Confidence Intervals for Population Forecasts: A Case Study of Time Series Models for States

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ABSTRACT

A number of studies have dealt with the use of time series models to develop confidence intervals for population forecasts. Most have focused solely on national-level models and only a few have considered the accuracy of the resulting forecasts. In this study, we take this research in a new direction by constructing time series models for several states in the United States and evaluating the resulting population forecasts. Using annual population estimates from 1900 to 2000, we develop a variety of forecasts and investigate the impact of differences in model specification, state, launch year, length of base period, and length of forecast horizon on the accuracy of point forecasts and the width of confidence intervals. We also evaluate the extent to which predicted confidence intervals encompass future population counts. We conclude with several observations regarding the potential usefulness of time series models for forecasting state populations.

INTRODUCTION

A number of studies have considered the use of time series models for developing confidence intervals to accompany population forecasts (e.g., Alho and Spencer 1997; De Beer 1993; Keilman, Pham, and Hetland 2002; Lee 1974, 1992, 1999; Lee and Tuljapurkar 1994; McNown and Rogers 1989; Pflaumer 1992). Some have developed models of total population growth, whereas others have developed models of the individual components of growth especially mortality and fertility—by age and sex. Studies of both types have typically focused on the sources of uncertainty in population forecasts, how to develop models that provide specific measures of that uncertainty, and how the resulting point forecasts and confidence intervals compare with those produced by other models. Most of these studies have dealt solely with national-level models and only a few have considered the accuracy of the resulting forecasts.

To our knowledge, only one study has developed and evaluated time series models for states. Voss, Palit, Kale, and Krebs (1981) developed and tested several ARIMA models for states and chose a single model for their detailed analyses. They used this model to construct population forecasts for the 48 coterminous states in the United States, using a number of launch years and forecast horizons. This study evaluated accuracy by comparing the resulting forecasts with census counts and census-based population estimates. It also compared the accuracy of the ARIMA forecasts with the accuracy of several other forecasting models and found them to be roughly the same. The authors briefly discussed the use of ARIMA models for constructing confidence intervals, but did not pursue that line of research.

In this study, we develop several time series models for states in the United States. Using these models and a series of annual population estimates from 1900 to 2000, we construct

population forecasts for four states chosen to reflect a variety of population size and growth rate characteristics. The forecasts are based on a number of different combinations of model, launch year, base period, and forecast horizon. We evaluate the forecasts by comparing them with census counts for the corresponding years. We attempt to answer the following questions:

1) What is the impact of differences in model specification, length of base period, and length of forecast horizon on forecast accuracy and the width of confidence intervals?

2) How consistent are the results from one state to another?

3) How consistent are the results from one launch year to another?

4) What proportion of future populations fall with the predicted confidence intervals?

Time series forecasting models are subject to errors in the base data, errors in specifying the model, errors in estimating the model's parameters, and structural changes that invalidate the model's statistical relationships (Lee 1992). Furthermore, many different models can be specified, each providing a different set of confidence intervals (e.g., Lee 1974; Cohen 1986; Sanderson 1995; Keilman, Pham, and Hetland 2002). To date, few studies have investigated the performance of time series models used for population forecasts—either in terms of forecast accuracy or the impact of differences in model specification, launch year, base period, and forecast horizon on point forecasts and confidence intervals—or have considered their use for subnational areas. We believe the present study provides some useful empirical evidence on these issues.

ARIMA MODELING

A number of different time series models can be used for forecasting purposes. In this study, we use univariate ARIMA models based on past population values and the dynamic and stochastic properties of error terms. Like other extrapolation methods, these models do not

require knowledge of the underlying structural relationships; rather, they are based on the assumption that past population values provide sufficient information for forecasting future values. The two main advantages of univariate ARIMA models are: 1) they require historical data only on the total population of the area being forecasted; and 2) their underlying mathematical and statistical properties provide a basis for developing probabilistic intervals to accompany point forecasts (Nelson 1973). The methods used for developing ARIMA models, however, are more complex and subjective in their application than are most extrapolation methods.

