Bayesian implementation of Rogers–Castro model migration schedules: An alternative technique for parameter estimation

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Abstract

BACKGROUND
The Rogers–Castro model migration schedule is a key model for migration trends over the life course. It is applied in a wide variety of settings by demographers to examine the relationship between age and migration intensity. This model is nonlinear and can have up to 13 parameters, which can make estimation difficult. Existing techniques for parameter estimation can lead to issues such as nonconvergence, sensitivity to initial values, or optimization algorithms that do not reach the global optimum.

OBJECTIVE
We propose a new method of estimating Rogers–Castro model migration schedule parameters that overcomes most common difficulties.

METHODS
We apply a Bayesian framework for fitting the Rogers–Castro model. We also provide the R package rcbayes with functions to easily apply our proposed methodology.

RESULTS
We illustrate how this model and the R package can be used in a variety of settings by applying the model to data from the American Community Survey.

CONTRIBUTION
We provide a novel and easy-to-use approach for estimating Rogers–Castro model parameters. Our approach is formalized in an R package that makes parameter estimation and Bayesian methods more accessible for demographers and other researchers.

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1. Introduction

One of the most important considerations for demographers dealing with migration patterns is the fundamental relationship between migration and age. This relationship parallels how migration is influenced by multiple transitions over the life course, such as starting or finishing education, new employment opportunities, or retirement (Preston, Heuveline, and Guillot 2000). These regularities in migration intensity over the life course, allowing demographers and policymakers to model migration by age. This fundamental relationship between migration and age is most notably described by Rogers and Castro, who were the first to introduce a mathematical model for migration in the form of a flexible multiexponential migration model (Rogers, Racquillet, and Castro 1978; Rogers and Castro 1981). Initial versions of the model included families of 7, 9, and 11 parameters, but the model was later extended to include the 13-parameter schedule (Rogers and Little 1994). Over the past 40 years, this model has become well-known among demographers as the Rogers–Castro model migration schedule or the multiexponential model schedule. Rogers and Castro argue in a variety of works that this model is well suited to describe migration age schedules that appear across regions of various sizes and across gender and ethnic subgroups (Rogers and Castro 1981).

The standard Rogers–Castro migration age schedule is shown in Figure 1. Migration intensities typically peak in early adulthood due to the relatively higher number of transitions involving education, employment, and partnership formation. Around retirement age, a smaller peak sometimes results from the transition out of the workforce as individuals form new living arrangements for retirement. Among the oldest age groups, migration intensities may gradually increase as individuals move into institutions or other homes that provide additional care and support. Finally, the migration intensity of children tends to mirror that of their parents. For example, migration intensity is high in the youngest ages as parents experience the high migration intensities of early adulthood.
Age–migration models are useful in practice because they smooth noisy data, estimate missing data, allow for prediction of future trends, and help model other demographic trends that rely on migration. In particular, the Rogers–Castro model migration schedule has successfully been applied to interregional migration in North America (Rogers and Little 1994; Raymer and Rogers 2007; Raymer and Rogers 2008); the United Kingdom (Bates and Bracken 1982); Japan, Korea, and Thailand (Kawabe et al. 1990); and South Africa (Hofmeyer 1988). The model has also been used to inform population projects in the case of Canada (George 1994). Some demographers argue for adjustments to the standard Rogers–Castro model to accommodate idiosyncratic features found in specific populations, such as a second retirement peak (Warnes 1992) or a student peak (Wilson 2010). However, the main components of the standard Rogers–Castro model are able to capture age-based migration trends in the majority of cases, and the model is used in many production settings, such as the World Population Prospects (United Nations 2019).

There are a number of ways to estimate and fit the Rogers–Castro migration schedule. One approach is to use hand calculations; with the appropriate formulas, one can estimate the model parameters with a simple calculator (Rogers, Castro, and Lea...
2005). Other approaches involve various software-based optimization procedures, such as Solver in Excel (Little and Dorrington 2013), Table Curve 2D (Rogers and Rayner 1999), nlminb in R (Ruiz-Santacruz 2021), the Gauss-Newton algorithm (Little and Dorrington 2013), and several others. In practice, the Rogers–Castro model can be hard to fit with standard optimization algorithms due to its nonlinearity and large number of parameters. Additionally, the results are highly sensitive to initial conditions, and there is never a guarantee that the global minimum has been reached.

