Abstract

In this paper, we use Bayesian techniques to develop nowcasts for the quantity of waterborne traffic in the United States in total and for the four primary commodities. These waterborne traffic levels are released with a considerable time lag, but yet are of current interest. Nowcasts (i.e. predictions of the waterborne traffic levels to be released based on other variables that are available) have been constructed using an array of different variables and techniques. However, the large number of potential predictor variables and changes in the distribution of traffic levels leads to both model and estimation uncertainty, which has likely hampered the accuracy of these existing nowcasts. We use Bayesian Model Averaging (BMA) to create nowcasts, which confronts model and estimation uncertainty directly via the averaging of models with different sets of predictors. We also use rolling window techniques to account for possible changes in the nowcasting relationship over time. Based on a variety of evaluation metrics, we find that BMA substantially improves nowcast accuracy.

JEL codes: L9, R4

Keywords: model selection, model uncertainty, nowcasting, transportation forecasting.

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1 Introduction

Forecasts are important for planning purposes (Armstrong, 1985; Army Corps of Engineers, 2000). While forecasts of future periods are of obvious use, it is often the case that data for contemporaneous or past periods are released with a substantial lag, making timely predictions of these periods also of value. These predictions of current or past periods for which data has not yet been revealed are called nowcasts. Nowcasting models have been developed in a variety of contexts, primarily in the nowcasting of macroeconomic variables.

In this paper, we are interested in nowcasting U.S. inland waterway traffic. The United States’ 25,000 miles of inland waterway navigation provides a viable alternative to freight transport by road or rail. This intricate system supports more than a half million jobs and delivers more than 600 million tons of cargo each year (Transportation Research Board, 2015). Reliable nowcasts of waterway traffic provide market participants additional time to allocate resources. For example, nowcasts help planners at the U.S. Army Corps of Engineers to monitor waterway congestion and to evaluate whether investments are warranted. These nowcasts are also used by barge operators to monitor congestion, allowing these firms to make employment decisions, gauge equipment needs, and adjust their rates to compete with alternative modes of transportation. Finally, government agencies can use nowcasts to validate trends and assess the quality of the data collection efforts.

In the case of waterway traffic, the Waterborne Commerce (WBC) data is the official data to measure waterway flows; however, it is released with lag which can be long and uncertain. A second data source provides more timely information on waterway flows,
namely the Lock Performance Monitoring System (LPMS). The LPMS provides data on
tonnages moving through each of the 164 locks in the inland waterway system, essentially
providing 164 coincident variables that can be used to predict the eventual WBC release.\(^5\)

While the LPMS data provides a rich dataset to nowcast the WBC data, the large number
of variables provided in the LPMS presents a challenge for developing a nowcasting model
that incorporates these variables. When faced with such a large set of potential predictor
variables, there will exist substantial uncertainty over the correct set of variables to include
in the model. Specifically, in our application, there exists over \(4.7 \times 10^{49}\) potential models to
consider, where a model is defined as a particular set of predictor variables to include. One
approach to proceed in the face of this model uncertainty is to select a particular subset of
variables to include in the nowcasting model, perhaps through data-based methods. However,
this ignores relevant information contained in omitted variables. An alternative approach,
which would not omit information, is to simply include all potential predictor variables in the
nowcasting model. However, with a large number of variables, this approach will typically
lead to substantial estimation uncertainty, and thus inaccurate nowcasts. This is especially
the case when samples sizes are limited and/or variables are highly correlated. Further
complicating matters is that traffic shifts over the network through time may change the the
set of predictor variables best explaining the waterborne traffic data.

Bayesian methods are attractive in settings that include significant model uncertainty, as
they provide a straightforward, intuitive, and consistent approach to measure and incorporate
model uncertainty when estimating parameters and constructing forecasts. BMA confronts
these issues by averaging forecasts produced by each candidate model included in the model
space. Averaging is accomplished using weights equal to the Bayesian posterior probability
that a particular model is the correct forecasting model. Thus, models that are deemed by
the data to be better forecasting models will receive higher weight in producing the BMA

\(^5\)The LPMS data are recorded by the lockmaster for each of 164 locks and are readily available at
https://corpslocks.usace.army.mil/
forecast. BMA also provides posterior inclusion probabilities for each explanatory variable, a useful measure of which predictors provide the most relevant information for constructing forecasts.