We developed several ARIMA models using the approach and techniques popularized by Box and Jenkins (1976). The most general ARIMA model is usually expressed as ARIMA (p,d,q), where p is the order of the autoregressive term, d is the degree of differencing, and q is the order of the moving average term.¹ Identification is the first (and most ambiguous) step in building ARIMA models (McCleary and Hay 1980). Model identification refers to the process for determining the values of p, d, and q, which typically range from 0 to 2. The d value must be determined first because a stationary time series (i.e., one in which the mean and variance are constant over time) is required to properly identify the values of p and q. When a time series is not stationary, it can generally be converted into a stationary series by taking first or second differences (Saboia 1974). Logarithmic, square root, and other transformations can also be used.

The main tools for model identification are the patterns and standard errors of the autocorrelation function (ACF) and partial autocorrelation function (PACF). A first-order autoregressive model ARIMA (1,0,0), for example, is characterized by an ACF that declines exponentially and quickly and a PACF that has a statistically significant spike only at the first lag. Other statistics and criteria such as the Dickey Fuller Test and the Akaike Information

Criterion can also be used to help identify an ARIMA model (Meyler, Kenny, and Quinn 1998). After the p, d, and q values have been determined, maximum likelihood procedures are used to estimate the model's parameters. The final step is model diagnosis. A statistically adequate ARIMA model will have random residuals, no significant values in the ACF and PACF, and the smallest possible values for p, d, and q. Because a good statistical fit does not guarantee an accurate or even a reasonable forecast, it may also be useful to perform an N-step ahead, out-ofsample evaluation of the accuracy and bias of the model (Granger 1989; Meyler, Kenny, and Quinn 1998).

We analyzed four ARIMA models that have been used to forecast population growth or the components of population change. As noted below, we fit each model for each state using 15 different combinations of base period and launch year. Our objective was not to find the "best" model for each combination, but rather to study the behavior of commonly used specifications that reflect different assumptions about future growth trajectories. In fact, an examination of the autocorrelation and partial autocorrelation plots and associated statistics revealed that no single ARIMA specification provided a reasonable fit across all 60 combinations of base period, launch year, and state. Moreover, given that some of our base periods contained as few as 10 observations, the identification process did not always clearly suggest a single ARIMA specification for each of the 60 combinations.²

Models 1 and 3 contain only first-order terms and suggest that future growth will follow a linear pattern. Model 1 contains a first-order autoregressive term with first differences and no moving average term; it is identified as ARIMA (1,1,0). Some analysts have found this model to outperform more complex time series formulations (e.g., Voss and Kale 1985; Voss, et al. 1981) and it is probably the most widely used ARIMA specification for constructing population

forecasts (e.g., Cohen 1986; Saboia 1974; Smith and Sincich 1992). Model 3 contains a firstorder moving average term with first differences and no autoregressive term; it is identified as ARIMA $(0,1,1)$. Models of this type have been used by Alho (1990) and De Beer (1993).³

Models 2 and 4 are nonlinear, containing at least one second-order term. In these models, population follows a different (most likely faster) growth trajectory than in Models 1 and 3. Model 2 contains a second-order autoregressive term with second differences and no moving average term; it is identified as ARIMA (2,2,0). Pflaumer (1992) has shown that Model 2 is equivalent to a parabolic, quadratic trend model. Model 4 contains a first-order moving average term with second differences and no autoregressive term; it is identified as ARIMA (0,2,1). Models of this type have been used by Cohen (1986) and Saboia (1974). Some analysts have suggested that second differences may be best for modeling human populations and have provided evidence that models containing higher order differences may outperform models using only first differences (e.g., McKnown and Rogers 1989; Saboia 1974).

DATA

 We wanted to test the four ARIMA models in states exhibiting a variety of size and growth characteristics. Using a set of state population estimates produced by the U.S. Census Bureau for each year between 1900 and 2000 (U.S. Census Bureau 1956, 1965, 1971, 1984, 1993, and 2002), we chose four states with widely varying size and growth rate characteristics: Florida, Maine, Ohio, and Wyoming. Using these states allows us to test the models under a variety of demographic scenarios; eventually, we plan to extend the analysis to several other states as well.

