671
S.A.	12,158	13,937	4,148	897,411	3,370	1,544	755	2,041	935,364
W.A.	14,104	15,496	6,285	9,248	696,630	2,199	812	1,540	746,314
Tas.	3,848	6,399	1,641	1,553	814	302,638	196	146	317,235
A.C.T.	22,211	7,205	3,684	2,622	1,261	721	68,557	539	106,800
N.T.	4,148	3,143	4,640	5,106	1,876	319	323	33,043	52,598
Total	3,633,916	2,790,451	1,416,284	952,231	723,750	324,045	82,976	43,686	9,967,339

[a] Abbreviations used are as follows: N.S.W., New South Wales; Vic., Victoria; Qld., Queensland; S.A., South Australia; W.A., Western Australia; Tas., Tasmania; A.C.T., Australian Capital Territory; N.T., Northern Territories.
[b] Taken from Rowland (1976), p. 25, Table 3.5.

TABLE 2   Transition matrix[a] **G** for an 8-state Markov chain[b].

	N.S.W.	Vic.	Qld.	S.A.	W.A.	Tas.	A.C.T.	N.T.
N.S.W.	0.961387	0.016040	0.027269	0.013790	0.011301	0.015004	0.099149	0.054342
Vic.	0.010406	0.957690	0.011261	0.017999	0.010569	0.027046	0.029563	0.033146
Qld.	0.012668	0.009720	0.947067	0.006323	0.005487	0.009252	0.019921	0.058486
S.A.	0.003346	0.004995	0.002929	0.942430	0.004656	0.004765	0.009099	0.046720
W.A.	0.003881	0.005553	0.004438	0.009712	0.962528	0.006786	0.009786	0.035252
Tas.	0.001059	0.002293	0.001159	0.001631	0.001125	0.933938	0.002362	0.003342
A.C.T.	0.006112	0.002582	0.002601	0.002754	0.001742	0.002225	0.826227	0.012338
N.T.	0.001141	0.001126	0.003276	0.005362	0.002592	0.000984	0.003893	0.756375

[a] Transition probabilities have been rounded to six decimal places and consequently column sums may not always equal unity.
[b] Taken from Lewis (1979).

In this example, the operators **P** and **Q** are given by

$$
\mathbf{P} = \begin{bmatrix}
1 & 0 & 0 & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot \\
0 & 1 & 0 & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot \\
0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot \\
0 & 0 & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot \\
\cdot & \cdot & & & & & & \\
\cdot & \cdot & & & & & & \\
\cdot & \cdot & & & & & & 0
\end{bmatrix}
$$

$$
\mathbf{Q} = \begin{bmatrix}
0 & 0 & 0 & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot \\
0 & 0 & 0 & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot \\
0 & 0 & 0 & -1 & -1 & -1 & -1 & -1 \\
\cdot & \cdot & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
\cdot & \cdot & \cdot & & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
\cdot & \cdot & \cdot & & & 1 & 0 & 0 \\
\cdot & \cdot & \cdot & & & & 1 & 0 \\
0 & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & 1
\end{bmatrix}
$$

The first result to note is that the column sums of the submatrices $\mathbf{G}_{13}$, $\mathbf{G}_{23}$, and $\mathbf{G}_{33}$ are not equal and that $\mathbf{CGQ} \neq \mathbf{0}$. Also, since the model is closed (in other words, the matrix $\mathbf{G}$ is stochastic), the maximum eigenvalue of $\mathbf{G}$ is 1. Thus the approximate aggregated matrix $\hat{\mathbf{G}}_{as}$ derived earlier, which is valid for long time intervals, can be calculated, and it is given in Table 3.

To obtain the upper and lower aggregated transition matrices, we note that the column sums of $\mathbf{G}_{13}$, $\mathbf{G}_{23}$, and $\mathbf{G}_{33}$ range from 0.011301, 0.010569, and 0.871288 to 0.099149, 0.033146, and 0.978131, respectively. Hence, the matrices $\hat{\mathbf{G}}_{l}$ and $\hat{\mathbf{G}}_{u}$ are easily obtained and these are also shown in Table 3.

The remaining three aggregated matrices are obtained using different weights for $\mathbf{W}'$. The unweighted least-squares approximation is given by $\mathbf{W}' = \mathbf{C}'$. For a

TABLE 3   Alternative aggregation matrix elements derived from the data.

