

A TIME SERIES ANALYSIS OF DATA ON REGISTERED MARRIAGES IN THE PHILIPPINES

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Abstract

Using the monthly vital statistics data relating to marriages for the period January 1962 – December 1975, decomposition analysis is carried out to isolate and quantify the trend-cycle and seasonal components latent in them. A time-trend model has been estimated to characterize the trend-cycle behavior. Using these results, ex-post forecasts of marriage registrations are made for the years 1976-78 and their accuracy measured against the actual figures. While the above analysis provides reasonably accurate short-term forecasts, it also throws evidence of further improvements in modelling and forecasting through more sophisticated seasonal adjustment procedures such as ARIMA and spectral analyses.

The paper also presents estimates of the proportion of registered marriages to the actual number of marriages derived from the population census data for the period 1960-1980.

1. Introduction

Civil Registration is the process of recording, in appropriate registers, events that affect the civil status of individuals in a country.

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There are various events which are registrable in the Philippines. Out of these, the most common ones are births, deaths and marriages, often referred to as vital events. Recording of these events is known as vital registration. Drawn from these records are the country's vital statistics.

The history of civil registration in the Philippines, its organizational structure, various laws relating to it, its uses and the instruments of registration, etc. are given in detail in the *Manual on Civil Registration* of 1983.

This paper is concerned with the analysis of data from registered documents on marriages. These documents have legal, administrative and statistical values. At the macro level of regional and national planning, marriage data are useful for developing suitable family benefit schemes connected with health, housing, social security and welfare. They provide the essential material for extensive demographic research since marriages bear an intimate relation with the birth rate and population change.

The vital statistics derived from marriage registration, collected as a result of administrative exigencies, have certain advantages over those obtained through either censuses or sample survey methods. For instance, they are generally free from certain kinds of response errors; and they can be obtained over continuous time periods. There is one disadvantage, however, in using the data from vital registration. They are not complete in the sense that there is always some percentage of the event that is not registered.

Some efforts have been directed to find the levels of registration of births and deaths. These are reported, for instance, by Mijares (1974) and in the Seminar Proceedings (1975) of the National Census and Statistics Office (NCSO). However, no attempt seems to have been made to ascertain the level of registration with respect to marriages.

A method of assessing the level of marriage registration is presented here. This is accomplished by comparing the number of marriages registered with the number of married couples derived from the 1960-80 records of the population censuses. The relevant data from two successive censuses are used to obtain the number of marriages that have taken place during the intercensal periods. Also, the

number of male and female deaths that occurred in each period is estimated for different age groups (10 years old and over) and marital status of the population using the age-specific survival ratio

$${}_nS_x = {}_nL_x + n / {}_nL_x$$

(The L values have been taken from the Philippines Life Tables A1-A6 of Flieger, *et al.* (1981)). Care has been taken to account for the number of deaths that occurred among the registered brides and grooms during the same periods. The number of marriages as derived from the above estimates are shown in Column 2 of Table 1.

Table 1: Number of registrations per 100 marriages

<i>Period</i>	<i>Number of Derived Marriages</i>	<i>Number of Registered Marriages</i>	<i>Number Regis- tered per 100 Marriages</i>
1960-70	2,392,725	1,854,661	78
1970-75	1,445,201	1,319,501	91
1975-80	2,441,768	1,650,759	68
1970-80	3,852,545	2,970,260	78
1960-80	6,086,523	4,824,921	79

Table 1 shows some interesting features. Although the level of registration in the two decades 1960-70 and 1970-80 has remained more or less the same, it shows considerable fluctuation within the period 1970-80 rising to as high as 91 in the first half and dropping to 68 in the second half. Overall, the level of registration has remained around 79 per 100 marriages in the 20-year period 1960-80.

The following may be some of the possible reasons for the phenomenon noted in Table 1:

- (1) an increasing trend of living together as man and wife in recent years; while such couples would have been counted as married under the census (according to its definition of being "married") they may not be willing to be registered as being legally married;
- (2) the census enumeration may not be free from error; and
- (3) a general apathy over time on the part of those responsible for ensuring registration of marriages.

In addition to the above, under-registration may also be influenced by remoteness of areas such as Mountain Provinces and non-acceptance of the registration by muslim and other minority groups of the population.

While considerable efforts continue to be expended in the collection and tabulation of data on the three major events of vital registration; namely, marriages, births and deaths, not much work appears to have been done in terms of their analyses. The present paper takes up this seemingly neglected area and reports on the analysis of data on marriages.

The major factors influencing the data series on marriage in the Philippines are season and trend-cycle. The season is influential because of factors such as customs, traditions, beliefs and weather. For example, one of the beliefs of Filipinos is that marriage contracted during the first month of the year are happy unions. This should therefore contribute to sharp increases in the number of marriages in January consistently over years. The next choice for marriages is the traditional month of June. This month has been set perhaps due to climatic factors since, in the Philippines, the rainy season commences in July and tapers off towards December. The same factor may also partly contribute to marriages in January. Further, as Richards (1983) has noted, if in a given year, there are more legal marriages than in a normal year, then legal births are also expected to be higher than usual about a year or so later. On an aggregate, the effect of marriages on births is captured by an average schedule of fertility by duration of marriage. In turn, it affects births and deaths. Assuming a *status quo* in health services and medical facilities, the more number of births in a given year, the larger would

be the number of deaths in the following year since infant mortality forms a large proportion of total deaths particularly in middle income countries.

High prices also influence nuptiality. The immediate effect of high prices may be to reduce marriages because individuals tend to postpone their marriages in hard times. Eventually, nuptiality may rise again as postponed marriages take place. Again temperature influences both fertility and nuptiality. All these factors bring about a trend over the years and seasonality within years.