Wyoming is the smallest state in the nation, with a population of barely half a million in 2003 (U.S. Census Bureau 2003). As shown in Table 1, its growth rates have fluctuated

considerably from one decade to the next, including one decade with negative growth. Maine is also a small state (1.3 million in 2003), but it exhibited moderate and relatively stable growth rates throughout the twentieth century. Florida is the $4th$ largest state in the nation, with just over 17 million residents in 2003. Florida has grown rapidly but unevenly since 1900, with growth rates ranging between 27% and 78% per decade. Ohio is the $7th$ largest state, with a population of 11.4 million in 2003. Ohio has grown much less rapidly than Florida, but its growth rates have fluctuated considerably from one decade to the next.

(Table 1 about here)

These four states followed markedly different population growth patterns during the 20th century. Florida's population grew by 13.2 million between 1950 and 2000, compared to only 2.3 million between 1900 and 1950. Maine also added more residents during the second half of the century than the first half: 360,000 compared to 222,000. Growth in Wyoming was about the same in both time periods, as the state added 197,000 residents between 1900 and 1950 and 204,000 between 1950 and 2000. Ohio was the only state in our sample that added fewer residents in the second half of the century than the first half, growing by 3.8 million between 1900 and 1950 and by 3.4 million between 1950 and 2000.

ANALYSES

 We applied each of the four models to each state using three different launch years (1950, 1960, and 1970), base periods of five different lengths (10, 20, 30, 40, and 50 years), and forecast horizons of three different lengths (10, 20, and 30 years). This gave a total of 180 point forecasts and associated confidence intervals for each state. We compared each point forecast to the population count for the relevant target year. We refer to the resulting percentage differences as *forecast errors*, although they may have been caused partly by errors in the population counts

themselves. Following Lee and Tuljapurkar (1994), we express the size of the confidence interval as a half-width by dividing one-half of the difference between the upper and lower ends of the interval by the point forecast. We calculated half-widths for both 95% and 68% confidence intervals; in this paper, we report only the latter.

 Trying to analyze errors and half-widths for 720 forecasts is, of course, a difficult task. To simplify the analysis, we started by lumping together the forecasts from each of the four states and three launch years, and calculating the average error and average half-width of these 12 forecasts for each combination of model, length of base period, and length of forecast horizon. Then, we evaluated the results separately for each state and each launch year. Errors were measured in two ways. The mean absolute percent error (MAPE) is the average when the direction of error is ignored; it is a measure of precision. The mean algebraic percent error (MALPE) is the average when the direction of error is accounted for; it is a measure of bias.

Results Averaged Over All States and Launch Years

The results averaged over states and launch years are shown in Tables 2-4. Several patterns stand out. First, the results for Models 1 and 3 were very similar. For every combination of base period and forecast horizon, the MAPEs, MALPEs, and half-widths were almost the same for Model 3 as for Model 1. Both of these are linear models and it appears that the inclusion or omission of the first-order autoregressive term and the moving average term had little impact on the resulting forecasts.

(Tables 2-4 about here)

 Second, MAPEs and MALPEs for Models 2 and 4 were similar to each other, but the half-widths were not. For every combination of base period and forecast horizon, half-widths were much larger for Model 2 than Model 4. Apparently, differences in the specification of the

two nonlinear models had little impact on precision and bias but had a substantial impact on the measurement of uncertainty.

 Third, MAPEs and half-widths were generally smaller for Models 1 and 3 than for Models 2 and 4. This result was found for almost every combination of base period and forecast horizon. For MAPEs, differences between the two types of models were very large for 10-year base periods but became steadily smaller as the base period increased; at 50 years, differences were very small. For half-widths, differences between the two types of models were large for all base periods, especially for longer forecast horizons. Linear models thus produced more precise forecasts and narrower confidence intervals than nonlinear models.