In this paper, we adapt and apply these techniques to nowcast WBC tonnages in total and for the four primary commodity groups in the United States. As potential predictor variables we use the LMPS data for each of the 164 locks, as well as lags of macroeconomic variables. We first provide in-sample estimation results constructed from data covering January 2000 to December 2013. These results demonstrate that there is substantial uncertainty regarding which predictor variables belong in the true nowcasting model, as the model probabilities are spread over a very large number of possible models. This provides empirical justification of the use of BMA techniques in our setting. We then conduct an out-of-sample nowcasting experiment extending from January 2011 to December 2013. To account for possible changes in the composition of movements over the inland waterway network throughout time, we re-estimate the models on a rolling window prior to forming each out-of-sample nowcast. Our results suggest that the BMA procedure combined with the rolling-window estimation provides very accurate nowcasts, improving substantially on the accuracy of existing studies that produced nowcasts of waterborne commerce data.

Our paper fits into a larger literature that explores forecasting and nowcasting transportation data. Babcock and Lu (2002) construct an ARIMAX model to explore the short-term forecasting of inland waterway traffic using data for grain tonnage on the Mississippi River and find their model provides accurate forecasts. Tang (2001) develops an ARMA model to forecast quarterly variation for soybean and wheat tonnage on the McClellan-Kerr Arkansas River. She finds that incorporating structural breaks into the model allows it to provide more accurate forecasts. Thoma and Wilson (2004a) analyze shocks to barge quantities and rates from changes in ocean freight rates, and rail rates and deliveries. The authors use vector autoregressions and variance decompositions with an application to weekly transportation data. Thoma and Wilson (2004b) estimate the co-integrating relationships between river
traffic, lock capacities, and a demand measure from 1953 through 2001. Forecasts of river traffic are developed based on the co-integrating relationship over an extended period of time. Thoma and Wilson (2005) explore the value of information contained in the LPMS data for nowcasting WBC values. They use annual data to identify key locks with pair-wise correlations and step-wise regressions, including these as predictors for annual WBC tonnages. Our paper contributes to this literature by introducing BMA to forecasting transportation networks.

The remainder of the paper proceeds as follows. Section 2 describes the data and provides an example of waterborne commerce movements. Section 3 outlines the general nowcasting model and describes the Bayesian Model Averaging approach to construct nowcasts. In Section 4 we present results regarding which predictor variables are most relevant for constructing nowcasts, as well as results from the out-of-sample nowcasting exercise. Finally, Section 5 provides some discussion and concluding remarks.

2 Background

In this section, we first describe the waterway system and the location of the lock system. Figure 1 provides a map of the U.S. inland and intracoastal waterways system. This system’s 25,000 miles of navigable water directly serve 38 states and carries nearly one sixth of all cargo moved between cities in the United States. The Gulf Coast ports of Mobile, New Orleans, Baton Rouge, Houston, and Corpus Christi are connected to the major inland ports of Memphis, St. Louis, Chicago, Minneapolis, Cincinnati, and Pittsburgh via the Gulf Intracoastal Waterway and the Mississippi River. The Mississippi River is essential to both domestic and foreign U.S. trade, allowing shipping to connect with barge traffic from Baton Rouge to the Gulf of Mexico. The Columbia-Snake River System provides access from the Pacific Northwest 465 miles inland to Lewiston, Idaho (Infrastructure Report Card, 2009).
In Figure 1, we map the lock locations by river. As is evident in this figure, the locks that comprise the LPMS are concentrated in the Midwest and Southeast regions of the country. The majority of inland waterway commerce is concentrated along the Ohio River and the Mississippi River. The various geographic origins of each commodity and changes in demand for these commodities likely influence traffic patterns over time. Coal is the largest commodity by volume transported along the inland waterway system but its role has been declining as natural gas has become more attractive. The decline in demand for coal is likely to influence traffic patterns, which could potentially impact which locks provide the most valuable information in predicting WBC flows.

*Source: Infrastructure Report Card*
2.1 Data

We next describe the sources and characteristics of the Waterborne Commerce (WBC) data and the Lock Performance Monitoring System (LPMS) data. The WBC data are developed from monthly reports of waterway transportation suppliers, and measure the tonnage by commodity group moved along the inland waterway system. Specifically, the WBC data measures tons traveling on all US rivers measured in total (all commodities), as well as for four commodity groups: food and farm product tons, coal tons, chemical tons, and petroleum tons. There is substantial processing associated with the WBC data, and its release time lags the data by a year or more. WBC data is highly accurate and is considered the industry standard. In contrast, the LPMS data records tonnages of commodities passing through specific inland locks, as recorded by the lock operator. It is available relatively quickly, typically within a month (Navigation Data Center, 2013). While the LPMS data

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6 Although the LPMS annual report is typically released in March, initial figures are made available on the US Army Corps website and can be accessed in real-time [here](https://corpslocks.usace.army.mil/).
and the WBC data measure different quantities, they are very much connected as shown below.