In this paper we propose an alternative method of estimating Rogers–Castro model parameters in a Bayesian framework. Implementing the Rogers–Castro framework in a Bayesian model has been mentioned sparingly in the literature (Congdon 2008), although no current tools implement this methodology in an easy or simple manner. Our work is formalized in the R package rcbayes, which is available on CRAN (Yeung, Alexander, and Riffe 2021). This package allows users to obtain Bayesian estimates of Rogers–Castro parameters and is user-friendly for those less familiar with the specifics of running Bayesian models. We demonstrate in this paper how to use the rcbayes package and how this methodology mitigates issues present in other methods of estimation.

### 2. Rogers–Castro model migration schedule

The Rogers–Castro model migration schedule consists of four components to capture trends in the pre-working ages, working ages, retirement ages, and post-retirement ages. These four components are visualized in Figure 1. The model is flexible in that any of the four components can be included or excluded based on the data and situation. Assuming that all four components are included, the full mathematical specification for the migration rate at age $x$ is show in Equation (1).

$$
m(x) = a_1 \exp\{-\alpha_1 x\} + a_2 \exp\{-\alpha_2 (x-\mu_2) - \exp\{-\lambda_2 (x-\mu_2)\}\} + a_3 \exp\{-\alpha_3 (x-\mu_3) - \exp\{-\lambda_3 (x-\mu_3)\}\} + a_4 \exp\{\alpha_4 x\} + c$$

(1)

Each term represents one of the four components, whereas the final $c$ parameter is related to the baseline level of migration. The parameters within each term capture the intensity or shape of migration in each stage. In particular, the $\lambda_k$ parameters influence the steepness of the ascending side of the peaks and the $a_k$ parameters influence the steepness of the descending side. Together the $\alpha_k$ and $\lambda_k$ parameters capture the rate of change over age, thereby impacting the overall shape of that component. Finally, the
\( \mu_2 \) and \( \mu_3 \) parameters influence the age for the working age peak and the retirement peak, respectively.

This migration model has up to 13 parameters if all four components are included. In practice, four combinations of components are most commonly seen and used (Rogers, Little, and Raymer 2010):

- A seven-parameter model including pre-working and working age components
- A nine-parameter model including pre-working, working, and post-retirement age components
- An 11-parameter model including the pre-working, working, and retirement age components
- A 13-parameter model that includes all four components

Figure 2 shows the shapes of each of these commonly found migration schedules.

**Figure 2:** **Most common shapes of Rogers–Castro migration age schedules**
3. Previous approaches

Most approaches to estimate Rogers–Castro parameters involve optimization algorithms. One common approach is to use Solver in Excel. If data do not come in one-year age intervals (five-year migration intensities are common), this method involves first interpolating one-year migration intensities using a procedure such as cubic splines (Little and Dorrington 2013). Additionally, the user manually sets initial estimates as starting values, and results can be highly sensitive to these chosen values. Since there is always the risk that the output is not a global optimum, choosing starting values based on known parameters of a similar curve is recommended. However, results of a similar curve are not always available, particularly in unique cases. Nevertheless, convergence is still difficult to achieve in the 11-parameter and 13-parameter models. Thus it often takes experimentation and several attempts at fine-tuning to achieve acceptable results (Rogers, Castro, and Lea 2005).

Another approach is to use deterministic mathematical formulas that reduce parameter estimation to simple hand calculations. In particular, Rogers, Castro, and Lea provide three linear methods of estimating model parameters in this way and argue that these methods perform satisfactorily (Rogers, Castro, and Lea 2005). The main advantage of this method is that it overcomes issues of nonconvergence and instability that inevitably arise with nonlinear optimization procedures. However, as one can use several sets of formulas that all lead to different results, there is no obvious way of choosing a particular approach. Each approach will be biased in a different way, and choosing any approach requires an implicit bias–variance trade-off.

Additionally, it is possible for these two approaches to be combined. In the case of an augmented version of the Rogers–Castro model that includes a student peak, Wilson presents an approach to estimate parameters using steps that utilize both Excel Solver and formula-based calculations (Wilson 2010). Calculations are used for parameters that are easier to estimate in that way, and Excel Solver is used multiple times for a small number of parameters to avoid nonconvergence issues.

