

1 **The Durability of Economic Indicators in Container Shipping Demand: A Case Study of**
2 **East Asia–US Container Transport**

3

4

Tomoya Kawasaki

5

The University of Tokyo, Tokyo, Japan

6

7

Takuma Matsuda

8

Takushoku University, Tokyo, Japan, and

9

10

Yui-yip Lau and Xiaowen Fu

11

The Hong Kong Polytechnic University, Kowloon, Hong Kong

12

13 **Abstract**

14

In the maritime industry, it is vital to have reliable forecast of container shipping demand.

15

Although indicators of economic conditions have been used in modelling container shipping

16

demand on major routes such as those from East Asia to the US, the durations of such

17

indicators' effects on container movement demand have not been systematically examined. To

18

bridge this gap in research, this study identifies the important US economic indicators that

19

significantly affect the volume of container movements, and empirically reveal the duration of

20

such impacts. We apply the vector autoregression (VAR) model to study time-series data of

21

container movement and economic indicators in the period between 2001 and 2019. The

22

estimation results suggest that in the mainland China route, "building permission" receives

23

high impact and has a duration of 14 months, reflecting the fact that China exports a high

24

volume of housing-related goods to the US. Regarding the South Korea and Japan routes,

25

where high volumes of machinery goods are exported to the US, the "index of industrial

26

production" receives a high impact with 11 and 13 months' duration, respectively. On the

27

Taiwan route, since several types of goods are transported with significant shares, "building

28

permits" and "index of industrial production" have important effects albeit not as large as

29

those observed on the routes of mainland China, South Korea and Japan.

30

31

Keywords: container demand forecast; time-series data; durability; vector error correction

32

model

33

34

35

1 **1. Introduction**

2 The global maritime container trade has increased continuously over the last two decades
3 (UNCTAD, 2019). Container movement forecasting is vital for maritime-related business
4 activities such as vessel deployment and freight rate negotiations. Furthermore, forecasts of
5 container movement are used to predict the stock price of shipping lines. Previous studies
6 have developed forecasting models for the demand for container movement, and the
7 throughput of important routes and ports (e.g., Schulze and Printz, 2010; Parola et al., 2020).
8 The demand for container movement is derived from trade between countries (i.e. derived
9 demand). Thus, in general, the economic conditions of importing countries significantly affect
10 the demand for container movement (Stopford, 2008). The forecast of container movement
11 thus often utilizes various socio-economic indicators of the importing countries. The gross
12 domestic product (GDP) of the importing countries has been one of the most frequently used
13 indicators, which is highly correlated with container demand (e.g. Tally, 2012; Shibasaki and
14 Kawasaki, 2021). For example, the coefficient of correlation between real GDP in the United
15 States (US) and the container movement from Asia to the US was 0.81 in the period between
16 the 1st quarter of 2000 and the 2nd quarter of 2019. However, since GDP statistics released by
17 many official agencies are only available at the quarterly base level, it is not always possible
18 to use this indicator to forecast container movement on a monthly basis. In addition, the use of
19 GDP to forecast container movement is limited to aggregate value estimation, which cannot
20 be used for a specific type of goods (e.g., housing goods, machinery goods, etc.). This is
21 because GDP indicates the overall economic conditions of the countries or regions. Container
22 movements are likely to increase (decrease) when the economic situation of the importing
23 country improves (deteriorates). Furthermore, economic impacts are likely to endure for
24 several months as the effects pass on along the supply chain. For example, if the housing
25 market is booming, the associated derived demands, such as that for furniture, can be
26 expected to grow, and container movements consequently should increase for several months.
27 If we can identify the corresponding durability of each economic indicator's effect on
28 container movement, more accurate and detailed forecast may be developed for container
29 movement.

30
31 Several studies have conducted demand forecasting for cargo movements and port
32 throughputs. Rashed et al. (2017) applied a time-series approach including the autoregressive
33 integrated moving average (ARIMA) model to forecast port throughput at Antwerp. Fung
34 (2010) developed forecast for container throughput by considering the interactive

1 relationships between major ports in Asia using a vector error correction model (VECM). In
2 the bulk shipping market, several studies on demand forecasting can be found. For example,
3 Tsioumas et al. (2017) developed forecasts of the Baltic Dry Index (BDI) by developing a
4 multivariate Vector Autoregressive model with exogenous variables (VARX). Duru et al.
5 (2012) investigated the forecasting accuracy of the dry bulk shipping index using a fuzzy
6 Delphi adjustment process. Based on the existing literatures, it can be understood that
7 economic indicators considered in this study have been identified as significant on container
8 demand by using time-series data. However, to our best knowledge, no studies to date have
9 measured the durability of economic indicators on container movement. To explore this
10 research opportunity, this study aims to identify the durability of economic indicators of
11 importing countries on container movement on a monthly basis, so that demand forecasts can
12 be developed for container movements on trunk lines. The notable originality of this paper is
13 the clarification of their durability on container demand, which is seriously overlooked in
14 existing literatures. Shipping activities related to trunk routes are important to the maritime
15 industry, as it shapes international trade, shipping networks, port cooperation, competition and
16 differentiation (Slack 1985; Lam and Yap 2011; Wang et al. 2012; Zhuang et al. 2014;
17 Homsombat et al. 2015; Notteboom et al. 2017; Zhu et al. 2019). Therefore, we will focus on
18 the analysis of trunk routes, with a case study conducted for Asia-US container shipping
19 which is one of the most important trunk routes in the world. As for Asian exporting
20 countries, we consider China, South Korea, Taiwan, and Japan, the top four countries in
21 terms of container volume to the US in 2019. Furthermore, these countries and regions export
22 different goods. For example, the majority of container cargo from China comprises housing-
23 related goods, whereas that of Japan and South Korea comprises a lot of machinery related to
24 automobiles. In this way, the container volume of top goods differs across countries, and thus
25 US economic indicators are expected to affect container movement of each exporting country
26 differently. Such variability in sample may improve estimation efficiency. In addition, it
27 allows our study to identify the difference in significant economic indicators that affect
28 container movement for each Asian country.