The dependent variable in our analysis is defined as WBC tonnage (overall or by specific commodity group) and is measured monthly for the years 2000-2013 as reported by the Waterborne Commerce Statistics Center. The predictor variables include the LPMS lock variables, provided by the Summary of Locks and Statistics, courtesy of the US Army Corps of Engineers Navigation Data Center’s Key Lock Report. The report contains monthly total tonnage values measured for 2000-2013 for each of 164 specific locks in the system. These data were supplemented by employment statistics obtained from the US Bureau of Labor Statistics which provides data at the national level for years 2000-2013. Specifically, we include the two-month lag of the unemployment rate as an additional potential predictor.

In Figure 3, we present total commodity tonnage of the inland waterway network throughout time. Specifically, this figure details annual LPMS tonnage for total commodities moving along the two major rivers, the Mississippi and Ohio, as well as an Other category that accounts for tonnage along the remaining 26 rivers. That is, the value for each river represents the sum of all tonnages passing through all locks for a specific river. The fluctuations in LPMS tonnage along the Mississippi River can be attributed to seasonal fluctuations in river accessibility. Notice that the tonnages appear relatively stable.

In Figure 4, we present commodity specific tonnage moving along the inland waterway network. The Ohio River facilitates the majority of coal movement along the network, accounting for 68% of all coal LPMS tonnage. The Mississippi River helps to distribute food and farm products throughout the country, accounting for 57% of all food and farm LPMS tonnage. Petroleum products tend to travel along the Gulf Intracoastal Waterway, with 43% of all petroleum products being transported through this system. Chemical tonnages appear to be evenly distributed amongst the Mississippi River, the Ohio River, and the Gulf.

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7 We follow the literature and include the second lag of the unemployment rate rather only. The LPMS data is available for a given month more quickly than the unemployment rate. Using the second lag ensures that use of the LPMS data to nowcast the WBC data is not held up by unemployment data.
8 See Table 1 for a stylized example that relates the LPMS data to the WBC data.
Figure 3
LPMS Tonnage by River
Total Commodities

Figure 4
LPMS Tonnage by River
Primary Commodities
Intracoastal Waterway, with 74% of all chemical LPMS tonnage traveling along these three rivers.

2.2 WBC via the LPMS

This paper uses LPMS data as a coincident indicator for WBC data. The WBC data are the result of firms filling out a monthly form, while the LPMS data are the result of lockmasters recording the tonnages and commodities at each lock. To illustrate the two types of data and how they are related, we follow Thoma and Wilson (2005) and present a stylized example that relates the LPMS data to the WBC data. The example demonstrates that changes in tonnages through key locks are useful for capturing changes in overall tonnages moving on the river. To clarify the differences and connections of the LPMS and WBC data, consider a river that has three locks labeled $L_1$, $L_2$, and $L_3$. Suppose that during the time period that tonnages are measured, there are four barge loads that move on the river. The tonnages and movements between locks are:

- Load 1 10 tons through lock $L_1$
- Load 2 30 tons through locks $L_1$ and $L_2$
- Load 3 40 tons through locks $L_1$, $L_2$, and $L_3$
- Load 4 20 tons through locks $L_2$ and $L_3$

The WBC data measure the sum of all loads (in tons) moved on the river. Hence, the WBC measurement is $10 + 30 + 40 + 20 = 100$. The LPMS measurements reflect totals for each individual lock. For example, Load 3 has a total of 40 tons that travel through $L_1$, $L_2$, and $L_3$. The LPMS data then records 40 tons for $L_1$, 40 tons for $L_2$, and 40 tons for $L_3$. In contrast, the WBC data records 40 tons. The final LPMS data for the four loads described above is reported in Table 1. The idea is to use the LPMS variables to capture changes in overall tonnage moving on the river by estimating a statistical model relating WBC to LPMS variables. Simply including all LPMS variables when the number of such variables is large is likely to be ineffective, as there will be substantial estimation uncertainty associated with the weights that should be given to the individual locks. Also, some locks are
likely uninformative (or redundant) for total tonnage, suggesting that a nowcasting model should focus on a select group of key locks. Section 3 provides a more formal and consistent treatment using Bayesian techniques to identify key locks.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Lock</th>
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<th>L2</th>
<th>L3</th>
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<td>Load 2</td>
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<tr>
<td>Totals</td>
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<td>90</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Table 1
LPMS Data Example (tons)