Time series analysis and modelling is thus appropriate for such periodic data which are available for a number of years. It enables us: (i) to determine in quantitative terms, the trend of registration of marriages, and (ii) to measure the seasonality present in this event which is not possible with the data from population census and other cross-section surveys. Yet, another purpose of such a modelling is to obtain short-term projections of marriages registered for a few years ahead. Under certain reasonable assumptions, these may be considered to provide lower bounds for anticipated registrations in the projected years. Upon relevant comparisons with analyses of other data such as those from population censuses, they may also indicate gaps in the level of registration and suggest the extent to which the existing administrative and organizational functions of the vital registration system should be geared.

The next section presents the method of analysis and the results.

2. Analysis and Results

The monthly series on registered marriages compiled by the NCSO for the years 1958-78, presented in Appendix 1, is subjected to analysis. A close examination of the data shows that in comparison to those of the years 1962-78, the data relating to the first four years 1958-61 are erratic in behaviour and have therefore been excluded. Of the remaining years, decomposition analysis is performed on the logarithmic transformed data (given in Appendix 2) for the years 1962-75 so as to isolate and quantify the trend-cycle and seasonal components latent in them. The observations of the last three years 1976-78 have been kept aside for comparing them with the

forecasts obtained from the model estimated from the analyses with a view to assessing the predictive performance of the model.

Plots of the actual series (Fig. 1) and of the logarithmic transformed series (Fig. 2) show that the variability of the latter is more uniform over time and is therefore more appropriate for analysis.

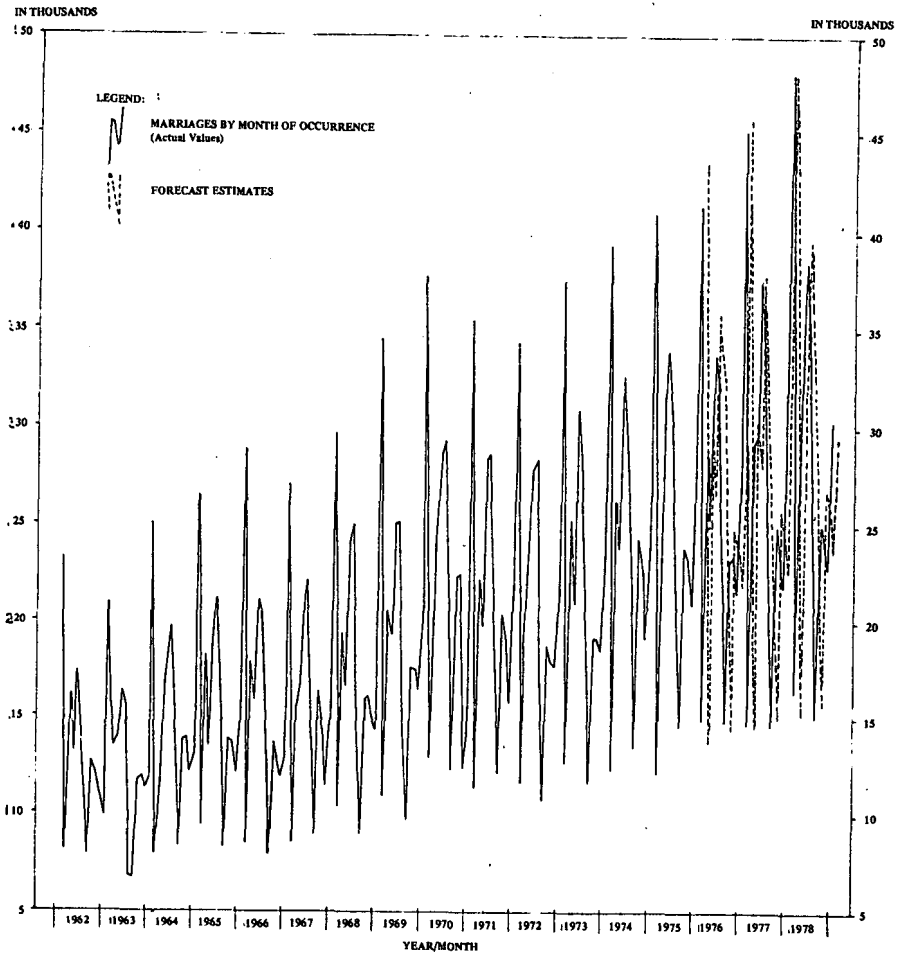


Figure 1. Time series data (actual values) on number of registration marriages in the Philippines, 1962-1978 and forecast estimates for 1976-1978.