29

30 The remainder of this paper is structured as follows. Section 2 reviews the literature on
31 forecasting maritime cargo demand. In Section 3, an overview of container movement from
32 Asia to the US is described for a better understanding of the current status of our case study
33 route. In Section 4, the model is developed using monthly-level time-series data for the Asia-
34 US container movement as a case study. Because the model applies time-series data, the
35 stationarity of the data is confirmed in this section. Subsequently, the validity of the model is

1 checked by comparing the actual and estimated container movements for each month. In
2 Section 5, the durability of economic indicators is discussed for each exporting country.
3 Finally, conclusions and directions for further research are presented in Section 6.

6 **2. Literature review**

7 Demand forecasting for cargo movements and port throughputs is an important research topic
8 due to market demand in this field, with such studies conducted on various geographical
9 scales. Among these, forecasting container throughputs at ports are the major research targets.

10 Fung (2010) developed forecasts of container throughput by incorporating various interactive
11 relationships between major ports in East and Southeast Asia with VECM, which is one of the
12 time-series analysis methods well developed in econometrics. They identified the earlier
13 construction of new terminal was important for a higher growth of container throughput.

14 Rashed et al. (2018) demonstrated the effect of economic development on container
15 throughput. In particular, they identified a relationship between EU19 trade indices and
16 container throughput in the Hamburg–Le Havre range of ports. Rashed et al. (2017) applied
17 different univariate time-series approaches: the autoregressive integrated moving average
18 (ARIMA) model, namely the ARIMA-intervention model, and the ARIMAX model with a
19 leading economic index. They also recognized as industrial confidence indicator has
20 generated significant positive impact on container throughput in Antwerp port.

21 Kawasaki et al. (2020) used simulation-based analysis to forecast container throughput at Kobe and Osaka
22 ports as a result of the consolidation and privatization of the two ports. Chan et al. (2018)
23 compared several time-series forecasting methods, including machine learning-based methods
24 such as support vector regression (SVR) to forecast the port's container throughput using
25 historical data. Some studies have adopted machine learning to forecast future container
26 demand. In Moscoso-López et al. (2016), two forecasting models are presented and compared
27 to predict the freight volume in the Algeciras port. The models developed and tested are based
28 on artificial neural networks (ANN) and support vector machines (SVM). Both techniques are
29 based on historical data of cargo volume itself, and these methods forecast the daily weight of

30 the freight one week in advance. Bao et al. (2016) proposed a new BDI forecasting model
31 based on a support vector machine combined with correlation-based feature selection (CFS).
32 Tsai and Huang (2014) used ANN to predict container flows by considering GDP, industrial
33 production index, interest rates, the value of the export and import trade, the number of export
34 and import containers, and the number of quay cranes. Gosasang et al. (2011) compared linear
35 regression model and neural network for forecasting container demand in Thailand. They

1 identified crucial factors including GDP, interest rate, exchange rate, and population.
2 Darendeli et al. (2020) applied machine learning for forecasting container demand by using
3 gross domestic product (GDP), inflation rate, and exchange rate. Several studies (e.g.,
4 Vuchelen, 2004) addressed the strong positive association between consumer sentiment and
5 economic condition. Since economic condition is one of the most significant factors affecting
6 trade volume, consumer sentiment index is likely to be a vital factor for forecasting container
7 volume. In addition, container demand itself could not be changed by the governments
8 subsidies scheme to own the ports (Kawasaki et al., 2019).

9
10 Freight demand forecasting for bulk cargo is also a popular research field because of the
11 public availability of several time-series data. For example, Tsioumas et al. (2017) examined
12 the accuracy of the BDI by VARX, which also uses historical time-series data. Duru et al.
13 (2012) proposed a fuzzy-DELPHI adjustment process to improve accuracy and performance
14 in the validation of adjustments of statistical forecasts in the dry bulk shipping index.
15 Kawasaki and Matsuda (2015) developed a logit-based model to forecast container and bulk
16 shipping for wood pulp transport between East Asia and the US. Li et al. (2018),
17 Papapostolou et al. (2016) and Papapostolou et al. (2014) addressed that consideration of
18 sentiment index for future demand forecasting in shipping industry. However, to the best of
19 our knowledge no study to date has measured the impact and durability of economic
20 indicators on container movement.

21
22 To bridge the gap in the literature in terms of the impact of economic indicators and their
23 durability, we developed a time-series model of the container movement from East Asia to the
24 US. The notable advantage of clarifying the durability of an economic indicator is its practical
25 application. If we can identify for how long an economic indicator persists, its impact, ship
26 deployment, and container allocation plans can be efficiently conducted. In addition, detailed
27 container demand forecasting can be used for many other applications, such as forecasting the
28 stock prices of shipping lines, and predict the economic development trend. Demand
29 forecasting of container movements on trunk lines are particularly important, as they play
30 important roles in the understanding of the maritime sector, international trade and global
31 economic development.