#### 3 Empirical Model and Bayesian Model Averaging

#### 3.1 The Nowcasting Model

In this section, we present the nowcasting models used to predict WBC values given LPMS data. We focus on linear candidate models that relate the WBC river tonnage in month $t$ to the second lag of the unemployment rate, and some subset of the 164 lock tonnage variables provided by LPMS. Equation (1) below is an example of one of approximately $4.7 \times 10^{49}$ such candidate models that we could consider:

$$ WBC_t = \beta_0 + \beta_1 UR_{t-2} + \beta_2 MI_{15t} + \beta_3 OH_{52t} + \varepsilon_t $$

$$ \varepsilon_t \sim i.i.d. N(0, \sigma^2). $$

In Equation (1), $WBC_t$ is the relevant WBC variable (total tonnage or commodity specific tonnage) measured in month $t$, $UR_{t-2}$ is the second monthly lag of the U.S. unemployment rate, $MI_{15}$ is the total tons passing through lock 15 on the Mississippi River in month $t$, and $OH_{52}$ is the total tons passing through lock 52 on the Ohio River in month $t$. In this example, there are thus two LPMS lock variables included in the model.
Estimating this model provides a way to quantify the relationship between specific locks and WBC flows. Note that although the left-hand side WBC variable and the right-hand side LPMS lock variables are measured for the same period, the LPMS variables are available far earlier than the WBC variable. With the LPMS data released prior to the corresponding WBC data, the LPMS data serves as a coincident indicator to nowcast the WBC variables.

Equation (1) includes a specific subset of LPMS lock variables as predictors, and thus represents one possible model that might be used to nowcast the WBC data using the LPMS variables. One could simply include all possible lock variables in the model, but this would lead to substantial estimation uncertainty and likely low quality forecasts. Indeed, for our dataset, if all potential predictor variables were included in the nowcasting model there would exist only three degrees of freedom, as we have 168 observations and 165 potential variables. Estimation uncertainty is further exacerbated by the fact that many of the LPMS lock variables are highly collinear. With only 168 observations, a parsimonious representation of the data is of vital importance in order to preserve the statistical power of the nowcast. However, exactly which representation should be used is unclear, meaning there is substantial model uncertainty.

3.2 Bayesian Model Averaging

We consider linear regression models as in Equation (1), where the models differ by the specific set of predictor variables included in the model. Again, these possible predictor variables include the 164 LPMS lock variables and the unemployment rate. Label a particular model as $M_j$, where a “model” consists of a choice of which variables to include in the linear regression typified by Equation (1). Here, $j = 1, 2, \ldots, J$ and $J$ is the number of possible models. Again, as discussed above, $J$ is approximately $4.7 \times 10^{49}$ in our setting.

With such a large number of possible models, as well as our relatively small sample size, there is significant uncertainty regarding the true model that should be used to form

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9The timing difference between the releases is variable and uncertain, but can be as long as 1.5 years.
nowcasts. Here we take a Bayesian approach to compare and utilize alternative models. Specifically, the Bayesian approach to compare alternative models is based on the posterior probability that $M_j$ is the true model:

$$Pr(M_j|Y) = \frac{f(Y|M_j) Pr(M_j)}{\sum_{i=1}^{J} f(Y|M_i) Pr(M_i)}, \quad j = 1, ..., J$$

(2)

where $Y$ indicates the observed data, $Pr(M_j)$ is the researcher’s prior probability that $M_j$ is the true model and $f(Y|M_j)$ is the marginal likelihood for model $M_j$:

$$f(Y|M_j) = \int f(Y|\theta_j, M_j) p(\theta_j|M_j)d\theta_j$$

where $\theta_j$ holds the parameters of the $j^{th}$ model, $f(Y|\theta_j, M_j)$ is the likelihood function for model $M_j$ and $p(\theta_j|M_j)$ is the prior density function for the parameters of $M_j$. In words, the marginal likelihood function has the interpretation of the average value of the likelihood function, and therefore the average fit of the model, over different parameter values. The marginal likelihood plays an important role in Bayesian model comparison, as this term is increasing in sample fit, but decreasing in the number of parameters estimated. This penalty for more complex models naturally prevents overparameterization, an attractive feature for developing a nowcasting model.