Finally, with the increase in popularity of statistical software such as R, Stata, SPSS, and SAS, it only makes sense for the aforementioned estimation approaches to be replicated using this software, particularly as the number of people who are proficient in Excel Solver or Table Curve 2D becomes more limited. Oftentimes maximum likelihood combined with an optimization algorithm can be used to estimate parameters. For example, migraR is an R package that focuses on estimation of Rogers–Castro model parameters using a gradient descent algorithm (Ruiz-Santacruz 2021). However, traditional linear optimizers may not behave as desired in high dimension, as they are subject to many of the aforementioned pitfalls, such as sensitivity to initial values and issues with reaching the global optimum.
4. Our model and recommended steps

We propose two ways to express the Rogers–Castro model migration schedule in a Bayesian framework. First of all, we offer a Poisson model with the number of (in- or out-) migrants modeled with a Poisson distribution, where population is used as an exposure. Fitting this model would require data on specified ages or age groups ($x_i$), the number of age-specific observed migrants ($y_i$), and age-specific exposures ($O_i$), such as population or sample sizes. Note that $i$ is the index for age groups where, for example, $i = 1$ represents the first age group. The model is as follows:

$$y_i \sim Poisson(m_i \times O_i)$$

$$m_i = a_1 \exp\{\alpha_1 x_i\}$$

$$+ a_2 \exp\{-\alpha_2 (x_i - \mu_2) - \exp[\lambda_2 (\mu_2)]\}$$

$$+ a_3 \exp\{-\alpha_3 (x_i - \mu_3) - \exp[\lambda_3 (\mu_3)]\}$$

$$+ a_4 \exp\{\alpha_4 x_i\}$$

$$+ c$$

$$\alpha_1 \sim N(0,1)$$

$$a_1 \sim N(0,0.1)$$

$$\alpha_2 \sim N(0,1)$$

$$a_2 \sim N(0,0.1)$$

$$\mu_2 \sim N(25,1)$$

$$\lambda_2 \sim N(0,1)$$

$$\alpha_3 \sim N(0,1)$$

$$a_3 \sim N(0,0.1)$$

$$\mu_3 \sim N(65,1)$$

$$\lambda_3 \sim N(0,1)$$

$$a_4 \sim N(0,0.05)$$

$$\lambda_4 \sim N(0,0.01)$$

$$c \sim N\left(\min_i \{y_i/O_i\},0.1\right)$$

Note that in this notation, $m_i$ represents the true age-specific migration rate to be estimated in the model.
Second, we propose a normal model where the migration rate is modeled with a normal distribution. Fitting this model requires data on specified ages or age groups \( x_i \) and age-specific observed migration rates \( r_i \). Additionally, the standard deviation in the likelihood \( \sigma \) can be specified as well. If it is not specified, \( \sigma \) will be estimated in the model. The model is as follows:

\[
\begin{align*}
    r_i & \sim N(m_i, \sigma^2) \\
    m_i &= a_1 \exp\{\alpha_1 x_i\} \\
         &+ a_2 \exp\{-\alpha_2(x_i - \mu_2) - \exp[-\lambda_2(x_i - \mu_2)]\} \\
         &+ a_3 \exp\{-\alpha_3(x_i - \mu_3) - \exp[-\lambda_3(x_i - \mu_3)]\} \\
         &+ a_4 \exp\{\alpha_4 x_i\} \\
         &+ c
\end{align*}
\]

\( \alpha_1 \sim N(0,1) \)
\( a_1 \sim N(0,0.1) \)
\( \alpha_2 \sim N(0,1) \)
\( a_2 \sim N(0,0.1) \)
\( \mu_2 \sim N(25,1) \)
\( \lambda_2 \sim N(0,1) \)
\( \alpha_3 \sim N(0,1) \)
\( a_3 \sim N(0,0.1) \)
\( \mu_3 \sim N(65,1) \)
\( \lambda_3 \sim N(0,1) \)
\( a_4 \sim N(0,0.05) \)
\( \lambda_4 \sim N(0,0.01) \)
\( c \sim N\left(\min_i{r_i},0.1\right) \)

Within the \textit{rcbayes} package, the \textit{mig_estimate_rc} function estimates the parameters of this model using a Markov Chain Monte Carlo (MCMC) algorithm via the Stan programming language (Carpenter et al. 2017). The Bayesian methods used here set priors for each parameter, which helps with convergence during the estimation process.