Fourth, the impact of the length of the base period on forecast precision varied by model. For Models 1 and 3, MAPEs increased with increases in the base period, whereas for Models 2 and 4, MAPEs *declined* with increases in the base period. These results were found for all three forecast horizons. In this sample, then, 10 years of base data were sufficient to obtain maximum precision for the two linear models, but for the two nonlinear models precision increased continuously as more base data were added (although the increases became steadily smaller as the base period became longer).

Fifth, increasing the length of the base period reduced the size of the half-width for every model and every length of forecast horizon, indicating that additional base data reduced the uncertainty associated with population forecasts (or, at least, this measure of uncertainty). The reductions were particularly great for Models 2 and 4, especially for longer forecast horizons.

Sixth, Models 1 and 3 had a negative bias whereas Models 2 and 4 had a positive bias. This result was found for every combination of base period and forecast horizon. That is, linear models tended to produce forecasts that were too low and nonlinear models tended to produce

forecasts that were too high. Furthermore, the absolute value of the MALPEs became larger as the horizon increased—both when MALPEs were positive and when they were negative indicating that the magnitude of the bias increased with the length of the forecast horizon.

 Seventh, the impact of the length of the base period on MALPEs varied by model. For Models 1 and 3, increasing the base period exacerbated the downward bias of the forecasts. For Models 2 and 4, increasing the base period reduced the upward bias. As we note later in the paper, these results were not found for all states and launch years.

Finally, both MAPEs and half-widths increased steadily with the length of the forecast horizon. This result was found for every model and every base period. This is not surprising, of course: Longer horizons create greater uncertainty and larger errors because they provide more opportunities for growth to deviate from predicted trends. Similar results have been reported in many previous studies (e.g., Smith and Sincich 1992; Voss et al. 1981).

Results by State

 Several patterns are apparent when forecasts from the four states and three launch years are averaged together. Do the same patterns appear when the averages of the three launch years are calculated separately for each state? For the most part, yes (see Appendix A for details).

For every state and all combinations of forecast horizon and base period, MAPEs for Model 1 were very similar to those for Model 3. In most instances, they were smaller than the corresponding MAPEs for Models 2 and 4 (especially in Maine and Wyoming). MAPEs for Models 2 and 4 occasionally were similar to each other, but often differed considerably; sometimes the MAPE for Model 2 was larger, sometimes the MAPE for Model 4 was larger. In most instances, MAPEs increased monotonically with the length of the horizon.

For Models 1 and 3, increasing the length of the base period had little impact on MAPEs in Maine, Wyoming, and Ohio. In Florida, however, increasing the length of the base period consistently raised MAPEs for both models. For Models 2 and 4, increasing the length of the base period generally reduced MAPEs, especially for longer horizons. In many instances, the reductions were fairly large when the base period was raised from 10 to 20 to 30 years, but fairly small thereafter.

For every state, model, and forecast horizon, MALPEs for Models 1 and 3 were very similar to each other. For Models 2 and 4, however, MALPEs often differed considerably from each other. The direction of the bias varied by model and by state. In most instances, MALPEs for Models 1 and 3 had negative signs for Maine, Wyoming, and Florida and positive signs for Ohio. For Models 2 and 4, MALPEs generally had positive signs for Maine, Wyoming, and Ohio and negative signs for Florida.

Bias generally increased with the length of the forecast horizon. If MALPEs were positive for 10-year horizons, they generally became larger positive numbers as the horizon increased. If they were negative for 10-year horizons, they generally became larger negative numbers as the horizon increased. This occurred for almost all combinations of state, model, and base period. The only exception was when MALPEs for 10-year horizons were close to zero; in these instances, the impact of increases in length of horizon was inconsistent across states, models, and base periods.

The impact of the length of the base period on MALPEs varied by state and model. For Florida, increasing the base period increased the negative bias for Models 1, 2, and 3 (sometimes substantially), but had no consistent effect for Model 4. For Wyoming, it substantially reduced the upward bias for Models 2 and 4, but had little effect for Models 1 and 3. For Ohio, it

generally reduced the upward bias, but the effects were very small for some models and horizons. For Maine, it sometimes exacerbated the upward or downward biases, but generally had little impact. There does not appear to be any consistent relationship between bias and the length of the base period.