The posterior model probability $Pr(M_j|Y)$ can be used to confront model uncertainty. For example, one could select the model with highest posterior probability and then construct nowcasts based on this best model alone. However, this focus on one chosen model ignores potentially relevant information in models other than the chosen model. This is especially important when the posterior model probability is dispersed widely across a large number of models. Instead of basing inference on the single highest probability model, BMA proceeds by averaging posterior inference regarding objects of interest across alternative models, where averaging is with respect to posterior model probabilities. For example, suppose we have
constructed a nowcast for $WBC_t$ from each model $M_j$, and we label these nowcasts $\widehat{WBC}_t^j$.

We can then construct a BMA nowcast as follows:

$$\widehat{WBC}_t = \sum_{j=1}^{J} \widehat{WBC}_t^j \Pr(M_j|Y)$$  \hspace{1cm} (3)

Another object of interest in this setting is the posterior inclusion probability, or $PIP$, for a particular predictor variable. Specifically, suppose we are interested in whether a particular predictor variable, labeled $X_n$, belongs in the true model. The $PIP$ is constructed as:

$$PIP_n = \sum_{j=1}^{J} \Pr(M_j|Y)I_j(X_n)$$  \hspace{1cm} (4)

where $I_j(X_n)$ is an indicator function that is one if $X_n$ is included in model $M_j$ and zero otherwise. In other words, the PIP for $X_n$ is simply the sum of all the posterior model probabilities for all models that include $X_n$. This PIP provides a useful summary measure of which variables appear to be particularly important for nowcasting the WBC variable.

To implement the BMA procedure, we require two sets of prior distributions. The first is the prior distribution for the parameters of each regression model. When the space of potential models is very large, as is the case here, it is useful to use prior parameter densities that are fully automatic, in that they are set in a formulaic way across alternative models. To this end, we follow the strategy of (Fernández et al., 2001) for setting priors for the parameters of linear regression models in BMA applications. These priors are designed for the case where the researcher wishes to use as little subjective information in setting prior densities as possible, and was shown by FLS to both have good theoretical properties and perform well in simulations for the calculation of posterior model probabilities. Additional details can be found in (Fernández et al., 2001).

The second prior distribution we require is the prior distribution across models, $\Pr(M_j)$. Here, we use a prior suggested in Ley and Steel (2009), which is uniform with respect to model
size. In other words, models that include the same number of predictor variables receive the same prior weight. Also, the group of all models that include a particular number of predictor variables receives the same weight as the group of all models that contain a different number of predictor variables. Further details can be found in Ley and Steel (2009.)

While conceptually straightforward, implementing BMA in our setting is complicated by the enormous number of models under consideration. Specifically, the summation in the denominator of Equation (2) includes so many elements as to be computationally infeasible. To sidestep this difficulty we use the Markov-chain Monte Carlo Model Composition ($MC^3$) approach of Madigan and York (1993). $MC^3$ proceeds by constructing a Markov-chain Monte Carlo sampler that produces draws of models from the multinomial probability distribution defined by the posterior model probabilities. It is then possible to construct a simulation-consistent estimate of $Pr(M_j|Y)$ as the proportion of the random draws for which model $M_j$ was drawn. For our implementation of $MC^3$ we use one million draws from the model space, following 100,000 draws to ensure convergence of the Markov-chain based sampler. We implement a variety of standard checks to ensure the adequacy of the number of pre-convergence draws.\footnote{A textbook treatment of the $MC^3$ algorithm can be found in Koop (2003.)}

4 Results

4.1 In-Sample Variable Inclusion Results

BMA constructs nowcasts as an average across models with different sets of predictors. To better understand the set of predictors and which are most useful in nowcasting WBC values, we apply BMA to the full sample of data extending from January 2000 to December 2013. In Table 2 we report the top 10 models ranked by posterior model probability, both for the case where the dependent variable is total WBC tonnage and for the cases where the dependent variable is a specific commodity type. As Table 2 makes clear, these top 10 models
account for less than 2% of the total posterior model probability for all possible models. This suggests that the posterior model probability is spread across a very large number of models, highlighting the significant model uncertainty associated with our dataset. This also highlights the importance of the BMA approach, in that it incorporates the information contained in all models, rather than focusing on any single model that receives low posterior model probability.