The following is a guide of recommended steps for using the \textit{rcbayes} package to fit the Rogers–Castro model. The purpose of these steps is to provide users with a general
understanding of the recommended workflow. More details on how to use the package functions are provided in package vignettes.

4.1 Step 1: Exploratory data analysis

As usual, the recommendation is to begin analysis by examining numerical and graphical summaries of data, as demonstrated in Figure 3. In this situation, the exploratory data analysis serves the additional role of helping researchers decide which components of the Rogers–Castro model to include: pre-working age, working age, retirement age, and post-retirement age patterns. When fitting the model, we recommend including only components seen in the data to avoid overfitting or incurring convergence issues.

Figure 3: Exploratory visualization for migration rates over the life course

Note: Based on this exploratory analysis, it would be reasonable to fit an 11-parameter model that includes pre-working, working, and retirement components only.

To help with this decision, we offer an interactive Shiny app in rcbayes, as shown in Figure 4. This app gives an easy way to visualize the multiexponential curve in the presence or absence of any of the four components. (Note: After loading the package into R, run rcbayes::interact_rc() to activate the Shiny app.)

https://www.demographic-research.org
4.2 Step 2: Estimate the model

The next step is to fit the model using the `mig_estimate_rc` function. The choice between fitting the Poisson model or the normal model will sometimes be guided by the available data. The Poisson model requires (1) a vector of ages, ideally of the age group midpoints if they span multiple years, (2) a vector of age-specific in-migrant or out-migrant counts, and (3) a vector of age-specific population sizes. The normal model requires (1) a vector of ages and (2) a vector of age-specific migration rates. For the normal model, the user can also specify a value for (3) the standard deviation $\sigma$ across the age-specific migration rates. If this is not specified, the standard deviation will be estimated along with other model parameters. (See example 1, below, for more information on specifying the standard deviation in the normal model.)

If only rate data are available (as opposed to counts and population sizes), the normal model is the only option. If migration counts and population counts are available, both the normal and Poisson models can be fit. The Poisson model will likely be more accurate in its assumption about the underlying random process that generated the data, but the normal model will sometimes be easier to fit without convergence issues.
The `mig_estimate_rc` function will fit either the Poisson model or the normal model, depending on the arguments provided. In addition, the four model components to include should be specified explicitly. Any additional parameters are optional arguments for Stan. The following sample code demonstrates how to use the function.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Code for fitting the Rogers–Castro model</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>#fit the Poisson model by using ages, migrants, and pop</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>res &lt;- mig_estimate_rc(ages = age_data, migrants = mig_data, pop = pop_data,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pre_working_age = TRUE,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>working_age = TRUE,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>retirement = TRUE,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>post_retirement = FALSE,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>#optional inputs into stan</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>control = list(adapt_delta = 0.95, max_treedepth = 10)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>#fit the normal model by using ages and mx (migration rates)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>res &lt;- mig_estimate_rc(ages = age_data, mx = mx_data,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sigma = 0.002, #optional</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pre_working_age = TRUE,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>working_age = TRUE,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>retirement = TRUE,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>post_retirement = FALSE,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>#optional inputs into stan</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>control = list(adapt_delta = 0.95, max_treedepth = 10)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.3 Step 3: Examine convergence

After running a model with MCMC, it is important to check the convergence of the model. The `check_converge` object in the function output provides model diagnostics. For further guidance on how to verify convergence, the `rcbayes` package includes a “Rogers–Castro Migration Models with `rcbayes`” vignette, which explains this step in more detail. In the presence of nonconvergence, the vignette “Achieving Model Convergence with `mig_estimate_rc`” explains how this can be resolved. In our experience, the majority of convergence issues can be resolved by setting initial values using the `init_vals` function – especially in the full 13-parameter model.
4.4 Step 4: Examine results

The next step is to examine and interpret the fitted model. As previously mentioned, the `check_converge` object in the function output provides model diagnostics. Two additional objects in the output of `mig_estimate_rc` provide results. The `pars_df` object shows the median estimate and the lower and upper bounds of a 95% credible interval for the Rogers–Castro parameters. The `fit_df` object shows the data and estimated median migration rates at each age, the lower and upper bounds of the 95% credible interval of the fits, and the squared difference between data and the median estimate. A plot of the results can be generated as follows:

```
Code for plotting model results with ggplot
rc_res[["fit_df"]]
  %>%
ggplot(aes(ages, data)) +
  geom_point(aes(color = "data")) +
  geom_line(aes(x = age, y = median, color = "fit")) +
  geom_ribbon(aes(ymin = lower, ymax = upper), alpha = 0.2) +
  ylab("Migration rate") +
  xlab("Ages") +
  scale_colour_manual(name = "",
                      values = c(data = "red", fit = "black"),
                      guide = guide_legend(override.aes = list(
                       linetype = c("blank", "solid"),
                       shape = c(16, NA))))
```