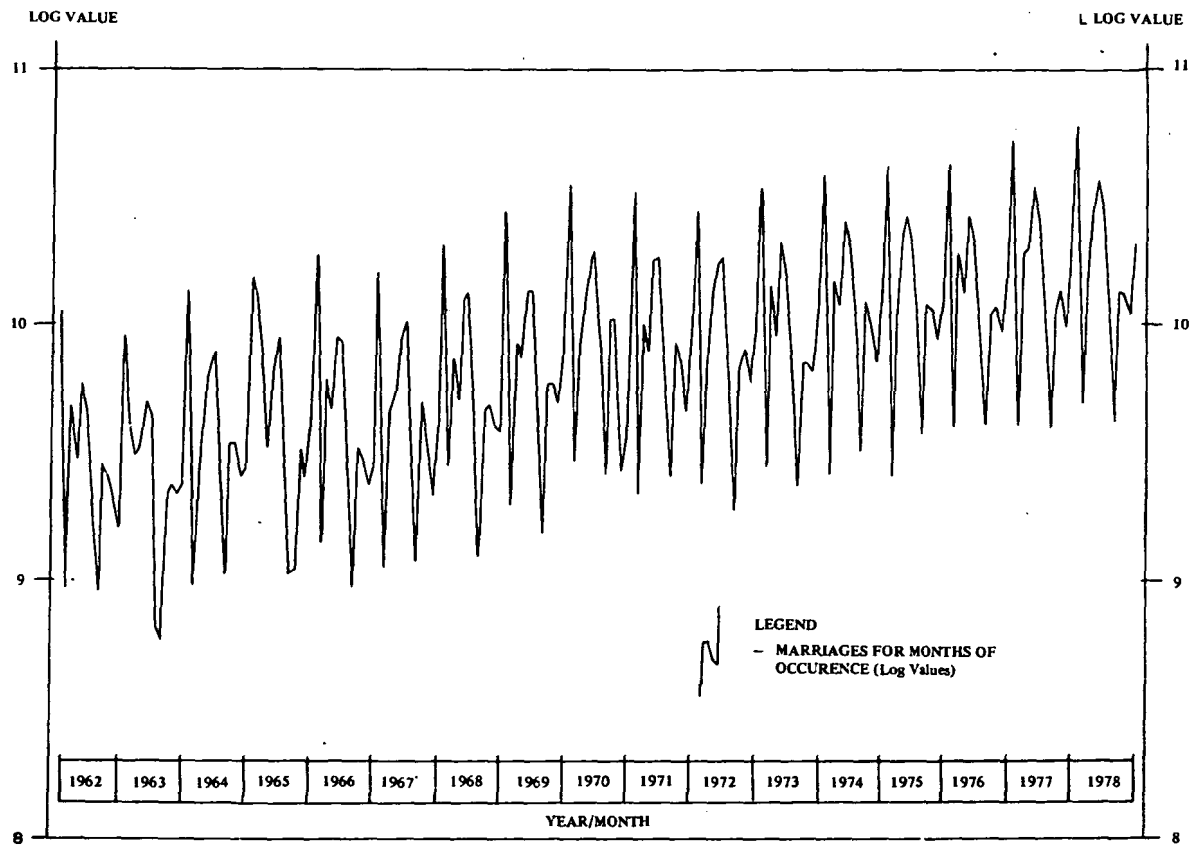


Figure 2. Time series data (logarithmic values) on number of registered marriages in the Philippines, 1962-1978.

Moreover, experience shows that many time series in the behavioural and sociological sciences may be better explained by a multiplicative model:

$$X_t = T_t \cdot S_t \cdot I_t$$

where X is the actual series, T and S are respectively the trend-cycle and seasonal components, I the short term irregular fluctuations and t the time index.

The X-11 procedure, an adaptation of the Bureau of the Census Method II Seasonal Adjustment Program of Shiskin, *et al.* (1967) is employed in the present analysis to separate the systematic signals T and S from the noise component I embedded in the data series. This procedure is a variant of the Census Method II and like its predecessors is a further refinement of the ratio-to-moving average method which was initially developed by Frederick R. Maculay of the National Bureau of Economic Research in 1922. It consists of several iterations of the ratio-to-moving averages which provide a gradual treatment of extremes (if present). The method also offers a choice of several moving averages to estimate the trend-cycle component. On the whole, it is versatile, flexible, complete and economical; and, for these reasons, is widely used by time series analysts despite the availability of competing methods in the area of time series modelling and forecasting.

The final seasonal indexes as estimated by the X-11 program for the years 1962-75 are presented in Table 2.

As may be seen, Table 2 exhibits a constant seasonality over the years. However, the analysis of variance performed by the program shows that the hypothesis of their constancy between the months is to be rejected at 1% probability level, the value of F being as high as 217.54. As expected, January tops as the most favoured month for matrimony and August is the least favoured. As may be seen in Fig. 3, on an average, the summer months of March to June, all have their indexes above 100 whereas all the months of the second half of a year (corresponding to the rainy period) have their indexes below 100. The index for February is exceptionally low (being only 94.9), but this may be due to the high (in fact the highest) peak in the preceding month of January.

Table 2: Seasonal indexes

<i>Year</i>	<i>Jan.</i>	<i>Feb.</i>	<i>March</i>	<i>April</i>	<i>May</i>	<i>June</i>	<i>July</i>	<i>Aug.</i>	<i>Sept.</i>	<i>Oct.</i>	<i>Nov.</i>	<i>Dec.</i>
1962	106.8	95.2	101.9	100.7	103.0	102.9	98.7	94.2	99.6	99.4	98.3	99.1
1963	106.8	95.3	101.9	100.7	103.1	103.0	98.7	94.2	99.6	99.4	98.3	99.1
1964	106.8	95.2	101.7	100.8	103.1	103.2	98.9	94.1	99.6	99.4	98.3	99.2
1965	106.7	95.1	101.5	100.8	103.2	103.4	99.0	94.0	99.6	99.3	98.2	99.1
1966	106.7	95.1	101.4	100.8	103.3	103.7	99.1	93.9	99.6	99.2	98.1	99.2
1967	106.6	95.1	101.4	100.9	103.4	103.7	99.0	93.9	99.6	99.1	98.1	99.3
1968	106.5	95.0	101.4	100.9	103.5	103.7	98.9	94.0	99.6	99.1	98.0	99.5
1969	106.4	95.0	101.4	100.9	103.5	103.7	98.8	94.1	99.6	99.1	98.0	99.7
1970	106.3	95.0	101.5	100.9	103.5	103.5	98.7	94.2	99.6	99.1	98.0	99.9
1971	106.1	94.9	101.5	100.9	103.6	103.3	98.7	94.3	99.6	99.1	98.1	100.2
1972	106.0	94.8	101.6	100.8	103.6	103.1	98.7	94.3	99.6	99.2	98.1	100.3
1973	106.0	94.6	101.6	100.9	103.7	102.9	98.7	94.4	99.7	99.3	98.3	100.5
1974	105.9	94.4	101.6	100.8	103.7	102.7	98.7	94.4	99.7	99.3	98.4	100.5
1975	105.8	94.4	101.6	100.8	103.7	102.6	98.7	94.4	99.7	99.3	98.4	100.5
Average Seasonal Index	106.4	94.9	101.6	100.8	103.4	103.2	98.8	96.2	99.6	99.2	98.2	99.7