3. Overview of container movement from East Asia to the US

Container movement from East Asia to the US is one of the most important shipping routes in the world since its volume is substantially higher than that of the other routes (i.e., in 2019, the East Asia to US route occupied an 11.5% share of the world market) according to the IHS Markit database. In particular, container movement from East Asia to the US is of high volume since many goods are manufactured in Asia and consumed in the US. Shipment from the US to East Asia, in another direction, is approximately half of that outbound to the US, and generally transports lower-valued goods such as salvaged wastepaper (Tran et al., 2021). For the above reasons, our analysis targets sea routes linking four East Asian economies to the US, namely mainland China, South Korea, Taiwan, and Japan.

In this study, the Port of Import/Export Reporting Service (PIERS) database was used for monthly container movement data from East Asia to the US in the period between 2001 and 2019. Figure 1 shows the yearly container movements for each loading East Asian country to the US from 2001 to 2019. From this figure, it can be understood that mainland China export occupies the majority of the container volume of these four East Asian economies (i.e., 82.1% in 2019) to the US. As for the other three economies, Japan used to have higher volume than South Korea and Taiwan. However, South Korea- and Taiwan-originated container cargoes took over that of Japanese cargo in 2013 and 2019, respectively. One of the reasons for this shift is the change in Japan's industrial structure. In the 2000s and 2010s, the main exporting goods changed from final products to intermediate products (METI, 2020). Since intermediate products are physically smaller than final products and are mainly transported to Asian countries where final products are produced and shipped to consuming countries such as the US and EU, container volumes from Japan to final export destination countries have been decreasing.

Table 1 presents the container volume for each type of goods of each loading country in 2019. From mainland China, "furniture and household goods" has an overwhelmingly high share at 15.0% (1,586,000 TEU). This share accounts for 94.9% of total furniture and household goods transported from East Asia to the US. As for South Korea and Japan, "automobile parts" and "machinery" are the major goods for export to the US. South Korea and Japan are in competition with each other with respect to their top export goods. In the Taiwan route, "furniture and household goods" and "machinery" are the top goods transported, and these are also the top goods exported from mainland China, South Korea, and Japan. These

1 fundamental statistics demonstrate that each economy handles different goods; thus, it is
2 expected that the container movement of each sea route is affected by different economic
3 indicators.

4
5 [Insert Figure 1 near here.]

6 [Insert Table 1 near here.]

9 **4. Model**

10 *4.1 Explanatory variables of the VAR model*

11 In this study, the durability of economic indicators on container movements is identified by a
12 vector autoregression (VAR) model using monthly-based time-series data. In the VAR model,
13 we can analyze the effect of economic indicators at $t-k$ on container movement at time t
14 (Hamilton, 1994). In our model, we consider nine US economic indicators as explanatory
15 variables that are likely to affect container movements. Time-series data are used for 228
16 months from January 2001 to December 2019. During this period, there were several major
17 events affecting container movement volume from Asia to the US, such as the bursts of the
18 dot-com bubble in the 2000s, the housing bubble in the late 2000s and early 2010s, and the
19 subprime mortgage crisis between 2007 and 2010 in the US. Since US economic indicators
20 reflect these economic events, our model implicitly incorporates the shocks associated with
21 these events. The following are the explanatory variables considered in this study.

22 23 24 25 *(1) Container movement volume (Y)*

26 The container movement volume, which is the dependent variable of this study, was obtained
27 from the Port Import Export Reporting Service (PIERS) database. Since the PIERS database
28 reports purely observed value, seasonal fluctuations including holidays are not excluded. For
29 example, China's export volume decreases during the month of the Chinese New Year, which
30 is January or February. This kind of seasonal fluctuations are smoothed out from the time
31 series data using the moving average method, so that the effect of economic indicators on
32 container movement volume can be properly observed. Note that the dependent variable (i.e.,
33 container movement volume) of $t-k$ months ago can also be one of the explanatory variables
34 in VAR analysis. However, our objective is to identify the effect of economic indicators and

1 their durability, and thus, the container movement data are only used for the dependent
2 variable.

3
4 *(2) Exchange rate (ER)*

5 Exchange rate is likely to be one of the most significant variables affecting the volume of
6 international trade. For example, when the Chinese Yuan strengthened against the US Dollar,
7 Chinese cargo lost a lot of its price competitiveness. Consequently, the container volume from
8 China decreased. For this reason, we consider the exchange rate of each currency against the
9 US Dollar. The data were obtained from the Federal Reserve Board (FRB), and the average
10 value of a month is used.

11
12 *(3) Leading Economic Index (LEI)*

13 In the US, the Leading Economic Index (LEI) is one of the most well-known indicators of the
14 US's comprehensive economic condition. This indicator is released monthly by The
15 Conference Board, Inc., which is a non-profit business membership and research group
16 organization. This indicator is calculated on the basis of 10 sub-indicators, including average
17 weekly working hours in manufacturing, average weekly initial claims for unemployment
18 insurance, manufacturers' new orders for consumer goods and materials, ISM Index of New
19 Orders, manufacturers' new orders for nondefense capital goods excluding aircraft orders,
20 building permits for new private housing units, stock prices of 500 common stocks, Leading
21 Credit Index (LCI), interest rate spread of 10-year Treasury bonds less federal funds, and
22 average consumer expectations for business conditions. These data were calculated based on a
23 questionnaire survey with 5,000 respondents extracted randomly. If the US economic
24 condition is expected to be good, consumption demand will increase. Thus, the container
25 importing volume also increases.