### Table 2

<table>
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</tbody>
</table>

*Note: Posterior model probabilities for top 10 highest probability models. All table entries should be multiplied by 10⁻⁷*

Given the empirical relevance of BMA, we next present the PIPs in order to evaluate which locks appear most important for nowcasting WBC. The PIPs are calculated as in Equation (4). Figures 5 and 6 displays the PIPs for total WBC tonnage in two different ways. In Figure 5 the PIPs are presented via a map, where we focus on the main inland waterway network. In Figure 6 we present the posterior inclusion probability for all predictors via a bar chart. The horizontal axis displays each explanatory variable while the vertical axis measures the posterior inclusion probability. The explanatory variables are too voluminous to represent in the figure; however, the ordering follows the river names (Allegheny, Atlantic Intercoastal Waterway, Atchafalaya, Blackwarrior Tombigbee, Calcasieu, Chicago, Canaveral

11The full map is presented in the Appendix Figure 11.
Harbor, Columbia, Cumberland, Freshwater Bayou, Green and Barren, Gulf Intracoastal Waterway, Illinois Waterway, Kanawha, Kaskaskia, Mississippi, Mc-Kerr Arkansas River Navigation System, Monongahela, Ouachita and Black, Old, Ohio, Okeechobee Waterway, Red, St. Marys, Snake, Tennessee, Tennessee Tombigbee Waterway) and lock number, with the final predictor representing the two-month lag unemployment rate. As two examples, the predictor with the largest posterior inclusion probability in Figure 6 corresponds to the Kaskaskia River Navigation Lock (PIP = 0.9995), while the predictor with the second largest posterior inclusion probability corresponds to the Barkley Lock (PIP = 0.8099). This means that out of the models sampled by MC³, the Kaskaskia Lock appeared as a predictor in over 99% of these models.

The results reveal that there exist several explanatory variables that have a high probability of being included in the true nowcasting model; however, the majority of locks have less than a 5% probability of being included in the model. This figure again highlights the advantage of the BMA approach relative to methods that select a particular model. All potential explanatory variables have a non-zero posterior inclusion probability, indicating that all explanatory variables appear in the nowcast. Out of the 1,000,000 draws taken as part of the MC³ algorithm, the average model contains 14 explanatory variables. Hence, BMA is able to directly incorporate all explanatory variables into the nowcast, while also preserving statistical power. In Table 3, we list the explanatory variables with the largest posterior inclusion probabilities. This table highlights the locks that help to predict WBC flows in total commodities. Of the 165 predictors considered, the BMA approach picks up eight locks that appear in at least half of the models sampled by MC³. Note that the Kaskaskia River Navigation Lock has a posterior inclusion probability of 0.9995, which means that this lock appeared in over 99% of the models sampled by MC³. This result is not surprising, as this lock is located in the free-flowing area of the Middle Mississippi River. That is, unlike the Upper Mississippi, which contains a series of locks and dams, the Middle Mississippi only contains this single lock. Additionally, the Middle Mississippi connects waterborne com-
merce between the Upper Mississippi and the Ohio River, the two largest river systems by volume. Hence, any waterborne commerce traveling between the Mississippi River and the Ohio River must travel through and be recorded in the LPMS tonnage of the Kaskaskia River Navigation Lock.

**Figure 5**

**Posterior Inclusion Probability**

In Figure 5, we display the commodity specific posterior inclusion probabilities for locks in the inland waterway network.\(^{12}\) In Figure 8, we present the commodity specific posterior inclusion probabilities for all predictors. The predictive ability of each lock varies by commodity, as expected due to the geographic variation in waterway routes. Similar to the results for total commodities, commodity specific posterior inclusion probabilities reveal substantial model uncertainty. For each commodity, there exist several locks that have a high probability of being included in the model; however, the majority of locks have less than a

\(^{12}\)The full map is presented in Appendix Figure 12.
Figure 6
Posterior Inclusion Probability

Table 3
BMA Results - Total

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Explanatory Variable</th>
<th>PIP</th>
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<td>Kaskaskia</td>
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<td>Barkley Lock</td>
<td>0.8099</td>
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<tr>
<td>Willow Island Locks and Dam</td>
<td>0.6187</td>
<td>Ohio</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Calcasieu Lock</td>
<td>0.5982</td>
<td>Gulf</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cheatham Lock</td>
<td>0.5510</td>
<td>Cumberland</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>John T. Meyers Lock and Dam</td>
<td>0.5098</td>
<td>Ohio</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note: Results for the explanatory variables with PIP > 0.5.*
5% probability of being included in the commodity specific model. Similar to the results for total commodities, commodity specific posterior inclusion probabilities for all explanatory variables are non-zero, revealing that all explanatory variables appear in the nowcast for each commodity.