This yields a plot similar to the one shown in Figure 5.
4.5 Step 5: Sensitivity analysis of priors

The final step in the workflow could involve a sensitivity analysis of the prior specification of the model (Depaoli, Winter, and Visser 2020). An important consideration in Bayesian models is that prior specification in a model can impact the posterior estimates of the parameters of interest. Conducting a sensitivity analysis enables researchers to distinguish the effect of choice of priors from the role of data in the resulting estimates. This analysis is conducted by fitting the data on similar models where alternative priors are used, including both informative and noninformative priors. We emphasize that sensitivity analysis results are intended for interpretation purposes and should not alter the final model results. Including these results alongside the original model estimates enhances the discussion and facilitates a better comprehension of the final estimates.

In a sensitivity analysis, the model needs to be altered in ways specific to the particular analysis. When developing the rcbayes package and in particular the mig_estimate_rc function, we chose to implement “weakly informative priors” on all parameters, which are outlined in the previous section. These priors ensure that parameter
estimates are within a plausible range of values across a wide range of estimation contexts and also help with model convergence. In the current version on CRAN, the rcbayes package does not allow the user to specify priors. However, to aid in the process of sensitivity analysis, a supplementary file provided with R code allows changes to the model priors. This code is very similar to the mig_estimate_rc function and is intended as a gentle guide for those less familiar with fitting Bayesian models in Stan using R.

5. Sensitivity analysis

We present a sensitivity analysis of both the Poisson and normal models by fitting the model on data simulated from a known 11-parameter Rogers–Castro curve. We compare the results from (1) the original model offered in the rcbayes package, (2) a model with less informative priors, and (3) a model with more informative priors. Details of this model are provided in Table 1. The prior variances within the less informative model were increased by two orders of magnitude compared to the original model, while the prior variances in the more informative model were decreased by one order of magnitude. These models are also fit on several different total population sizes, ranging from 10,000 to 10,000,000 across all age groups. The results of the sensitivity analysis are shown in Figure 6.

---

4 The third model with more informative priors is unrealistically informative, as priors were selected with the known Rogers–Castro curve parameters in mind. This is done to demonstrate that the results if the priors reflected extraordinarily accurate prior information on the parameter values.
### Table 1: Priors used in sensitivity analysis

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Original priors</th>
<th>Less informative priors</th>
<th>More informative priors</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>( \alpha_1 \sim N(0, 1) )</td>
<td>( \alpha_1 \sim N(0, 100) )</td>
<td>( \alpha_1 \sim N(0.1, 0.1) )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( \alpha_1 \sim N(0, 0.1) )</td>
<td>( \alpha_1 \sim N(0, 10) )</td>
<td>( \alpha_1 \sim N(0.1, 0.01) )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( \alpha_2 \sim N(0, 1) )</td>
<td>( \alpha_2 \sim N(0, 100) )</td>
<td>( \alpha_2 \sim N(0.1, 0.1) )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( \alpha_2 \sim N(0, 0.1) )</td>
<td>( \alpha_2 \sim N(0, 10) )</td>
<td>( \alpha_2 \sim N(0.1, 0.01) )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( \mu_2 \sim N(25, 1) )</td>
<td>( \mu_2 \sim N(1, 100) )</td>
<td>( \mu_2 \sim N(21, 0.1) )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( \lambda_2 \sim N(0, 1) )</td>
<td>( \lambda_2 \sim N(0, 100) )</td>
<td>( \lambda_2 \sim N(0.5, 0.1) )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( \alpha_3 \sim N(0, 1) )</td>
<td>( \alpha_3 \sim N(0, 100) )</td>
<td>( \alpha_3 \sim N(0.1, 0.1) )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( \alpha_3 \sim N(0, 0.1) )</td>
<td>( \alpha_3 \sim N(0, 10) )</td>
<td>( \alpha_3 \sim N(0.1, 0.01) )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( \mu_3 \sim N(65, 1) )</td>
<td>( \mu_3 \sim N(1, 100) )</td>
<td>( \mu_3 \sim N(67, 0.1) )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( \lambda_3 \sim N(0, 1) )</td>
<td>( \lambda_3 \sim N(0, 100) )</td>
<td>( \lambda_3 \sim N(0.5, 0.1) )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( c \sim N\left(\min{r_i}, 0.1\right) )</td>
<td>( c \sim N(0, 10) )</td>
<td>( c \sim N\left(\min{r_i}, 0.01\right) )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( \sigma \sim N^+(0, 1) )</td>
<td>( \sigma \sim N^+(0, 100) )</td>
<td>( \sigma \sim N^+(0.1) )</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note: Prior on \( \sigma \) applies only to normal models.*