26
27 *(4) Consumer sentiment index*

28 In the US, consumption activity significantly affects the US economy since consumption
29 occupied approximately 70% of the total real GDP in 2019, according to the US Bureau of
30 Economic Analysis. The University of Michigan Consumer Sentiment Index is released
31 monthly by the University of Michigan Surveys of Consumers, which expresses the
32 consumer's expectations of US economic conditions in the near future. These data are derived
33 on the basis of a questionnaire survey with 500 respondents, excluding the states of Alaska
34 and Hawaii.

1 *(5) Non-farm payroll (EN)*

2 In the US, non-farm sectors account for approximately 95% of real GDP (Clayton, 2018).
3 Thus, labor-related statistics in non-farm sectors should be important information for
4 refracting the economic condition of the US. In this study, we incorporate non-farm payrolls,
5 which are released monthly by the US Department of Labor Bureau of Labor Statistics. This
6 statistic is developed based on the payrolls of approximately 350,000 non-farm private
7 enterprises. It can be considered that if this statistic is in a good condition, the US economy
8 will be upturned; thus, container demand will increase.

9
10 *(6) Unemployment rate (UR)*

11 The unemployment rate is one of the significant labor force-related statistics that is sometimes
12 used as a leading indicator of economic recession (Clayton, 2018). Thus, this statistic seems
13 to be useful for early identification of a reduction in container demand. The data can be
14 obtained monthly from the US Census Bureau of the Department of Commerce.

15
16 *(7) Manufacturing the ISM Report on Business (PMI)*

17 As addressed in Section 2, manufacturing-related goods such as automobile parts and
18 machinery are one of the major type of goods exported from Asia to the US, particularly from
19 South Korea, Taiwan, and Japan. Thus, these data seem to be a significant leading indicator of
20 container demand from these economies. The Manufacturing ISM Report On Business is
21 published monthly by the Institute for Supply Management (ISM). It is based on a national
22 survey of purchasing managers' tracking changes in the manufacturing and non-
23 manufacturing sectors and is considered to be one of the most reliable economic barometers
24 of the US economy that provides an important early look at its economic health (Baumohl,
25 2012).

26
27
28
29 *(8) Building permits (BP)*

30 In Asia-to-US container movement, approximately 20% of the cargo comprises housing-
31 related goods such as furniture and building materials. Thus, new building is an important
32 indicator of container demand. In addition, new buildings foster several derived demands,
33 including furniture, curtains, carpets, etc. For this reason, the impact of this indicator on
34 container demand seems to have long durability. This study uses building permits data, which
35 are released monthly by the US Census Bureau of the Department of Commerce. These data

1 are widely known as a leading indicator of US economic conditions. When economic
2 conditions are good, this indicator increases.

3 4 *(9) Indices of Industrial Production (IIP)*

5 As is widely known, GDP has a strong correlation with container demand (Stopford, 2008).
6 However, GDP cannot be used in this study because it is available as quarterly-based data.
7 Thus, we use the indices of industrial production (IIP) as a proxy of GDP since these
8 indicators are strongly correlated with each other (Clayton, 2018). IIP is released monthly by
9 the FRB and is composed of 295 individual statistics related to production in a wide variety of
10 sectors.

11 12 *(10) Dow Jones Industrial Average (DJI)*

13 The Dow Jones Industrial Average is an indicator of the US stock market published by Dow
14 Jones & Company, Inc. This indicator is a stock market index that measures the stock
15 performance of 30 large companies listed on stock exchanges in the US. The value of the
16 index comprises the sum of the stock prices of the companies included in the index, divided
17 by a factor that, as of September 2020, is approximately 0.152. The factor changes whenever
18 a constituent company undergoes a stock split so that the value of the index is unaffected by
19 the stock split. Stock price is known as a leading indicator of economic boom and recession;
20 thus, it is expected to be related to container demand.

21
22 Using the above 10 economic indicators that are likely to be related to container movement
23 from Asia to the US, the durability and impact on container movement are identified.

24 25 **4.2 Data processing**

26 *4.2.1 Unit root test*

27 In this study, the VAR model is used to analyze the durability and impact of economic
28 indicators on container movement from Asian economies to the US. In the VAR model, it is
29 possible to identify the effect of economic indicators (i.e., explanatory variable) at $t-k$ time on
30 container movement (i.e., dependent variable) at *time t*. Meanwhile, durability can be
31 identified using the concept of impulse responsive function (Hamilton, 1994). The input data
32 comprise monthly time-series data between 2001 and 2019. To avoid spurious correlations
33 between the variables, the stationarity of all input variables needs to be satisfied. Suppose we
34 have time series data y_t , and defined container movement volume y_t at time t and y_{t-k} at k time
35 before. When mean $[E(y_t)]$, variance $[Var(y_t)]$, and autocorrelation $[Cov(y_t, y_{t-k})]$ are constant,

1 as shown in Equations (1)–(3) against the passage of time, the time series process y_t is
 2 identified to satisfy the stationarity. Note that autocorrelation is defined as the correlation
 3 between time t and $t-k$ of the same variable.

$$4 \quad E(y_t) = \mu \quad (1)$$

$$5 \quad Var(y_t) = E[(y_t - \mu)^2] = \gamma_0 \quad (2)$$

$$6 \quad Cov(y_t, y_{t-k}) = E[(y_t - \mu)(y_{t-k} - \mu)] = \gamma_k \quad (3)$$

7
 8
 9 μ , γ_0 , and γ_k indicate the mean, variance, and autocorrelation of the time series data of y_t ,
 10 respectively. To statistically test the existence of stationarity of the time series process, a unit
 11 root test is applied. In this study, the Augmented Dickey-Fuller (ADF) test is applied for the
 12 unit root test. Equation (4) is used for the ADF test.