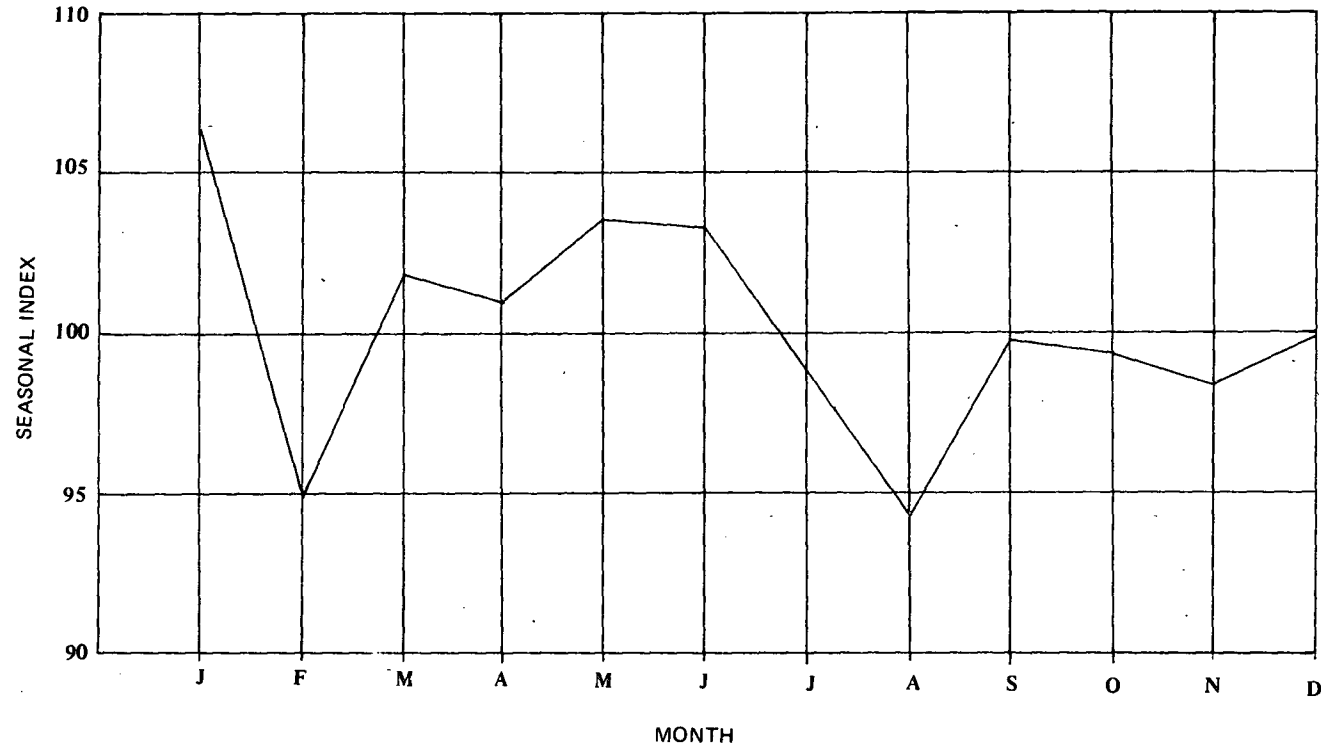


Figure 3. Seasonality of registered marriages

Table 3 gives the T_t estimates (expressed in logarithms) of the final trend-cycle (trend for brevity) obtained by smoothing the seasonally adjusted series using the 13-term Henderson's moving-average.

The figures do reveal an increasing tendency over the years which may be explained by the dual facts of positive population growth and increases in the number of marriage registrations during the period covered.

In order to accomplish the next objective of the paper namely to obtain forecasts of marriage registrations using the above results from the decomposition analysis, one needs to have a mechanism by which the trend-cycle and seasonal components may be projected into the forecast period.

Presently, the X-11 program offers no computer method by which trend may be fitted and forecasts of the underlying trend obtained mechanically. We have, therefore, fitted a trend equation using the values in Table 3 so as to: (i) facilitate a quantitative insight of the trend behaviour, and (ii) obtain lead-time point forecasts of l -steps ($l \geq 1$) ahead which will in turn be used for constructing projections of registered marriages. A number of time trend and time series models involving T_t as the dependent variable and t , and lagged values of T_t as the explanatory variables were tried. The coefficient of determination R^2 and the DW value were used as the choice criteria for the selection of a final trend equation. The equation that scored over all others with respect to both these criteria is given in (2.1) below:

$$Z_t = 0.0007 + 1.8000^{**} Z_{t-1} - 1.3302^{**} Z_{t-2} + 0.2744^{**} Z_{t-3} \\ \text{..... (2.1)} \\ \text{(0.0745) (0.1272) (0.0744)}$$

$$R^2 = 95.07\%; \hat{\sigma}^2 = 0.000001; DW = 2.04$$

$$\text{where } Z_t = T_t - T_{t-1}$$

The fact that (2.1) involves the variable Z_t , namely the first difference of T_t shows that the lagged series T_t is non-stationary in the mean. This may also be seen to be so in Fig. 2 in which the T_t

Table 3: Trend-cycle values (in logarithms)