$\hat{\mathbf{G}}_{as}$			$\hat{\mathbf{G}}_{u}$		
0.9611	0.0131	0.0256	0.9614	0.0160	0.0991
0.0118	0.9591	0.0125	0.0104	0.9577	0.0331
0.0270	0.0278	0.9620	0.0282	0.0263	0.9781
$\hat{\mathbf{G}}_{l}$			$\hat{\mathbf{G}}_{l.s.}$		
0.9614	0.0160	0.0113	0.9614	0.0160	0.0368
0.0104	0.9577	0.0106	0.0104	0.9577	0.0216
0.0282	0.0263	0.8713	0.0282	0.0263	0.9416
$\hat{\mathbf{G}}_{eq}$			$\hat{\mathbf{G}}_{0}$		
0.9614	0.0160	0.0238	0.9614	0.0160	0.0213
0.0104	0.9577	0.0144	0.0104	0.9577	0.0151
0.0282	0.0263	0.9618	0.0282	0.0263˙	0.9636

weighted least-squares approximation, where the weights are proportional to the initial population vector $\boldsymbol{K}(0)$, in this case the population given by the 1966 population, the aggregated matrix can be derived by either summing the appropriate elements in Table 1, or using the expression given in eqn. (28). To obtain the $\hat{\mathbf{G}}_{eq}$ matrix it is necessary to calculate the eigenvector corresponding to the maximum eigenvalue of **G**. This was computed to be (0.3526, 0.2291, 0.1692, 0.0712, 0.1263, 0.0217, 0.0216, 0.0083), where each element represents the proportion of people in each state. Using this vector to define $\mathbf{W}'$, the matrix $\hat{\mathbf{G}}_{eq}$ was calculated as shown in Table 3.

The aggregated matrices were then used to project the population share for each region. The results for the years 1981, 1991, and 2001, and the stable or equilibrium vectors are given in Table 4 and Figure 1.

The results obtained by using $\hat{\mathbf{G}}_{as}$ and $\hat{\mathbf{G}}_{eq}$ agree closely with the "exact" result, (obtained from the 8×8 transition matrix), and both have the correct equilibrium value. The results obtained using $\hat{\mathbf{G}}_0$ have errors ranging up to only 0.84% for the year 2001, but have errors of 5% for the equilibrium eigenvector. The bounds

TABLE 4 Alternative projections giving proportion of total population in N.S.W., Victoria, and the remainder of Australia.