$$13 \quad \Delta y_t = (\alpha - 1)y_{t-1} + \sum_i \beta_i \Delta y_{t-i} + \mu + e_t \quad (4)$$

14
 15
 16 Here, i is called the lag number. For example, in the case of $i=n$, the data of n time period
 17 before are used for the ADF test, while e_t denotes the error term at time t . In Equation (4), the
 18 null hypothesis is set as $\alpha-1=0$ to test the existence of a unit root. In other words, there is a
 19 unit root in the case of $\alpha=1$. In general, the original time series does not have a unit root in
 20 many cases. In our study, there is no unit root in the original time series; thus, we show the
 21 results of the unit root test for the first difference of a time series in Table 2. Note that the first
 22 difference of a time series is the series of changes from one period to the next.

23
 24 [Insert Table 2 near here.]

25
 26 In the ADF test, one needs to determine the number of lags. Considering the monthly input
 27 data, the number of lags is set to 12 as the maximum number. Subsequently, i is obtained at
 28 the minimum Akaike's information criteria (AIC). Note that the original time-series data do
 29 not have unit roots for the *EN*, *PMI*, *IIP*, *MI*, *DJ*, and *ER* of South Korea and Taiwan. In the
 30 case of the first difference of a time-series data, all data confirm the existence of stationarity
 31 at the 5% significance level, as shown in Table 2. Consequently, we adopt the first difference
 32 of a time-series data for the VAR model development.

1 4.2.2 Cointegration test

2 In the specification of the VAR model using the first difference of a time-series data,
3 cointegration between the variables is likely to exist. In case there is a cointegration between
4 the variables, the vector error correction model (VECM) is used to identify the causal
5 relationship between each explanatory variable and the dependent variable. Thus, a
6 cointegration test was conducted using the maximum eigenvalue and trace test so that the
7 existence of cointegration and its number were identified. As a result of the cointegration test,
8 cointegration for mainland China export was identified as 2 and 3 by the maximum
9 eigenvalue and trace test, respectively, at the 5% significance level. Similarly, the
10 cointegration of South Korea, Taiwan, and Japan export cases are also identified as 3, 3, and 4,
11 respectively, using trace tests. Since cointegrations are identified in all sea routes, the VECM
12 is used for model specification. In the VECM, one needs to determine the number of
13 cointegrations, which normally adopt a larger value among the cointegrations identified by the
14 maximum eigenvalue and trace value. Consequently, the number of cointegrations is three for
15 China, three for South Korea, three for Taiwan, and four for Japan.

17 4.3 Specification of the model

18 Before estimating the model parameters, a correlation analysis is conducted between the
19 explanatory variables to avoid multicollinearity and build a robust model. The results of the
20 correlation analysis suggest that the number of nonfarm employment has a high correlation of
21 0.42 with the industrial production index. Since the model has an employment-related
22 variable such as unemployment rate, the number of nonfarm employees is excluded from the
23 explanatory variables. The correlation between LEI and the number of building permits is
24 relatively high at 0.41. Housing-related goods are of particularly high volume in China and
25 Taiwan exports, and the LEI is somewhat highly correlated with the Industrial Production
26 Index and building permits at 0.50 and 0.41, respectively. We therefore exclude the LEI and
27 retain the IIP and the number of building permits in the model. No other correlations greater
28 than 0.20 are found between the above variables. Six variables are thus used as explanatory
29 variables: exchange rate, consumer confidence index, building permits, industrial production
30 index, unemployment rate, and Dow Jones average. In this study, the VECM is expressed as
31 equations (5) and (6) because the data comprise a first difference series.

$$33 Y_t = \alpha \cdot EC_{t-1} + \sum_{i=1}^{p-1} \gamma_i \cdot \Delta Y_{t-i} + u_t \quad (5)$$

$$EC_{t-1} = \beta_1 Y_{t-1} + \beta_2 ER_{t-1}^{country_i} + \beta_3 CS_{t-1} + \beta_4 UR_{t-1} + \beta_5 PMI_{t-1} + \beta_6 BP_{t-1} + \beta_7 IIP_{t-1} + \beta_8 DJI_{t-1} \quad (6)$$

α , EC , γ , β , and u are column vectors of the coefficient, correction terms, coefficients of variables, column vectors of errors, and constant terms, respectively. Parameter estimation requires the number of lags (p) to be determined. The results of the AIC test show that the optimal number of lags, where the AIC is minimized for all routes, is 2. Therefore, we specify the model as 2 for the number of lags.

The results of the parameter estimation are shown in Table 3. Although it is possible to observe the interrelationships between all the variables used in the model in the VECM, since the purpose of this study is to examine the impact of each economic indicator on the container cargo volume, only those results pertaining to the case where the container cargo volume is the dependent variable are reported. The overall trend is that the coefficients of the China export model are relatively large. For example, for the Consumer Sentiment Index (CS), the coefficients are four digits (-1,479.87, -2,123.93) for the Chinese shipment, while they are two or three digits for other routes. This result suggests that the impact of the economic indicators on the container demand per unit change in the economic indicator is relatively large for Chinese shipments. Since the volume of cargo movement from China is overwhelmingly higher than that on other routes, this result is considered reasonable.

[Insert Table 3 near here.]