**Figure 7**
Posterior Inclusion Probability
In Table 4, we present the commodity specific BMA results for the explanatory variables with posterior inclusion probabilities greater than 0.5. For each commodity, there exist different sets of locks that provide superior predictive ability. Note that the chemical results reveal a posterior inclusion probability of 0.9885 for the two-month lag unemployment rate, which means this variable appeared in over 98% of the models sampled by $MC^3$, providing evidence that the unemployment rate contains valuable information in predicting contemporaneous and future chemical WBC flows.
Table 4
BMA Results - Primary Commodities

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Commodity</th>
<th>Explanatory Variable</th>
<th>PIP</th>
<th>River</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Coal</td>
<td>Lock and Dam 52</td>
<td>0.9261</td>
<td>Ohio</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Coal</td>
<td>Winfield Locks and Dam Main 1</td>
<td>0.6804</td>
<td>Kanawha</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Coal</td>
<td>Cheatham Lock</td>
<td>0.5787</td>
<td>Cumberland</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Food &amp; Farm</td>
<td>Kaskaskia River Navigation Lock</td>
<td>0.7489</td>
<td>Kaskaskia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Food &amp; Farm</td>
<td>Old River Lock</td>
<td>0.6725</td>
<td>Old</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Food &amp; Farm</td>
<td>Watts Bar Lock</td>
<td>0.6221</td>
<td>Tennessee</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Petroleum</td>
<td>Inner Harbor Navigation Canal Lock</td>
<td>0.8312</td>
<td>Gulf</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Petroleum</td>
<td>Leland Bowman Lock</td>
<td>0.7830</td>
<td>Gulf</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Petroleum</td>
<td>Lock and Dam 3</td>
<td>0.7126</td>
<td>Monongahela</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Petroleum</td>
<td>Colorado River East Lock</td>
<td>0.5985</td>
<td>Gulf</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Petroleum</td>
<td>Jonesville Lock and Dam</td>
<td>0.5605</td>
<td>Ouachita</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chemical</td>
<td>Unemployment Rate (two-month lag)</td>
<td>0.9885</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chemical</td>
<td>John H. Overton</td>
<td>0.9619</td>
<td>Red</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chemical</td>
<td>Chain of Rocks Lock and Dam 27</td>
<td>0.8814</td>
<td>Mississippi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chemical</td>
<td>Colorado River East Lock</td>
<td>0.6580</td>
<td>Gulf</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: Results for the explanatory variables with PIP > 0.5.

4.2 Out-of-Sample Nowcast Results

This section provides results of an out-of-sample nowcast experiment using our BMA approach. To account for possible changes in the composition of movements over the inland waterway network throughout time, we re-estimate the models on a rolling window prior to forming each out-of-sample nowcast. That is, the model is estimated using data from January 2000 to January 2010 and then a BMA nowcast for January 2000 is constructed. Next, the model is re-estimated using data from February 2000 to February 2010 and then a nowcast for February 2000 is constructed. This process is repeated until we have nowcasts through December 2013.

Figure 9 visualizes the out-of-sample nowcast accuracy of the BMA approach for total WBC tonnage. This plot shows the WBC data relative to the WBC nowcast values for total commodities. Figure 10 visualizes the out-of-sample nowcast accuracy of the BMA approach for specific commodities. These plots show the WBC data relative to the WBC nowcast values for each commodity. The BMA approach is able to predict close to the actual tonnage
for total and for all primary commodities. The $MC^3$ algorithm is capable of providing accurate nowcasts while avoiding the problems associated with an overparameterized model.