| Matrix used	Year			Equilibrium
	1981	1991	2001	
Exact **G**	0.3595	0.3574	0.3560	0.3526
	0.2724	0.2682	0.2644	0.2291
	0.3681	0.3744	0.3796	0.4183
$\hat{\mathbf{G}}_{as}$	0.3607	0.3587	0.3570	0.3526
	0.2722	0.2657	0.2637	0.2291
	0.3671	0.3756	0.3793	0.4183
$\hat{\mathbf{G}}_u$	0.4149	0.4675	0.5210	
	0.2857	0.2958	0.3076	
	0.3800	0.4024	0.4274	
$\hat{\mathbf{G}}_l$	0.3515	0.3397	0.3278	
	0.2688	0.2597	0.2503	
	0.3059	0.2637	0.2306	
$\hat{\mathbf{G}}_{l.s.}$	0.3697	0.3758	0.3811	0.4150
	0.2769	0.2764	0.2759	0.2653
	0.3534	0.3478	0.3431	0.3197
$\hat{\mathbf{G}}_{eq}$	0.3607	0.3591	0.3578	0.3526
	0.2719	0.2671	0.2629	0.2291
	0.3674	0.3738	0.3794	0.4183
$\hat{\mathbf{G}}_0$	0.3589	0.3558	0.3530	0.3347
	0.2724	0.2681	0.2642	0.2355
	0.3687	0.3762	0.3828	0.4298
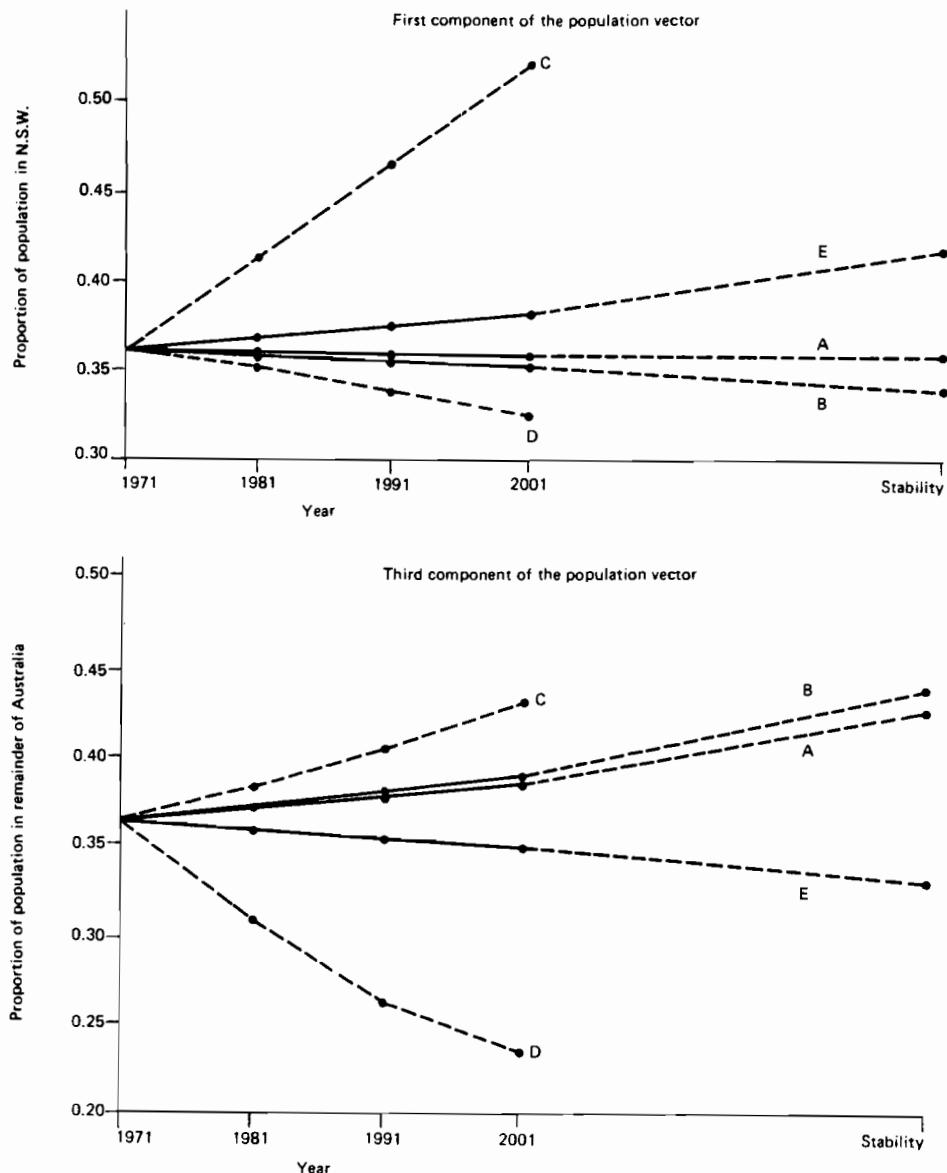
FIGURE 1   Values obtained for two components of the population vector: A, exact result; B, approximate result using $\hat{\mathbf{G}}_0$; C, upper aggregation; D, lower aggregation; E, unweighted least-squares using $\hat{\mathbf{G}}_{\text{l.s.}}$. The "remainder of Australia" includes all regions except N.S.W. and Victoria.

provided by the upper and lower aggregation matrices range from 22% to over 50% for the year 2001. Furthermore, they do not provide any reasonable bounds on the equilibrium vector. The unweighted least-squares aggregated matrix $\hat{\mathbf{G}}_{\text{l.s.}}$ did not give very good results.

The results above will not be duplicated for all systems, but it can be assumed that, if the initial population vector is not too far from the equilibrium vector, $\hat{\mathbf{G}}_0$ will be a good approximation. One method of determining whether there will be any bias

is to compare the equilibrium vector of $\hat{\mathbf{G}}_0$ to $\hat{\mathbf{K}}(0)$. If they are different then error will be present due to aggregation.