Across the eight combinations of model type and population size, we see very minor differences in the fitted model across the original model priors, less informative priors, and more informative priors. This implies that the prior specifications had a minimal effect on the resulting estimates, an effect that is further minimized when the population size is larger. This outcome highlights the model’s robustness across various sets of priors and suggests that the choice of priors has minimal influence on the overall results in the presence of a complete dataset of migration rates over age.

Further, for the normal model, we test the sensitivity of the model to the choice of prior distribution on \( \sigma \). Instead of a normal prior on \( \sigma \), we fit several models where the prior on \( \sigma \) is the conjugate prior of an inverse gamma while otherwise keeping the rest of the model unchanged. Specifically, we use \( \sigma \sim \text{Inv-Gamma}(\alpha = 1, \beta = 1) \), \( \sigma \sim \text{Inv-Gamma}(3,1) \), and \( \sigma \sim \text{Inv-Gamma}(3.05) \). Similar to the above, we fit these models on several different total population sizes, ranging from 10,000 to 10,000,000 across all age groups. The results of these alternative options and the results of the original Normal model are shown in Figure 7.
Figure 6: Results of sensitivity analysis when changing variance magnitudes
There are very minimal differences across the different inverse gamma priors that were used. The original model, which has a prior on sigma of $\sigma \sim N^+(0, 1)$, has minor differences compared to the alternative models in how the model fits through the troughs of the data, especially for smaller population sizes. However, the sensitivity of the model to the choice of prior on $\sigma$ appears limited, and we again see that the choice of prior distribution has minimal influence on the overall results.

6. Illustrations and examples

In this section, we work through two examples where we fit our Bayesian Rogers–Castro models on migration data obtained from the 2019 American Community Survey (ACS) through IPUMS USA (IPUMS 2021). The 2019 ACS data provide responses from the American population using a complex sampling design, resulting in a sampling fraction of around 0.6% (United States Census Bureau 2021). For each respondent, we have the age, state of residence, and state of residence one year prior to the survey. This provides enough information to fit the model for domestic out-migration using either the Poisson
or normal model for each state. We aggregate the microdata to obtain this information while accounting for the weights from the complex sampling design.

6.1 Example 1: Domestic out-migration from California, comparing Poisson and normal models

Figure 8a shows the age-specific migration rates for domestic out-migration from the state of California in 2019 for all ages from 1 to 85. From this visualization, it appears appropriate to fit an 11-parameter model that includes the pre-working age, working age, and retirement components only. Figures 8b and 8c show the model results from the Poisson model and normal model, respectively, and Table 2 shows the parameter estimates from both models.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Parameter</th>
<th>Poisson Model</th>
<th>Normal Model</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mean (SD)</td>
<td>Mean (SD)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\alpha_1$ (alpha1)</td>
<td>0.209 (8.8 × 10⁻⁴)</td>
<td>0.222 (8.2 × 10⁻⁴)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\alpha_2$ (alpha2)</td>
<td>0.092 (1.4e × 10⁻⁴)</td>
<td>0.101 (1.3 × 10⁻⁴)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\alpha_3$ (alpha3)</td>
<td>0.357 (3.3 × 10⁻³)</td>
<td>0.514 (5.5 × 10⁻³)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$a_1$</td>
<td>0.017 (4.1 × 10⁻⁵)</td>
<td>0.016 (3.9 × 10⁻⁵)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$a_2$</td>
<td>0.051 (3.4 × 10⁻⁵)</td>
<td>0.051 (2.5 × 10⁻⁵)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$a_3$</td>
<td>0.013 (4.7 × 10⁻⁵)</td>
<td>0.012 (8.3 × 10⁻⁵)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\mu_2$</td>
<td>17.339 (1.1 × 10⁻³)</td>
<td>17.283 (9.2 × 10⁻⁴)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\mu_3$</td>
<td>64.815 (1.7 × 10⁻²)</td>
<td>64.818 (2.2 × 10⁻²)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\lambda_2$</td>
<td>3.791 (7.4 × 10⁻³)</td>
<td>4.447 (7.4 × 10⁻³)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\lambda_3$</td>
<td>0.297 (4.2 × 10⁻³)</td>
<td>0.518 (8.2 × 10⁻³)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$c$</td>
<td>0.009 (1.5 × 10⁻⁵)</td>
<td>0.009 (1.1 × 10⁻⁵)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