For all states, horizons, and base periods, half-widths for Models 1 and 3 were similar to each other, but the degree of similarity was not quite as high as it was for MAPEs. In most instances, half-widths for Models 1 and 3 were considerably smaller than half-widths for Models 2 and 4. Model 2 generally had the largest half-width of all four models. For all states, models, and base periods, half-widths increased with the length of the horizon; in many instances, the increases were quite large.

For most combinations of state, model, and horizon, increasing the base period reduced the half-width (often monotonically). The reductions were especially large for Models 2 and 4, and were generally greater for longer horizons than for shorter horizons. The only exception was Model 1 in Florida, where increasing the base period had very little effect on the half-width.

The impact of differences in base period, forecast horizon, and model on forecast errors and half-widths, then, was much the same for all states. What about the errors and half-widths themselves? How much did they vary from state to state?

For Models 1 and 3, Maine had substantially smaller MAPEs than any other state and Florida generally had the largest. For Models 2 and 4, however, no clear patterns were apparent: In some instances, MAPEs were largest in one state and in other instances they were largest in a different state. In terms of precision, then, linear models performed best in a state with slow, steady growth rates and worst in a state with a high, volatile growth rates, but nonlinear models

did not display any consistent effects of state-to-state differences in population size or growth rate.

MALPEs for Models 1 and 3 generally had negative signs in Florida, Maine, and Wyoming and positive signs in Ohio. This reflects the fact that the first three states had more growth in the second half of the century than the first half, whereas Ohio had more growth in the first half than the second half. MALPEs for Models 2 and 4 generally had positive signs for Maine, Ohio, and Wyoming and negative signs for Florida. In the first three states, the magnitude of the bias for Models 2 and 4 was greater than that for Models 1 and 3, whereas for Florida the opposite was true.

In all four states, half-widths for Models 1 and 3 were similar to each other and were generally much smaller than those observed for Models 2 and 4. For most combinations of model, base period, and forecast horizon, half-widths for Florida and Ohio were smaller (sometimes much smaller) than half-widths for Maine and Wyoming. In this sample, then, forecasts exhibited more uncertainty in small states than large states, even when the small state had a slow, steady growth rate (Maine) and the large state had high, volatile growth rate (Florida). In most combinations of model, base period, and forecast horizon, Wyoming—a small state with volatile growth rates—had the largest half-widths of any state.

Results by Launch Year

How similar are the results from one launch year to another? To answer this question, we calculated the average errors and half-widths of the state forecasts for each of the three launch years, by model, length of base period, and length of forecast horizon. The complete results can be found in Appendix B; we summarize them here.

In every launch year and for every combination of model, base period, and forecast horizon, MAPEs for Model 1 were very similar to those for Model 3. For the 1950 and 1960 launch years, MAPEs for Models 1 and 3 were almost always smaller than those for Models 2 and 4. For 1970, however, MAPEs for Models 2 and 4 were often smaller than those for Models 1 and 3, especially for longer base periods. In almost every instance, MAPEs increased with the forecast horizon in all three launch years. In all launch years, increasing the length of the base period had little effect on MAPEs for Models 1 and 3 but generally reduced MAPEs for Models 2 and 4.

For Models 1 and 3, MAPEs for 1950 and 1970 were similar to each other and were consistently larger than MAPEs for 1960. For Models 2 and 4, however, MAPEs were generally largest for 1950 and smallest for 1970. Differences among launch years were much larger for Models 2 and 4 than for Models 1 and 3. The linear models thus displayed greater consistency from one launch year to another than did the nonlinear models.