4.4 Validity of the model

To check the validity of the constructed model (Table 3), the scatter plots shown in Figure 2(a)–(d) are prepared for each country's exports. The horizontal axis represents the actual value for each month, while the vertical axis represents the estimated value for each month. In the scatter plots, a regression linear line with a slope of 1 through the origin is drawn. If the model perfectly reproduced the actual values, the coefficient of determination of the regression line would be one. As the coefficient of determination approaches zero, it is interpreted as less reproducible. The coefficients of determination for the Chinese, Korean, and Japanese exports are 0.87, 0.83, and 0.75, respectively, which suggest high reproducibility. On the other hand, the coefficient of determination for Taiwanese exports is 0.60, which is high in terms of absolute value, but the reproducibility is relatively low compared to other routes. The top commodities transported on the Taiwan-shipped routes are composed of various items such as automobile, machinery, and housing-related products. The

1 Taiwanese shipment of a relatively wide variety of commodities is influenced by various
2 factors and is more difficult to predict than other routes. To solve this problem, new
3 explanatory variables can be added even with the current high coefficient of determination of
4 0.68. However, because the same explanatory variables are used on all routes, for consistency
5 and benchmarking purpose, the model identified in Table 4 will be used to proceed with the
6 discussion.

7
8 [Insert Figure 2 near here.]
9

10 **5. Effect and durability of economic indicators**

11 Using the identified model shown in Table 4, the impulse reaction function is used to identify
12 the extent to which container cargo movements change and persist when each economic
13 indicator is changed by one standard deviation at $t=0$. Figure 3 (a)–(d) show the results of the
14 impulse reaction functions for shipments from each economy. The horizontal axis represents
15 the monthly change over time, while the vertical axis is the cumulative change in container
16 cargo movements (unit: TEU) in response to changes in each economic indicator $t=k$ months
17 after the change of one standard deviation of each economic indicator at $t=0$. For example, the
18 increase or decrease in container cargo movements after one month ($t=1$) of a one standard
19 deviation increase in the economic indicator at $t=0$ is shown in the “1” on the horizontal axis,
20 while the cumulative container cargo movements after 24 months are shown in the “24” on
21 the horizontal axis. The convergence condition of the durability of container cargo
22 movements was set to be when the relative error of the month-to-month cargo movements is
23 less than a sufficiently small value (ε_G), as shown in Equation (7). Although there is no clear
24 standard for setting ε_G (Barrett, 1994), it is set to 0.01 in this study.

$$\sqrt{(y_t - y_{t-1})^2} / |y_t| < \varepsilon_G \quad (7)$$

25
26
27 Under these conditions, the period during which each economic indicator significantly affects
28 the volume of container cargo movement is shown as a solid line in Figure 3. Subsequently,
29 the solid line is crossed out for economic indicators at $t-k$ that have ceased to persist (i.e.,
30 converged).
31

32
33 First, the results are discussed in terms of the Chinese route shown in Figure 3(a). With regard
34 to the exchange rate, it is clear that the weakening of the US Dollar against the Chinese Yuan

1 had a negative impact that persisted for 10 months. In total, the volume of cargo movements
2 decreased by 1,774 TEUs and weakened the standard deviation of the US Dollar. The most
3 positive impact on China's export volume is caused by the number of building permits, which
4 lasted for 14 months with an increase of 9,654 TEU. The results are in line with expectations,
5 as furniture and household goods (i.e., furniture and household goods and plastic products for
6 flooring, blinds) accounted for 21.2% of the total container volumes in Chinese export and are
7 heavily influenced by trends in the US housing market. However, its effect is smaller than the
8 other indicators after the changes (i.e., 1–4 months after the change) due to the time lag
9 between building permit and container demand. On the other hand, PMI, DJI, and IIP have a
10 higher positive impact on the container volume than that of BP in the early stages (i.e., 1–4
11 months after the change). In particular, PMI has a relatively high impact with a 6,594 TEU
12 increase in volume after four months. The timing and magnitude of the impact of economic
13 indicators vary. Therefore, it can be suggested that when forecasting container cargo
14 movements, not only the extent to which each economic indicator affects the volume of cargo
15 movement, but also the different timing of its manifestation should be considered.

16

17 For the South Korean shipment shown in Figure 3(b) and the Japanese shipment shown in
18 Figure 3(d), the impact of IIP is significant because the top cargoes include a large share of
19 machinery, such as automobile-related products and general electronics equipment. It can be
20 observed that the influence of the IIP tends to become evident at the early stage in both
21 countries. Subsequently, its impacts are gradually increasing for South Korean cargo and
22 decreasing for Japanese cargo. Therefore, it should be noted that a relatively large change in
23 cargo movements is expected to occur immediately after the change in IIP in the forecast of
24 container cargo movements in both countries. In addition, the impact of PMI is the largest for
25 South Korean cargo with 10 months' duration. The duration of the consumer sentiment index
26 persists for 16 months for the Korean shipment, while the building permit persists for 15
27 months for the Japanese shipment, which is the longest duration of impact. Similar to Chinese
28 shipments, the exchange rate for South Korean and Japanese shipments had a negative impact
29 on container movement when the US dollar weakened against the currency of these countries.

30

31 For the Taiwanese shipment shown in Figure 3(c), the index of industrial production is also
32 found to have an early onset of impact. On the other hand, the number of building permits
33 ultimately has the largest impact, although it appears relatively later. The top-ranking cargoes
34 in Taiwan are less concentrated on specific commodities; thus, the impact of each economic
35 indicator on the volume of cargo movement after convergence is smaller than that of other

1 economies, ranging from -30 to 270 TEUs. The industrial production index and building
2 permits have similar impacts. Therefore, when forecasting Taiwanese container cargo
3 movements, one needs to pay attention to the movements immediately after the change in
4 economic indicators of the IIP and building permits.