When fitting the normal model, we specified the standard deviation in the likelihood (σ) to be the standard deviation implied by the Poisson model. In the Poisson specification, the observed number of migrants is assumed to be Poisson-distributed with a rate equal to the underlying migration rate multiplied by the size of the population at risk: $y_i \sim \text{Poisson}(m_i \times O_i)$, where $y_i$ is the observed number of migrants, $m_i$ is the true age-specific rate, and $O_i$ is the age-specific sample size. The normal approximation
to the Poisson is \( y_i \sim N(m_i \times O_i, m_i \times O_i) \) or equivalently \( r_i \sim N \left( m_i \frac{m_i}{O_i} \right) \), since \( r_i \) is the observed migration rate and \( r_i = y_i / O_i \). Thus a good choice for \( \sigma \) would be the mean of \( \sqrt{r_i/O_i} \) across all age groups \( i \), which is how we calculated the \( \sigma \) in this example. Of course, this technique requires information on the age-specific population or sample sizes, which may not be convenient if one only has data on observed age-specific migration rates. If age-specific population sizes or sample sizes are not available, this formula for \( \sigma \) won’t be useful as a direct formula but may still be helpful in determining appropriate values for \( \sigma \).

From Figures 8b and 8c, we see that the model does not work well for ages 18–19. The relatively large amount of migration at these ages can be referred to as the student peak due to high levels of university transitions (Hind 2023; Wilson 2010). When the student peak is present, the Rogers–Castro specification will not be properly specified for those ages. Unless an extension is made to the model to specifically account for student peaks, this is a general limitation of the Rogers–Castro model specification, regardless of the method used to fit the model.

**Figure 8:** Out-migration from California based on American Community Survey, 2019

(a) Raw data for out-migration from California, 2019
Figure 8:  (Continued)

(b) Model result from Poisson model for out-migration from California, 2019

Note: Gray bounds show the 95% credible interval.

(c) Model result from normal model for out-migration from California, 2019

Note: Gray bounds show the 95% credible interval.
6.2 Example 2: Sensitivity analysis of Poisson model for domestic out-migration from California

For illustrative purposes, example 1 showcased both the Poisson and normal models. In example 2, we further expand and refine the Poisson model from example 1 through a sensitivity analysis. Initially, the model employed default priors from the \textit{mig\_estimate\_rc} function in the \textit{rcbayes} package, with the corresponding results already presented. To explore other scenarios, alternative priors were selected. We fitted the model using two sets of alternative priors, as outlined in Table 3, with one set comprising less informative priors and another set comprising more informative priors. For the less informative priors, we increased the variability in prior distributions significantly, indicating the limited information available on potential parameter values. Additionally, no prior information was provided regarding the ages at which the working age and retirement peaks (the $\mu$ parameters) tend to occur. Conversely, the more informative priors were based on peaks identified in exploratory data analysis (Figure 8a). As well, prior knowledge obtained from other fitted Rogers–Castro migration schedules informed the means of the priors.