 MALPEs varied considerably from one launch year to another. For Models 1 and 3, MALPEs were negative for every combination of base period and forecast horizon for launch years 1950 and 1970, but were positive for a number of combinations for 1960. For Models 2 and 4, MALPEs were positive for most base-horizon combinations for 1950 and 1960, but were negative for a number of combinations for 1970. As has been noted before, bias appears to vary substantially (and unpredictably) from one launch year to another (e.g., Smith and Sincich 1992). Lengthening the base period did not have a consistent effect on the results, sometimes increasing MALPEs and other times reducing them. Lengthening the forecast horizon generally (but not always) exacerbated upward or downward biases.

 In all three launch years, half-widths were similar for Models 1 and 3 for most basehorizon combinations. In every combination, they were smaller (usually much smaller) than the corresponding half-widths for Models 2 and 4. There was no consistent relationship between the launch year and the size of the half-width: Sometimes they were largest for 1950, sometimes for 1960, and sometimes for 1970. For every combination of model, base period, and launch year, half-widths increased monotonically with the length of the forecast horizon. In most combinations of model, forecast horizon, and launch year, half-widths declined as the base period increased.

 In most instances, then, the results regarding the effects of differences in base period, forecast horizon, and model on forecast errors and half-widths were about the same for each individual launch year as they were when all launch years were lumped together. The values of errors and half-widths, however, often differed considerably from one launch year to another.

A Test of Confidence Intervals

One of the primary motivations of the present research was to evaluate the usefulness of confidence intervals as measures of uncertainty. Many different time series models can be constructed using different base periods, launch years, and sets of assumptions; each model implies a different set of confidence intervals for each forecast horizon. How well do the models analyzed in this paper perform in terms of predicting the uncertainty of future population growth?

One way to address this question to calculate the number of population counts falling within the 68% confidence intervals associated with each set of forecasts analyzed in this study (e.g., Cohen, 1986). Table 5 shows the calculations for each combination of model, base period, and forecast horizon for forecasts aggregated across all states and launch years. Each cell is

based on 12 forecasts (four states for each of three launch years). If the confidence intervals provide reliable measures of uncertainty, they will encompass approximately eight of the 12 outof-sample population counts.

(Table 5 about here)

 According to this criterion, the confidence intervals analyzed in this study generally did not provide reliable measures of uncertainty. The intervals associated with Models 1 and 3 were too narrow. In no set of forecasts did more than six of the 12 population counts fall within the predicted interval; in some sets, only two or three fell within the predicted interval. In this study, then, the two linear models consistently underestimated the uncertainty inherent in population forecasts. For these models, differences in the length of the forecast horizon did not have much effect on the number of counts falling within the predicted interval, but reducing the length of the base period generally led to a larger number falling within the interval.

 The confidence intervals associated with Model 2 were too wide. In every set of forecasts, 10, 11, or all 12 counts fell within the predicted interval. This model consistently overestimated the uncertainty inherent in population forecasts, especially for longer forecast horizons.

 Model 4 performed better than the other models. For 10-year horizons, between five and seven forecasts fell within the predicted interval; for 20-year horizons, either eight or nine; and for 30-year horizons, between eight and eleven. Since the number of counts falling within the interval generally increased with the forecast horizon for both Models 2 and 4, the results suggest that nonlinear models may produce confidence intervals that increase too rapidly as the forecast horizon becomes longer.

CONCLUSIONS

Virtually all the published research on the development and use of time series models to construct confidence intervals for population forecasts has focused on the national level, where population change is more stable and predictable than it is at the subnational level. This research, however, has not lead to a consensus regarding the best models to use for constructing confidence intervals and generally has not considered the reliability of the resulting confidence intervals as measures of uncertainty.

In this paper, we extended this research by developing time series models for states and evaluating the resulting forecasts. Using four models and data for several states, launch years, and base periods, we constructed 720 point forecasts and sets of confidence intervals. We evaluated these forecasts by comparing them to population counts for the corresponding target years. Although the evidence was not always clear-cut, a number of distinct patterns emerged from this analysis. Based on this evidence and the results of other studies, we have drawn the following tentative conclusions.