5
6 [Insert Figure 3 near here.]
7
8

9 **6. Conclusion**

10 In this study, we investigate the duration of US economic indicators for container movements
11 from East Asian countries to the US. A model is developed for shipments from large East
12 Asian countries and regions such as mainland China, South Korea, Taiwan, and Japan. This is
13 the first attempt for identifying the durability of the impact of economic indicators on
14 container movements, which is especially valuable information for maritime-related business
15 such as vessel deployment, manufacture's business plan, and freight rate negotiation. As for
16 shipping lines, our results can provide directions for portfolio analysis of vessel deployment
17 and investment. Since our results provide a durability of the impact of change in economic
18 indicators, proper vessel deployment and space chartering can be conducted although sudden
19 adjustments in vessel deployment is not easy for shipping lines. Besides, manufacturers in
20 exporting countries and consignees in importing countries make proper decision making for
21 change in their production volume according to the change in economic indicators. The
22 findings demonstrate that each economy is affected by different economic indicators with
23 different durations. In the Chinese shipment, the number of building permits has a significant
24 impact because there is a large share of housing-related products, and their impact on the
25 shipment continues for 14 months, which is the longest duration for Chinese shipment. For
26 the Korean and Japanese shipments, which transport a large volume of machinery-related
27 goods, the industrial production index for both countries and PMI for South Korea had a
28 significant impact. As for the effect on Taiwanese shipment, the impact of economic
29 indicators was relatively smaller than that of other countries as an overall trend.

30
31 This study has several limitations. Because actual shipping volumes may be constrained by
32 supply in the maritime sector, future works may include the development of a decision-
33 making model for vessel allocation planning (timing, number of vessels, etc.). Also because
34 there is no clear criterion for the convergence condition, in this study, the convergence
35 condition was set based on an error criterion of less than 0.01 for the relative error of cargo

1 movement in the previous month. However, the convergence values and persistence differ
2 depending on the method of setting the error criterion; thus, further study is of good value .
3 Furthermore, our study focuses on container transport between East Asia and US lead to a
4 lack of generalization. The theoretical foundation for the identified patterns, such as the
5 underlying linkage between building permit and export volume, is yet to be formulated. In
6 doing so, we may further extend our study in different sectors (e.g., tanker, dry bulk) across
7 different geographical regions (e.g., East Asia and Europe), and explore potential causal
8 relationships among the indicators included in the study.

10 Acknowledgements

11 This work was supported by JSPS KAKENHI, Grant Number 20K22129.

13 References

- 14 Bao, J., Pan, L., and Xie, Y. (2016). "A new BDI forecasting model based on support vector
15 machine", in *2016 IEEE Information Technology, Networking, Electronic and
16 Automation Control Conference*.
- 17 Barrett, R. et al. (1994). *Templates for the Solution of Linear Systems: Building Blocks for
18 Iterative Methods*, 2nd Edition. SIAM Philadelphia, PA.
- 19 Bernard, B. (2012). *The Secrets of Economic Indicators: Hidden Clues to Future Economic
20 Trends and Investment Opportunities*. FT Press.
- 21 Chan, H.K., Xu, S., and Qi, X. (2018). "A comparison of time series methods for forecasting
22 container throughput". *International Journal of Logistics Research and Applications*. Vol.
23 22, pp. 294-303.
- 24 Clayton, G. (2018). *A Guide to Everyday Economic Statistics English Edition*. McGraw-Hill.
- 25 Darendeli, A., Alparslan, A., Erdoğan, M.S., Kabadurmuş, O. (2020) "Container Demand
26 Forecasting Using Machine Learning Methods: A Real Case Study from Turkey". In:
27 Durakbasa N.M., Gençyılmaz M.G. (eds) *Digital Conversion on the Way to Industry 4.0*.
28 ISPR 2020. Lecture Notes in Mechanical Engineering. Springer, Cham.
- 29 Duru, O., Bulut, E., and Yoshida, S. (2012). "A fuzzy extended DELPHI method for
30 adjustment of statistical time series prediction: An empirical study on dry bulk freight
31 market case". *Expert Systems with Applications*. Vol. 39 No. 1, pp. 840-848.
- 32 Fung, K.F. (2010). "Competition between the ports of Hong Kong and Singapore: A structural
33 vector error correction model to forecast the demand for container handling services".
34 *Maritime Policy & Management*, Vol. 28 No. 1, pp. 3-22.
- 35 Gosasang, V., Chandraprakaikul, W., Kiattisin, S. (2011). A Comparison of Traditional and
36 Neural Networks Forecasting Techniques for Container Throughput at Bangkok Port, *The
37 Asian Journal of Shipping and Logistics*, 27(3), 463-482.
- 38 Hamilton, J.D. (1994). *Time Series Analysis*. Princeton University Press.
- 39 Homsombat, W., Ng, A. K. and FU, X. (2016). Regional transformation and port cluster
40 competition: The case of the Pearl River Delta in South China". *Growth and Change*, 47,
41 pp. 349-362.