**Figure 9**
Comparison of Actual WBC Tons to Nowcast WBC Tons

![Comparison of Actual WBC Tons to Nowcast WBC Tons](image)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Actual</th>
<th>Nowcast</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2010</td>
<td>50.0</td>
<td>50.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2011</td>
<td>52.0</td>
<td>51.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2012</td>
<td>48.0</td>
<td>48.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2013</td>
<td>45.0</td>
<td>44.5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Here, we present a summary measure of how well the BMA procedure performed at estimating the true WBC values at each point in time. Specifically, Table 5 provides the mean squared error ($MSE$) for each commodity and Table 6 provides the average percentage forecast error for each commodity. The $MSE$ for the nowcast is calculated by:

$$MSE = \sum_{t=1}^{T} \frac{1}{T} (\hat{WBC}_t - WBC_t)^2$$  \hspace{1cm} (5)

where $\hat{WBC}_t$ is the BMA nowcast of $WBC_t$ defined in Equation (3). The results indicate that the WBC values were estimated accurately by the BMA approach, with the largest $MSE$ being 356.27, and all commodity specific $MSE$ below 56.97\(^{13}\). Based on these nowcast evaluation metrics, we conclude that the LPMS data provides the most value for predicting contemporaneous values of chemical tonnage, where all $MSE$ are below 8.66. These translate

\(^{13}\)For $MSE$, we scale the units to hundreds of thousands of tons.
into average percentage forecast errors of less than 2.4% for total, 1.3% for coal, 5.7% for food and farm, 2.2% for petroleum, and 4.8% for chemical tonnages.

**Figure 10**
Comparison of Actual WBC Tons to Nowcast WBC Tons (Millions of Tons)

![Comparison of Actual WBC Tons to Nowcast WBC Tons](image)

**Table 5**
Nowcast Evaluation Metrics - $MSE$

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>Coal</th>
<th>Farm</th>
<th>Petroleum</th>
<th>Chemical</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2010</td>
<td>257.76</td>
<td>19.67</td>
<td>46.87</td>
<td>56.94</td>
<td>8.66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2011</td>
<td>356.27</td>
<td>55.73</td>
<td>33.59</td>
<td>43.21</td>
<td>8.45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2012</td>
<td>228.02</td>
<td>32.08</td>
<td>35.79</td>
<td>37.00</td>
<td>5.60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2013</td>
<td>166.20</td>
<td>7.54</td>
<td>28.74</td>
<td>20.00</td>
<td>2.50</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note: Hundreds of thousands of tons.*
Table 6
Average Percentage Forecast Error

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>Coal</th>
<th>Farm</th>
<th>Petroleum</th>
<th>Chemical</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2010</td>
<td>1.98</td>
<td>-0.65</td>
<td>3.23</td>
<td>-0.94</td>
<td>4.75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2011</td>
<td>-2.31</td>
<td>-0.27</td>
<td>2.29</td>
<td>-2.13</td>
<td>2.95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2012</td>
<td>-0.34</td>
<td>0.28</td>
<td>1.08</td>
<td>-1.44</td>
<td>1.02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2013</td>
<td>-0.96</td>
<td>-1.23</td>
<td>-5.69</td>
<td>1.45</td>
<td>-1.27</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

5 Concluding Remarks

This paper develops an estimation technique to nowcast WBC data based on a coincident indicator of LPMS and unemployment data. Nowcasts are averaged across models with different sets of predictors. The results indicate that the LPMS and unemployment data provide valuable information in predicting contemporaneous WBC values, and that a model averaging approach to nowcasting waterborne commerce can substantially increase predictive performance. Benchmark priors provide a data-based method of sifting through and downweighing less relevant explanatory variables. The BMA technique included all potential predictors in each commodity specific nowcast while maintaining sufficient degrees of freedom. Hence, BMA helped to alleviate the problems associated with an overparameterized model while also preserving statistical power. This approach provides a consistent way of incorporating both model and parameter uncertainty.

Historically, nowcasts of waterway traffic were impeded by issues of variable selection and changes in traffic patterns. BMA with $MC^3$ overcomes these issues by sampling the model space and constructing nowcasts that contain highly informative predictors. Individual locks that signal WBC flows are included in producing nowcasts, while excluding locks that contain too much noise. Implementing the nowcast with a rolling window helps to incorporate issues arising from changes in traffic patterns. Leveraging the LPMS and unemployment data to predict contemporaneous and future WBC values provide both market participants and
government policy makers useful information earlier than if they wait for the release of the actual data.

The BMA approach is limited by computational resources and the quality of available data. Market participants and government policy makers interested in quantifying model uncertainty, without prior knowledge of the predictive ability of their covariates, can set benchmark priors and let the data drive the results. This approach can be generalized to wide data sets \((N < K)\) that lack the statistical power necessary to conduct valid inference. Future areas of application may include long-run forecasts of transport demand, where the periodicity and structure of the data tend to dictate the set of feasible and appropriate estimation techniques.
Appendix

Figure 11
Posterior Inclusion Probability

Figure 12
Posterior Inclusion Probability
References