Better results can be obtained by using $\hat{\mathbf{G}}_{as}$ and $\hat{\mathbf{G}}_{eq}$ but both matrices require disaggregated data for their construction. If these are not available $\hat{\mathbf{G}}_0$ is the only matrix that can be used.

8 IMPLICATIONS FOR POPULATION MODELING

Earlier work on the aggregation problem has focused on the conditions necessary for "perfect aggregation." However, as noted by Rogers (1976), these conditions are rarely obtained in demographic models. This paper has developed a method for constructing the non-Markovian equation which an aggregated system satisfies when the conditions for "perfect aggregation" do not hold. Further, various Markovian approximations have been derived, and Luenberger's (1978) upper and lower aggregated models have been used.

In qualitative terms, the implications of these results for population modeling are as follows. (The quantitative implications are still an area for further research.) Firstly, if disaggregated data are not available or have not been collected, then the only aggregated transition matrix which can be constructed is the observed transition matrix which is equivalent to the matrix $\hat{\mathbf{G}}_0$ [see eqn. (28)]. Where the data required to construct the upper or lower aggregated systems are not available, attempts could be made to estimate the missing data. Use of the matrix $\hat{\mathbf{G}}_0$, the linear Markovian model [eqn. (2)], should produce qualitatively good results for the initial vectors $\hat{\mathbf{K}}(t)$ (e.g., $t = 1, 2, 3, 4$). However, for larger values of t there will be increasing sources of error and the magnitude of these errors will depend on how far the vector $\hat{\mathbf{K}}(0)$ is from the stable vector $\hat{\mathbf{u}}_1$. Since the vector $\mathbf{u}_1$ for the disaggregated model cannot be obtained in this case, it will be necessary to check how far $\hat{\mathbf{K}}(0)$ deviates from the stable vector of $\hat{\mathbf{G}}_0$. The qualitative differences between these two vectors probably give an idea of the size of the error caused by aggregation, but attempts to quantify the error are still needed. Rees (1980), in carrying out multiregional projections for the United Kingdom, found that the initial population vector was reasonably close to the stable distribution. However, Liaw (1980) found that for regional models of Canada the difference was much larger and hence that aggregation could lead to more serious errors.

Secondly, in the situation where the disaggregated data are available, the matrices $\hat{\mathbf{G}}_{as}$ and $\hat{\mathbf{G}}_{eq}$ can, in principle, be constructed. However, the calculation of these matrices involves knowing either the maximum eigenvalue or the corresponding eigenvector of $\mathbf{G}$. For large systems, this may be almost as difficult a calculation as the computation involved for the original disaggregated system [eqn. (1)]. However, the calculation of $\hat{\mathbf{G}}_u$ and $\hat{\mathbf{G}}_l$ would be relatively straightforward and hence these could be used to obtain upper and lower bounds for the population vector. How useful these bounds would be depends on the differences between the column sums of the $\mathbf{G}_{ij}$ submatrices. In the numerical example given in Section 7 the bounds were not very useful, but for larger systems a better result may be obtained, and this should be investigated.

In general, the linear, time-invariant Markovian models used in population projections are only an approximation, and the observed transition rates will be in

error if the system is sufficiently far from the stable distribution. However, this is not the only source of error facing the demographer, and in many cases it may not be the major source of error.

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Luis Castro came to IIASA from the Universidad Nacional Autonoma de Mexico to work on a comparative study of migration and settlement in the 17 nations associated with the Institute and on a case study of urbanization and development in Mexico. His current research is focused on age patterns of migration and their underlying cause-specific components.

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Jacques Ledent studied engineering at the Ecole Nationale des Ponts et Chaussées, Paris, France, and at Northwestern University, Illinois, USA. In recent years he has worked extensively on problems of multiregional demography, concentrating in particular on the construction of multistate life tables. He is also involved with the comparative migration and settlement study at IIASA.

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András Pór obtained his degree from the Mathematical Faculty of the Eötvos Lorand University in Budapest, Hungary, and in recent years has been working on the application of probability theory and methods of nonlinear optimization to problems of systems analysis. While at IIASA he has, among other things, been involved in the use of entropy maximization and multiproportional adjustment techniques to infer detailed migration flows from aggregate data.

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