- 1 Kawasaki, T. and Matsuda, T. (2014). “Containerization of bulk trades: A case study of US–
2 Asia wood pulp transport”. *Maritime Economics & Logistics*. Vol. 17 No. 2, pp. 179–197.
- 3 Kawasaki, T., Tagawa, H., Watanabe, T., and Hanaoka, S. (2020). “The effects of
4 consolidation and privatization of ports in proximity: A case study of the Kobe and Osaka
5 ports”. *The Asian Journal of Shipping and Logistics*. Vol. 36 No. 1, pp. 1–12.
- 6 Kawasaki, T., Tagawa, H., Tamane, T., Hanaoka, S., and Watanabe, T. (2019). “Effects of
7 Incentive Policy on Maritime Stakeholders in Japanese Local Ports”. *Journal of the
8 Eastern Asia Society for Transportation Studies*, 13, 2260-2277.
- 9 Lam, J. S. L. and Yap, W. Y. (2011). “Container port competition and complementarity in
10 supply chain systems: Evidence from the Pearl River Delta”. *Maritime Economics &
11 Logistics*, 13, pp.102-120.
- 12 Li, K.X., Xiao, Y., Chen, S.L., Zhang, W., Du, Y. and Shi, W. (2018), Dynamics and
13 interdependencies among different shipping freight markets, *Maritime Policy &
14 Management*, 45(7), 837-849.
- 15 Ministry of Economy, Trade and Industry of Japan (METI). (2020). White paper of commerce,
16 Japan (in Japanese).
- 17 Moscoso-López, J.A., Turias, I.J.T., Come, M.J., Ruiz-Aguilar, J.J., and Cerbán, M. (2016).
18 “Short-term forecasting of intermodal freight using ANNs and SVR: Case of the Port of
19 Algeciras Bay”. *Transportation Research Procedia*, Vol. 18, pp. 108-114.
- 20 Notteboom, T., Parola, F., Satta, G. and Pallis, A. A. (2017). “The relationship between port
21 choice and terminal involvement of alliance members in container shipping”. *Journal of
22 Transport Geography*, 64, pp.158-173.
- 23 Papapostolou, N.C., Pouliaxis, P.K., Nomikos, N.K., Kyriakou, I. (2016). “Shipping investor
24 sentiment and international stock return predictability”. *Transportation Research Part E:
25 Logistics and Transportation Review*, 96, 81-94.
- 26 Papapostolou, N.C., Nomikos, N.K., Pouliaxis, P.K., Kyriakou, I. (2014). “Investor Sentiment
27 for Real Assets: The Case of Dry Bulk Shipping Market”. *Review of Finance*, 18(4),
28 1507–1539.
- 29 Parola, F., Satta, G., Notteboom, T. (2020). “Revisiting traffic forecasting by port authorities
30 in the context of port planning and development”. *Maritime Economics and Logistics*,
31 doi.org/10.1057/s41278-020-00170-7
- 32 Rashed, Y., Meersman, H., Sys, C., Van de Voorde, E., and Vanelslander, T. (2018). “A
33 combined approach to forecast container throughput demand: Scenarios for the Hamburg-
34 Le Havre range of ports”. *Transportation Research Part A: Policy and Practice*, Vol. 117,
35 pp.127-141.
- 36 Rashed, Y., Meersman, H., Van de Voorde, E., and Vanelslander, T. (2017). “Short-term
37 forecast of container throughput: An ARIMA-intervention model for the port of
38 Antwerp”. *Maritime Economics & Logistics*. Vol.19, pp.749–764.
- 39 Schulze, P.M. and Printz, A. (2010). “Forecasting container transshipment in Germany”.
40 *Applied Economics*. Vol. 41 No. 22, pp.2809–2815.
- 41 Shibasaki, R. and Kawasaki, T. (2021). International intermodal container shipping network
42 in South Asia: modelling and policy simulations, *International Journal of Shipping and
43 Transport Logistics*, 13(1/2), 70-101.
- 44 Slack, B. (1985). “Containerization, inter-port competition, and port selection”. *Maritime
45 policy and management*, 12, pp. 293-303.

- 1 Stopford, M. (2008). *Maritime Economics*, 3rd Edition. Routledge.
- 2 Tally, W.K. (2012). *The Blackwell Companion to Maritime Economics*. Wiley-Blackwell.
- 3 Tran, T., Goto, H., Matsuda, T. (2021). “The Impact of China’s Tightening Environmental
4 Regulations on International Waste Trade and Logistics”. *Sustainability*, 13(2), 987.
- 5 Tsai, F.M. and Huang, L.J.W. (2015). “Using artificial neural networks to predict container
6 flows between the major ports of Asia”. *International Journal of Production Research*.
7 Vol. 55 No.17, pp.5001-5010.
- 8 Tsioumas, V., Papadimitriou, P., Smirlis, Y., and Zahrand, S.Z. (2017) “A novel approach to
9 forecasting the bulk freight market”. *The Asian Journal of Shipping and Logistics*. Vol.
10 33 No. 1, pp.33-41.
- 11 United Nations Conference on Trade and Development (UNCTAD). (2019). Review of
12 Maritime Transport 2019, Geneva.
- 13 Vuchelen, J. (2004). “Consumer sentiment and macroeconomic forecasts”. *Journal of*
14 *Economic Psychology*, 25(4), 493-506.
- 15 Wang, K., Ng, A., Lam, J. and Fu, X., (2012). “Cooperation or competition? Factors and
16 conditions affecting regional port governance in South China”, *Maritime Economics &*
17 *Logistics*, 14(3), pp.386-408.
- 18 Zhuang, W., Luo, M. and FU, X. (2014). “A game theory analysis of port specialization—
19 implications to the Chinese port industry”. *Maritime Policy & Management*, 41, pp. 268-
20 287.
- 21 Zhu, S., Fu, X., Bell, M., (2019). "Container shipping line port choice patterns in East Asia -
22 The effects of port affiliation and spatial dependence", University of Sydney ITLS
23 Working paper.
- 24
- 25