## Traffic Econometrics Master's Course

## Lecture 01: General



### 1.1 Scope of econometrics - from a mathematical point of view

Economic Theories

Mathematical
Methods

Data, Statistics

### 1.1 Scope of econometrics - from a mathematical point of view



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### 1.1 Scope of econometrics - from a mathematical point of view



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The field of Traffic Econometrics includes all mathematical models and statistical procedures to quantitatively analyze empirical (transportation) data with respect to economic effects.

### 1.2 General procedure of an econometric analysis

Defining the objectives Literature, past research

### 1.2 General procedure of an econometric analysis



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### 1.3 Information flow of an econometric model



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### 1.4 General Criteria for the Model Selection

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$\rightarrow$ A model consists of one or more equations $Y_{k}=f_{k}(\tilde{\boldsymbol{x}}, \boldsymbol{\beta})+\epsilon_{k}$ explaining the output quantity $Y_{k}$ as a function of the input $\tilde{\boldsymbol{x}}$
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- The name endogenous variable comes from the Greek endo $(\epsilon \nu \delta)$ and the suffix gen ( $\gamma \epsilon \nu \circ \varsigma$ ) meaning generated from the inside [the model]
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Formulate conditions for the $Y_{k}$ in order to ensure that the choice set is exclusive and complete

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The random terms $\epsilon_{k}$, also called residual terms (from residuum: the rest) summarize all what is not known and cannot be explained by the exogenous/explanatory variables:

Scio nescio (I know that I do not know)
possible reasons for $\epsilon_{k}$

- model does not include all relevant exogenous variables (watch out for bias!)
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man $\neq$ machine; homo $\neq$ homo oeconomicus
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## Model parameters

The model parameters $\beta_{j}, j=0, \ldots, J$ tune the model to fit the data

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To test the explanatory/prediction power of a model, the calibrated model is applied to test data sets with known output, a process called validation

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The model function is a mathematical representation of the economic process under investigation. The model's mathematical structure must reflect reality as well as possible:

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Make it as simple as possible but not simpler (Einstein)

## Mathematical structure I: linear vs. nonlinear

Four steps from linearity to nonlinearity:

1. Truly linear models:

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Y=\hat{y}(\tilde{\boldsymbol{x}}, \boldsymbol{\beta})+\epsilon=\sum_{j=0}^{J} \beta_{j} \tilde{x}_{j}+\epsilon=\boldsymbol{\beta}^{\prime} \tilde{\boldsymbol{x}}+\epsilon
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Because of linearity, each endogenous variables has its own uncoupled single equation, so it is enough to consider a single component.

Parameter-linear (quasi-linear) models

If it is reasonable to assume fixed (generally nonlinear) functions $x_{j}=g_{j}(\tilde{\boldsymbol{x}})$, we have a linear model with the factors $x_{i}$ becoming the "new" exogenous variables

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- $y$ : distance [km/year] (deterministic because of "average" )


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$g_{0}(\tilde{\boldsymbol{x}})=1, g_{1}(\tilde{\boldsymbol{x}})=\tilde{x}_{1}, g_{2}(\tilde{\boldsymbol{x}})=\tilde{x}_{2}, g_{3}(\tilde{\boldsymbol{x}})=\tilde{x}_{1} \tilde{x}_{2}$,

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- $y$ : distance [km/year] (deterministic because of "average" )
- $\tilde{x}_{1}$ : income [ $€ /$ year]
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! $x_{0}=1$ : constant; $x_{1}=\tilde{x}_{1}$ : increase with income $\left(\beta_{1}>0\right) ; x_{2}=\tilde{x}_{2}$ : price sensitivity $\left(\beta_{2}<0\right)$; $x_{3}=\tilde{x}_{1} \tilde{x}_{2}$ : increase of price sensitivity (becoming less negative) with increasing income ( $\beta_{3}>0$ )

## Mathematical structure I: linear vs. nonlinear 3

3. Nonlinear models that can be linearized

Classical example: unlimited growth

$$
G(t)=G_{0} e^{t / \tau+\epsilon}
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- endogenous variable $G$ : growth measure, e.g., company size, \#items sold of a newly introduced product


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Linearisation:
Reformulation by setting
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\text { Linearisation: } \quad Y(t)=\ln G(t)=\ln G_{0}+\frac{t}{\tau}+\epsilon
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Reformulation by setting $x_{0}=1, x_{1}=t, \beta_{0}=\ln G_{0}, \beta_{1}=1 / \tau$.

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Standard form: $Y(\boldsymbol{x})=\boldsymbol{\beta}^{\prime} \boldsymbol{x}+\epsilon$

30,000.00

25,000.00

20,000.00

15,000.00

10,000.00

100,000

10,000


## Mathematical structure I: linear vs. nonlinear 4

4. Irreducibly nonlinear models Classical example: limited growth

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y(t)=\frac{y_{s}}{1+\left(y_{s} / y_{0}-1\right) e^{-t / \tau}}
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## - Solution of the ODE <br> for the initial value

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$y\left(t_{0}\right)=y_{0}$
$\rightarrow$ Plot for $t_{0}=1950, y_{0}=3 \%, y_{s}=60 \%$, and $\tau=10$ years


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? What might this represent?
! For example, the penetration rate for passenge
 cars per person.


## Actual example: Corona simulation



Simplest macroscopic SI (susceptible-infected) model:
$y(t+\tau)=y(t)+R_{0} y(t)(1-y(t)) \rightarrow$ same model as above $\Rightarrow$ Lecture 01a

## Mathematical structure II: Other criteria

- deterministic vs. stochastic models
- \#exogenous variables: 1: univariate; $\geq 2$ multivariate models
\#endogenous variables: single- vs. multi-equation models


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## Linking



One or more endogenous variables of a model equation serve as exogenous variables of other model equations

## Chaining



The endogenous variables of Model 1 serve as exogenous variables of Model 2
$\rightarrow$ Special case of chaining: time evolution: the endogenous variables at time $t$ are the exogenous variables at the next time sten $t+\Delta t$
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## Chaining



The endogenous variables of Model 1 serve as exogenous variables of Model 2


- Special case of chaining: time evolution: the endogenous variables at time $t$ are the exogenous variables at the next time step $t+\Delta t$
- The model itself is generally the same in all steps (autonomous model)


## Feedback



Combination of chaining and linking

## Complex example: Four-Step Model of transportation planning




[^0]:    - random multiplicative factor