The two linear models produced forecasts that differed very little from each other, leading to MAPEs, MALPEs, and half-widths that were much the same for both models. Similar results have been reported previously for models developed for forecasting total population and mortality rates (Alho 1991; Voss, et al. 1981). It appears that first-order autoregressive and moving average terms do not have much impact on forecasts from linear time series models.

For the linear models, 10 years of base data were generally sufficient to achieve—or at least come close to—maximum forecast precision (i.e., the smallest MAPEs). This result was found for every state and launch year, even for 20- and 30-year forecast horizons. Similar results for simple extrapolation techniques have been reported before (Smith and Sincich 1990).

Although longer base periods may be desirable for other reasons, they do not appear to be necessary for improving the precision of forecasts based on linear time series models.

For the nonlinear models, 10 years of base data were *not* sufficient to achieve—or even come close to—maximum forecast precision. Rather, MAPEs declined as base periods increased, albeit generally at a diminishing rate. Typically, the declines were greater for longer horizons than shorter horizons. Although the linear models produced more precise forecasts than the nonlinear models when the base periods were relatively short, their superiority diminished as the base period increased.

Overall, the linear models had a negative bias and the nonlinear models had a positive bias. However, this result was not found for every state and launch year. Given this finding and the fact that bias has been found to vary considerably from one time period to another (e.g., Smith and Sincich 1988, 1992), we do not believe there is enough evidence to draw any general conclusions regarding the bias inherent in different types of time series models. We note that changes in the length of the base period had no consistent impact on bias, either for the linear or nonlinear models. This result has also been reported before (Smith and Sincich 1990).

Nonlinear models produced forecasts with half-widths that were much larger than those produced by linear models. This result was found for virtually all combinations of state, launch year, base period, and forecast horizon. Based on the results shown in Table 5, it appears that confidence intervals produced by linear models may often be too narrow and those produced by the nonlinear models may often be too wide. The results for the nonlinear models, however, were not as uniform as those for the linear models.

All of these conclusions must be viewed as tentative. Are the findings reported here general characteristics of time series models or are they specific to the present study? Would the

results be the same for other states or launch years? What other models might be developed? What other evaluation criteria might be applied? Further research is needed before we can answer these questions and draw firm conclusions.

Confidence intervals based on time series models vary by model specification, state, launch year, length of base period and length of forecast horizon. That is, they are conditional upon the choices made in developing a specific model for a specific forecast. Given the evidence presented in this paper and the lack of clear decision rules for choosing appropriate models and base periods, we are not convinced that—at this time—confidence intervals based on time series models can provide a realistic indication of the degree of uncertainty associated with state population forecasts. Furthermore, we doubt that it is appropriate to assess uncertainty based on the results of a single model. We believe a great deal more empirical work must be done before we can draw such conclusions. We hope the present study is a step in that direction.

END NOTES

1. ARIMA models based on time intervals of less than one year may also require seasonal components for p, d, and q.

2. A general guideline is that at least 50 observations are needed for identifying and estimating the parameters of ARIMA models (Box and Jenkins 1970; Meyler, Kenny, and Quinn 1998; Saboia 1974).

3. De Beer's model is an ARIMA (0,0,1) because the net migration time series for the Netherlands did not require differencing to make it stationary.

Table 1. Population Growth Rates by Decade, 1900-2000: Florida, Maine, Ohio, and Wyoming

Table 2. All States and Launch Years: Mean Absolute Percentage Error (MAPE), by Model, Length of Base Period, and Length of Forecast Horizon

Table 3. All States and Launch Years: Mean Algebraic Percentage Error (MALPE), by Model, Length of Base Period, and Length of Forecast Horizon

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Table 5. All States and Launch Years: Number of Population Counts Falling within 68% Confidence Interval, by Model, Length of Base Period, and

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Appendix A

MAPE, by Base Period, Horizon Length & Model, Wyoming

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Appendix B

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MALPE, by Base Period, Horizon Length & Model, All States, 1970

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Number of Population Counts Falling within 68% Confidence Interval, by Base Period, Horizon Length & Model, All States, 1970