<i>Year</i>	<i>Jan.</i>	<i>Feb.</i>	<i>March</i>	<i>April</i>	<i>May</i>	<i>June</i>	<i>July</i>	<i>Aug.</i>	<i>Sept.</i>	<i>Oct.</i>	<i>Nov.</i>	<i>Dec.</i>
1962	9.4494	9.4429	9.4401	9.4342	9.4296	9.4290	9.4341	9.4444	9.4579	9.4709	9.4810	9.4883
1963	9.4913	9.4894	9.4759	9.4463	9.4079	9.3750	9.3592	9.3664	9.3918	9.4229	9.4492	9.4640
1964	9.4685	9.4720	9.4847	9.5090	9.5397	9.5696	9.5898	9.5947	9.5873	9.5757	9.5658	9.5594
1965	9.5570	9.5583	9.5460	9.5741	9.5862	9.5944	9.5993	9.6028	9.6051	9.6079	9.6138	9.6234
1966	9.6332	9.6374	9.6333	9.6229	9.6092	9.5956	9.5820	9.5687	9.5585	9.5494	9.5416	9.5379
1967	9.5403	9.5503	9.5661	9.5881	9.6136	9.6388	9.6585	9.6691	9.6706	9.6696	9.6698	9.6725
1968	9.6810	9.6972	9.7174	9.7326	9.7375	9.7358	9.7322	9.7331	9.7411	9.7554	9.7725	9.7881
1969	9.7973	9.7974	9.7898	9.7791	9.7690	9.7632	9.7671	9.7836	9.8114	9.8457	9.8823	9.9150
1970	9.9374	9.9488	9.9544	9.9586	9.9634	9.9669	9.9640	9.9514	9.9296	9.9021	9.8730	9.8479
1971	9.8347	9.8346	9.8454	9.8646	9.8914	9.9186	9.9402	9.9499	9.9448	9.9284	9.9084	9.8910
1972	9.8806	9.8790	9.8823	9.8843	9.8810	9.8739	9.8689	9.8690	9.8785	9.8966	9.9202	9.9447
1973	9.9637	9.9723	9.9720	9.9641	9.9496	9.9327	9.9193	9.9163	9.9250	9.9420	9.9619	9.9793
1974	9.9900	9.9959	9.9993	10.0062	10.0225	10.0455	10.0672	10.0824	10.0861	10.0759	10.0548	10.0315
1975	10.0136	10.0064	10.0121	10.0293	10.0528	10.0789	10.1015	10.1146	10.1192	10.1177	10.1125	10.1052

series exhibits a trend in mean. Thus (2.1) may be considered to be equivalent to the Box-Jenkins specification of an ARIMA (Auto-Regressive Integrated Moving Average) (p, d, q,) model with $p=3$, $d=1$, $q=0$. However, to the extent that it has not been obtained using their methodology, there is no guarantee that the model adheres to the "principle of parsimony", one of the basic tenets of their approach, nor does it ensure that it is the most adequate among the family of ARIMA models for the reason that it lacks "diagnostic checking", a built-in device in the Box-Jenkins methodology. All the same, the above equation holds promise for independent Box-Jenkins modelling of the series under study.

Equation (2.1) is used to generate the short-term monthwise forecasts of the trend component T_t for the years 1976-78. For forecasting the corresponding seasonal component S_t , the equation

$$S_{t+1} = 1.5 S_t - 0.5 S_{t-1}$$

suggested in the X-11 program has been employed.

Assembling these two sets of forecasts, the final forecasts of the number of registered marriages in the period 1976-78 are shown in Table 4.

Fig. 1 gives a visual presentation of these forecasts in relation to the corresponding actuals.

Objective analyses of how well the forecasts align themselves with their respective actuals can be carried out in a number of ways, particularly in a study of time series analysis. One of the most commonly employed method is that of mean square error (MSE) and its decompositions expressed as inequality proportions.

In the context of time series observations, given the forecast values f_t and the actuals a_t at the time point, we may define the MSE as:

$$MSE = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{t=1}^m (F_t - A_t)^2 \quad (2.2)$$

where

Table 4: Monthwise forecast values for the years 1976-78

<i>Year</i>	<i>Jan.</i>	<i>Feb.</i>	<i>March</i>	<i>April</i>	<i>May</i>	<i>June</i>	<i>July</i>	<i>Aug.</i>	<i>Sept.</i>	<i>Oct.</i>	<i>Nov.</i>	<i>Dec.</i>
1976	43,450	13,767	28,511	26,442	35,756	32,153	21,978	14,319	24,629	23,716	21,672	26,834
1977	45,668	14,493	30,205	27,981	37,777	33,731	22,965	14,889	25,631	24,686	22,575	28,011
1978	47,774	15,108	31,579	29,226	39,479	35,179	23,935	15,495	26,746	25,768	23,579	29,321

$F_t = \frac{f_t - a_{t-1}}{a_{t-1}}$ is the predicted relative change,

$A_t = \frac{a_t - a_{t-1}}{a_{t-1}}$ is the actual relative change and

m is the number of forecasts.

Thus (2.2) can be rewritten, in term of f_t and a_t as

$$\text{MSE} = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{t=1}^m \left(\frac{f_t - a_t}{a_{t-1}} \right)^2 \quad (2.3)$$

As Theil (1966) has shown, it is possible to decompose (2.2) into three components as:

$$\text{MSE} = (\bar{F} - \bar{A})^2 + (S_F - S_A)^2 + 2(1-r) S_F S_A \quad (2.4)$$

or, as

$$\text{MSE} = (\bar{F} - \bar{A})^2 + (S_F - rS_A)^2 + (1 - r^2)S_A^2 \quad (2.5)$$

where S^2 denotes the variance and r the correlation coefficient between F and A . The three quantities on the right of (2.4) are referred to as: bias, variance and covariance components, respectively, and the last two expressions on the right of (2.5) as regression and disturbance components, respectively, of MSE.

Certain desirable properties for the decomposition (2.4) follow as a result of its symmetry in predicted and realized changes i.e. its invariance to the interchanging of F and A . However, it suffers from certain disadvantages in the context of optimal predictions. Without getting into a discussion of the related theoretical aspects, it suffices to say that the decomposition (2.5) is more enlightening in the matter of interpreting and judging forecast accuracy. The bias component $(\bar{F} - \bar{A})^2$ provides a measure of the extent to which MSE is affected by the mean level of the forecast variable in relation to that of the actual. The regression component $(S_F - rS_A)^2$, as also the bias component, constitutes a "systematic" error, whereas the disturbance component represents the variance of the residuals of the regression of A_t on F_t .