| Table 3: Priors used in sensitivity analysis for out-migration from California, 2019 |
|---------------------------------|-----------------|-----------------|
| **Original priors** | **Less informative priors** | **More informative priors** |
| $\alpha_1 \sim N(0,1)$ | $\alpha_1 \sim N(0,100)$ | $\alpha_1 \sim N(0.1,0.1)$ |
| $\alpha_1 \sim N(0,0.1)$ | $\alpha_1 \sim N(0,10)$ | $\alpha_1 \sim N(0.1,0.01)$ |
| $\alpha_2 \sim N(0,1)$ | $\alpha_2 \sim N(0,100)$ | $\alpha_2 \sim N(0.1,0.1)$ |
| $\alpha_2 \sim N(0,0.1)$ | $\alpha_2 \sim N(0,10)$ | $\alpha_2 \sim N(0.1,0.01)$ |
| $\mu_2 \sim N(25,1)$ | $\mu_2 \sim N(1,100)$ | $\mu_2 \sim N(19,0.1)$ |
| $\lambda_2 \sim N(0,1)$ | $\lambda_2 \sim N(0,100)$ | $\lambda_2 \sim N(4,0.1)$ |
| $\alpha_3 \sim N(0,1)$ | $\alpha_3 \sim N(0,100)$ | $\alpha_3 \sim N(0.1,0.1)$ |
| $\alpha_3 \sim N(0,0.1)$ | $\alpha_3 \sim N(0,10)$ | $\alpha_3 \sim N(0.1,0.01)$ |
| $\mu_3 \sim N(65,1)$ | $\mu_3 \sim N(1,100)$ | $\mu_3 \sim N(66,0.1)$ |
| $\lambda_3 \sim N(0,1)$ | $\lambda_3 \sim N(0,100)$ | $\lambda_3 \sim N(0.1,0.1)$ |
| $c \sim N\left(\min\{\tau_i\},0.1\right)$ | $c \sim N(0,10)$ | $c \sim N\left(\min\{\tau_i\},0.01\right)$ |

Figure 9 presents the results obtained from the original model as well as the alternative models. The plot reveals striking similarity between the estimates derived
from the original and alternative models. This observation suggests that the prior specifications exerted minimal influence on the final estimates. Despite the utilization of less informative and more informative priors in the sensitivity analysis, the resulting estimates remain nearly indistinguishable.

**Figure 9: Comparison of model results based on different priors**

![Graph showing migration rates for different priors across ages.](image)

### 6.3 Example 3: Domestic out-migration from Texas using data based on five-year age groups

In this example, we demonstrate that we can use this model even when age-specific data come in the form of five-year age groups. To do this, we collapse Texas out-migration data into the groups 0–4, 5–9, ..., 80–84. Figure 10a shows the migration rates for each age group, which suggests that we should fit the seven-parameter model with pre-working age and working age components. Again, we fit the Poisson model by inputting a vector of five-year age group midpoints, a vector of migrants for each five-year age group, and a vector of sample sizes for each five-year age group. Figure 10b shows the model results.
Figure 10: Out-migration from Texas based on American Community Survey, 2019

(a) Raw data for out-migration from Texas, 2019

(b) Model result from Poisson model for out-migration from Texas, 2019

Note: Error bars show the 95% credible interval.
7. Conclusions

This paper proposes two models for fitting the Rogers–Castro migration schedule within a Bayesian framework. We propose one model that accepts migration data as age-specific counts and population sizes, and another that accepts migration data as age-specific rates. Functions for fitting these models are available through the R package `rcbayes`, with the goal of improving accessibility of this methodology to demographers.

The benefits of using these models to fit Rogers–Castro migration schedules are fourfold. First, this method can help researchers identify and avoid some of the issues with existing approaches. Challenges of existing approaches include optimizers that may stop at local optima, requiring good guesses as initial conditions to achieve convergence, and algorithms being very sensitive to those initial conditions. Throughout this paper and the R package, we provide tools to conduct a sensitivity analysis to determine the model’s robustness to selected prior specifications. Additionally, although convergence is not a guaranteed with our model, we find that convergence issues with the models are almost exclusively with the Poisson model. Even then, using this Bayesian model with additional package utilities (such as `init_rc`) helps alleviate this issue. In extreme cases where convergence issues with the Poisson model persist, this may be helped by thinking about either likelihoods that allow for overdispersion or moving away from the Rogers–Castro specification. Second, using Bayesian approaches to fit demographic models such as this is particularly useful in contexts of data sparsity. Third, our proposed technique is implemented in R, which is free, extensible, and widely used in contemporary demographic research. Fourth, the model implementation is provided through the `rcbayes` package, is available on CRAN, and is maintained in an open GitHub repository, which further promotes accessibility and reproducibility. Further avenues for work on these models can include augmented versions of the Rogers–Castro migration schedule (Wilson 2010) or a hierarchical version of the models, which would lend itself well to fitting schedules for several geographic regions or population subgroups.
References