For purpose of comparison, we may divide each one of these components by their sum i.e., by MSE and obtain the corresponding inequality proportions as:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Bias proportion} & : U^M = \frac{(\bar{F} - \bar{A})^2}{\text{MSE}} \\ \text{Regression proportion} & : U^R = \frac{(S_F - rS_A)^2}{\text{MSE}} \text{ and} \\ \text{Disturbance proportion} & : U^D = \frac{(1 - r^2) S_A^2}{\text{MSE}} . \end{aligned}$$

Of course, $U^M + U^R + U^D = 1$

The meaning of these proportions would be clear if we consider the decomposition (2.5) in relation to the regression:

$$A_t = F_t + \text{error} \quad (2.6)$$

Since the mean of the error would be zero, we would have $\bar{A} = \bar{F}$ so that the bias component of (2.5) and, consequently, the proportion U^M would be zero. Also, the regression coefficient of (2.6) equals

$$\frac{\Sigma (F_t - \bar{F}) (A_t - \bar{A})}{\Sigma (F_t - \bar{F})^2} = \frac{rS_A}{S_F}$$

If now, the value of this coefficient is indeed one, as the equation (2.6) stipulates, then the regression component of (2.5) and, correspondingly, U^R would be zero. Thus, the MSE would solely consist of the third component of (2.5), namely the variance of the error or disturbance terms of the regression (2.6), leading to the value of unity for the proportion U^D . Evidently, such an ideal condition as depicted by (2.6) would not exist in actual practice. All the same, if a prediction-realization diagram consisting of the plots (F_t, A_t) is drawn, then the three inequality proportions provide measures of the extent of the spread of these plots around the line of perfect

forecast: $A_t = F_t$. The closer the values of U^M and U^R to zero, the greater is the correspondence of the estimated forecast changes F_t to the actual changes A_t for all t .

Table 5 gives the values of MSE and the three inequality proportions for the three forecast years individually and for the entire period 1976-78.

Table 5: Values of mean square errors and inequality proportions

<i>Year</i>	<i>MSE</i>	U^M	U^R	U^D
1976	0.002435	0.2939	0.1326	0.5735
1977	0.003264	0.1329	0.2268	0.6403
1978	0.010211	0.0464	0.2279	0.7257
1976-78	0.005385	0.1000	0.1834	0.7166

As to be expected, the MSE values of the predicted changes from the actual changes increase with years. This is reflected in the Prediction-Realization diagram of Fig. 4. On the other hand U^M values decrease steadily showing that the mean levels of the predicted changes drift closer to those of actual changes over time. The "systematic" error component U^R increases sharply between 1976 and 1977 but stabilizes thereafter to a value of 0.23. Correspondingly, the disturbance component U^D moves towards unity; however, the fact that these values are still sufficiently away unity implies considerable departure of the predicted changes from those of the actuals and this is also corroborated by the increasing values of MSE for the years 1976 through 1978. In short then, the present analysis suggests that although the time series model that has been fitted yields forecasts that are not totally unacceptable (in relation to actuals), yet they are not sufficiently "perfect" in the sense that U^R and U^D are not close enough to 0 and 1, respectively.

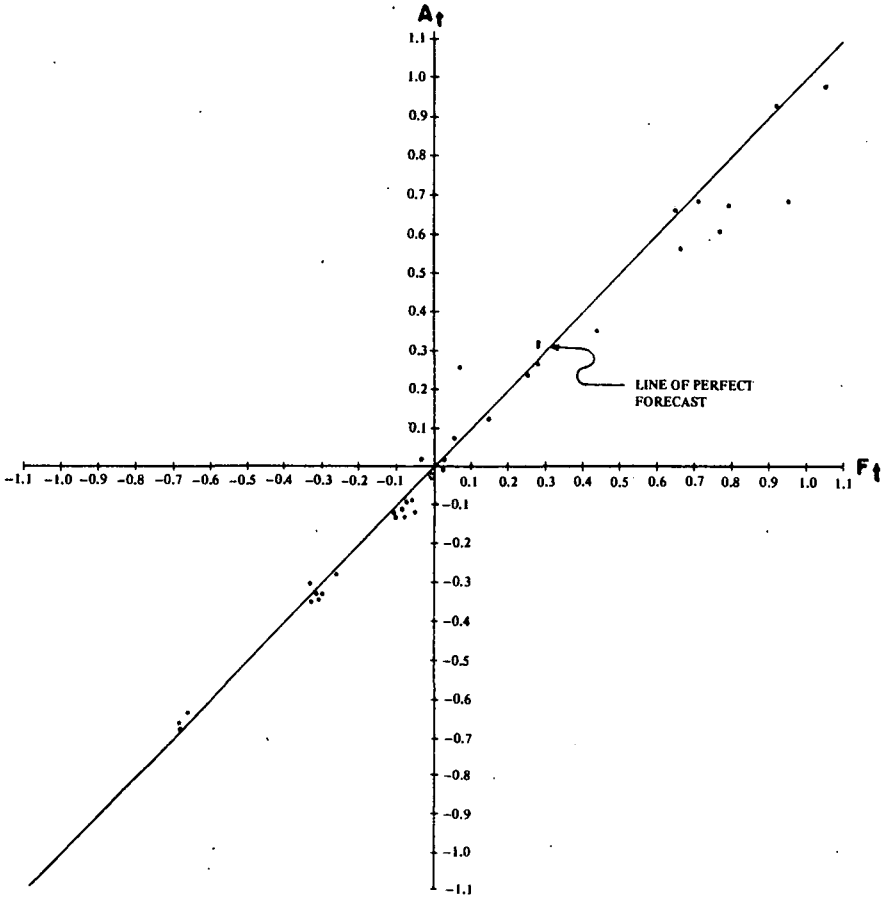


Figure 4. Prediction realization diagram

the regression lines

$$A_t = \hat{\alpha}_0 + \hat{\alpha}_1 F_t; t = 1, \dots, m \quad (2.7)$$

for the three years 1976 to 1978 provide further evidence in this respect. The relevant estimates obtained from (2.7) for the forecast years are tabulated in Table 6 below:

Table 6. Estimates of regressions of actual changes on predicted changes

<i>Year</i>	<i>m</i>	<i>Intercept</i>	<i>Slope</i>	<i>R</i> ² (%)	$\hat{\sigma}^2$	<i>DW</i>
1976	11	-.0243 (0.0125)	.9500 (0.0281)	99.23	.0017	1.83
1977	12	-.0133 (0.0150)	.9441 (0.0297)	99.02	.0025	1.90
1978	12	-.0091 (0.0282)	.8956 (0.0589)	95.85	.0089	2.44
—						—
1976-78	35	-.0156 (0.0111)	.9323 (0.0233)	97.98	.0041	2.41

Figures in parenthesis refer to standard errors.

As may be seen, the intercept values $\hat{\alpha}_0$ and those of the slope coefficients $\hat{\alpha}_1$ steadily decrease between the years 1976 and 1978. Thus, relating them to those of the line of perfect forecast in which $\alpha_0 = 0$ and $\alpha_1 = 1$, we find that although none of the $\hat{\alpha}_0$ and $\hat{\alpha}_1$ values are statistically different from 0 and 1, respectively, yet the intercept coefficients move favourably in the desired direction and the slope coefficients drift away from that of the line of perfect forecast and that it is this latter factor which contributes to an increasing MSE as the forecast years advance.

While the above criteria — the MSE and the three inequality proportions — enable one to measure forecast performance of an estimated model, another line of inquiry is also possible, namely to assess how “good”, in some absolute sense, is a particular set of forecasts. In the

absence of a competing model whose forecasts may be compared against those generated by a given model, the simplest way is to construct a “naive” model and then to judge how “good” the forecasts of the given model are in relation to the “naive” forecasts – i.e., the forecasts obtained without the support of or lacking any underlying subject-matter theory.

The inequality coefficient U^2 proposed by Theil (1966) comes under this category. This is given by:

$$U^2 = \frac{\sum (F_t - A_t)^2}{\sum A_t^2} \quad (2.8)$$

It compares the MSE of a forecast with that of a naive “no-change” model $f_{t+1} = a_t$ in which the future values forecasted are the same as the last available actual values. If the fitted model performs no better than this naive model, the value of U would be close to one. It may also be seen that if the fitted model turns out perfect forecasts, i.e., $f_t = a_t$ for all t , then $U = 0$.

In the recent literature on forecasting of time series data, more highly refined naive competitive models have been constructed. Nevertheless, they are exposed to a number of theoretical criticisms and their superiority over the simple ones like the one above in practical situations is by no means obvious. For these reasons, we would be content with using (2.8) above in our present analysis.

The value of U^2 for the three individual years 1976 through 1978 and over the entire forecast period 1976-1978 are given in Table 7 below.

Table 7. Values of the inequality coefficient U^2

<i>Year</i>	U^2
1975	0.0134
1977	0.0144
1978	0.0542
1976-78	0.0270

That the values of U^2 are away from unity indicate that the model fitted is superior to the naive "no-change" model: $f_{t+1} = a_t$; also, while being close to zero, they increase over the forecast period thus suggesting that the forecast changes derived from the fitted model drift away from the actual changes. This is in line with the evidence given by the earlier criteria of MSE and the inequality proportions.

3. Concluding Remarks

The forecasting analysis has shown that the X-11 method of decomposing the time series under study into its systematic constituents of trend-cycle and seasonal components coupled with a suitable parametric modelling of the trend-cycle component is capable of generating forecasts that are reliable in the sense that, by and large, they are reasonably close to the actuals. However, the efficiency of these forecasts is an open question since no alternative models have been attempted except for the two naive models viz. the line of perfect forecast and the random walk model.

Also, the equation (2.1) fitted suggests that modelling the series through specifications such as ARIMA which are more sophisticated than X-11 would be in order. In this connection, it must be noted that the X-11 procedure isolates the trend-cycle as a composite component with the result that the oscillatory movement of cycles is enmeshed with the secular trend. Also, there are evidences to suggest that X-11 method cannot adequately cope with seasonals having constant patterns but varying amplitudes. In such situations, the technique of spectral analysis might seem to be a more appropriate approach for effecting seasonal adjustments.

Thus, all in all, it would be instructive to analyze these data using the above alternative model constructs and to evaluate the accuracy of the forecasts generated by them against the ones obtained here with the help of a somewhat standard procedure such as the X-11.

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Appendix 1: Monthly data (actual) on registered marriages for the years 1958-78⁴

<i>Year</i>	<i>Jan.</i>	<i>Feb.</i>	<i>March</i>	<i>April</i>	<i>May</i>	<i>June</i>	<i>July</i>	<i>Aug.</i>	<i>Sept.</i>	<i>Oct.</i>	<i>Nov.</i>	<i>Dec.</i>
1958	17,127	7,366	12,046	13,519	13,758	12,961	8,883	6,178	10,419	10,412	8,413	8,198
1959	16,887	6,271	9,514	16,641	15,428	17,168	12,783	7,088	10,474	11,250	9,417	8,955
1960	18,651	12,654	12,731	10,917	18,549	11,312	7,959	6,475	11,649	11,118	10,463	10,570
1961	22,853	9,205	31,208	11,793	20,613	6,779	4,463	4,342	9,719	10,262	10,421	11,649
1962	23,203	8,007	16,003	13,036	17,388	15,388	10,318	7,851	12,657	12,166	10,807	9,993
1963	20,963	15,403	13,210	13,835	16,352	15,483	6,763	6,487	11,605	11,846	11,325	11,809
1964	25,199	7,868	11,793	16,622	18,305	19,731	13,659	8,300	13,801	13,897	12,120	12,988
1965	26,462	9,320	18,176	13,514	18,689	21,008	14,278	8,362	13,973	13,625	12,111	14,750
1966	28,899	9,461	17,846	15,854	21,033	20,546	13,350	7,941	13,663	12,900	11,805	12,623
1967	27,099	8,540	15,590	16,793	20,773	22,109	13,846	8,830	16,269	14,285	11,290	14,473
1968	29,785	10,304	19,230	16,421	24,117	25,035	15,412	8,983	15,821	16,018	14,912	14,482
1969	34,448	10,914	20,409	19,328	25,140	25,100	14,967	9,794	17,494	17,468	16,221	19,918
1970	37,702	12,860	20,442	24,292	28,620	29,286	19,185	12,287	22,273	22,462	12,361	14,012
1971	35,487	11,336	22,119	19,789	28,378	28,650	18,203	12,116	20,228	19,059	15,631	21,735
1972	34,278	11,786	18,327	24,483	27,803	28,481	16,672	10,668	18,734	17,862	17,593	21,574
1973	37,578	12,686	25,350	20,820	30,888	26,893	17,759	11,681	19,128	19,046	18,556	22,953
1974	39,297	12,321	26,184	23,858	32,614	29,393	20,952	13,471	24,246	22,663	19,071	23,914
1975	40,841	12,157	22,553	31,059	33,828	30,189	21,478	14,443	23,859	23,363	20,812	24,932
1976	41,305	14,836	28,584	24,836	33,794	29,675	21,328	14,794	23,133	23,527	21,492	26,684
1977	45,098	14,627	29,036	29,635	37,646	33,134	21,631	14,492	23,359	25,107	21,911	28,790
1978	48,045	16,201	27,382	34,495	38,460	34,250	22,907	14,954	25,153	25,012	22,931	30,318

⁴Source: NCSO, Vital Statistics Reports

Appendix 2: Monthly data (log-transformed) on registered marriages for the years 1958-78

<i>Year</i>	<i>Jan.</i>	<i>Feb.</i>	<i>March</i>	<i>April</i>	<i>May</i>	<i>June</i>	<i>July</i>	<i>Aug.</i>	<i>Sept.</i>	<i>Oct.</i>	<i>Nov.</i>	<i>Dec.</i>
1958	9.7484	8.9046	9.3965	9.5119	9.5294	9.4697	9.0919	8.7287	9.2514	9.2507	9.0375	9.0116
1959	9.7343	8.7437	9.1605	9.7196	9.6439	9.7508	9.4559	8.8662	9.2567	9.3281	9.1503	9.1000
1960	9.8337	9.4457	9.4518	9.2981	9.8282	9.3362	8.9821	8.7757	9.3630	9.3163	9.2556	9.2658
1961	10.0368	9.1275	10.3484	9.3753	9.9337	8.8216	8.4036	8.3761	9.1818	9.2362	9.2516	9.3630
1962	10.0520	8.9881	9.6805	9.4755	9.7635	9.6413	9.2416	8.9684	9.4460	9.4064	9.2879	9.2096
1963	9.9505	9.6423	9.4887	9.5350	9.7021	9.6475	8.8192	8.7776	9.3592	9.3797	9.3348	9.3766
1964	10.1346	8.9706	9.3753	9.7185	9.8149	9.8899	9.5222	9.0240	9.5325	9.5394	9.4026	9.4405
1965	10.1835	9.1399	9.8079	9.5115	9.8357	9.9527	9.5665	9.0315	9.5449	9.5197	9.4019	9.5990
1966	10.2716	9.1549	9.7895	9.6712	9.9538	9.9304	9.4993	8.9798	9.5224	9.4650	9.3763	9.4433
1967	10.2073	9.0525	9.6544	9.7287	9.9414	10.0037	9.5358	9.0859	9.6970	9.5670	9.3317	9.5800
1968	10.3018	9.2403	9.8642	9.7063	10.0907	10.1280	9.6429	9.1031	9.6691	9.6815	9.6099	9.5807
1969	10.4472	9.2978	9.9237	9.8693	10.1322	10.1306	9.6136	9.1895	9.7696	9.7681	9.6941	9.8994
1970	10.5375	9.4619	9.9253	10.0979	10.2619	10.2849	9.8619	9.4163	10.0111	10.0196	9.4223	9.5541
1971	10.4769	9.3357	10.0042	9.8929	10.2534	10.2629	9.8093	9.4023	9.9148	9.8553	9.6570	9.9867
1972	10.4423	9.3747	9.8161	10.1057	10.2329	10.2570	9.7215	9.2750	9.8381	9.7904	9.7753	9.9792
1973	10.5342	9.4483	10.1405	9.9437	10.3381	10.1996	9.7846	9.3657	9.8589	9.8546	9.8285	10.0412
1974	10.5789	9.4191	10.1729	10.0799	10.3925	10.2885	9.9500	9.5083	10.0960	10.0285	9.8559	10.0822
1975	10.6174	9.4057	10.0236	10.3436	10.4290	10.3152	9.9748	9.5780	10.0799	10.0589	9.9433	10.1239
1976	10.6287	9.6048	10.2606	10.1200	10.4280	10.2981	9.9678	9.6020	10.0490	10.0659	9.9754	10.1918
1977	10.7166	9.5906	10.2763	10.2967	10.5360	10.4083	9.9819	9.5814	10.0587	10.1309	9.9947	10.2678
1978	10.7799	9.6928	10.2176	10.4486	10.5574	10.4414	10.0392	9.6127	10.1327	10.1271	10.0402	10.3195