

## 8. Intelligent Transportation: Dynamic Routing

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- Smart highways
  - Sensing technology
  - Control technology
- Traffic flow model
  - Flow-density relation
  - Cell transmission model
- Ramp metering
  - Flow stabilization
  - Throughput maximization
  - Delay minimization

# Outline

- Background
  - Static & dynamic routing
  - Applications
- Single & parallel queues
  - Arrival process & service processes
  - Single queue
  - Parallel queues
- Queuing networks
  - Model
  - Bernoulli routing
  - Dynamic routing

# Background: static routing

- Data:
  - Demand
  - Cost function
  - Capacity
- Decision variables:
  - Link flows
- Constraints:
  - Mass conservation
  - Link capacity
- Objective:
  - Minimize total flow cost

# Background: static vs. dynamic routing

## Static routing

- At each diverge, traffic assigned to downstream links with time-invariant fractions.
- Only depends on model data (demand & capacity)
- Independent of real-time traffic condition (open-loop)
- Not responsive to disruptions

## Dynamic routing

- At each diverge, traffic assigned with time-variant fractions.
- Depends on both model data and real-time traffic condition (closed-loop)
- Can respond to disruptions
- Requires real-time sensing capabilities

# Background: dynamic routing

- Data:
  - Demand, Cost function, Capacity
  - Real-time traffic state (e.g. queue size)
- Decision variables:
  - Routing for each vehicle/customer/job
- Constraints:
  - Mass conservation
  - Link capacity
- Objective:
  - Minimize total travel cost, typically starting from current state

# Vehicle routing

- A vehicle starts its trip from origin to destination
- Baidu Map or AMAP suggests multiple possible routes
- Estimated travel time on each route is predicted
- Typically vehicles select the fastest route
- Such routing is responsive to traffic congestion & traffic incidents
- Dynamic routing!



# Customer routing

- Suppose that a supermarket has multiple cashiers
- Customers wait in separate queues for the cashiers
- When a customer arrives, he/she selects the shortest queue to join (“JSQ” policy)
- Or, joining the queue with the least items, one customer buying one week’s supply vs. two customers buying two drinks





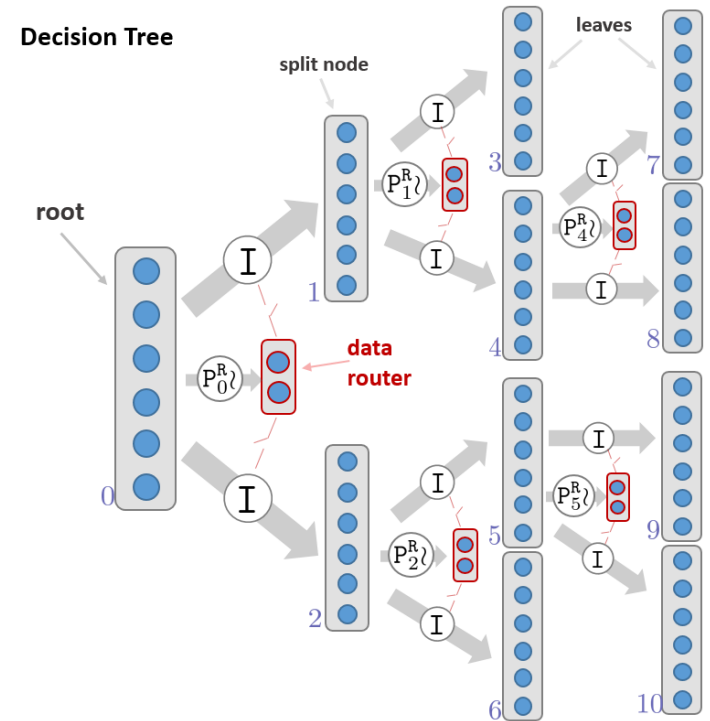
# Air traffic management

- Air routes connecting airports
- Traffic flow on each route
- Traffic on different route may interact within sectors
- Sector can get congested
- Each flight needs to determine the path, i.e. sequence of sectors



# Data job routing

- Jobs received by a router
- Router assigns each job to a server
- Jobs processed by a server is allocated to a further downstream server
- JSQ: a router always allocate an incoming job to the least busy server, i.e. the server with the shortest job queue



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# Queuing node model

- A node contains a server and a queuing space
- State  $X(t)$  = # of customers waiting or being served at the node
- If  $X(t) = 3$ , then 2 customers are waiting and 1 being served.
- For ease of presentation, we consider discrete time

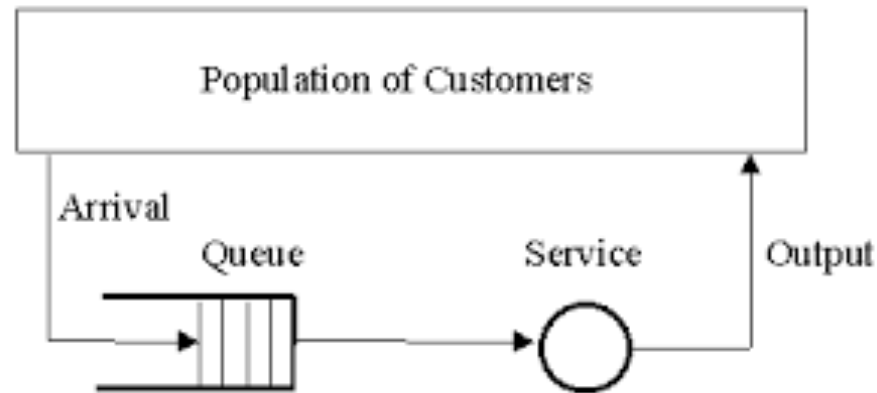


Figure 1

# Arrival process

- We consider a stochastic arrival process at node  $i$
- **Bernoulli process:**
  - A customer arrives at node  $i$  during one time step with probability  $\lambda \in [0,1]$
  - No customers arrive at node  $i$  with probability  $1 - \lambda$
- Expected # of arrivals per time step =  $\lambda$  (demand)
- Probability mass function (PMF) for inter-arrival time
$$p_U(u) = (1 - \lambda)^{u-1} \lambda, u \in \mathbb{Z}_{>0}.$$
- Expected inter-arrival time =  $1/\lambda$ .
- Distribution over  $T$  time steps:
$$p_N(n) = \binom{T}{n} \lambda^n (1 - \lambda)^{T-n} = C_n^T \lambda^n (1 - \lambda)^{T-n}$$

for  $N = 0, 1, \dots, T$
- Upon arrival, a customer
  - enters the server and begins its service if the server is empty
  - joins the queue and waits otherwise

# Service process

- We consider a probabilistic service process:
  - Suppose that a customer is being served at time  $t$
  - The customer finishes service and leaves the current node at time  $t + 1$  with probability  $\mu$
  - The customer stays in the node and continues its service with probability  $1 - \mu$
- As soon as a customer finishes service, the next customer enters the server and begins its service
- Otherwise, the subsequent customers have to continue waiting
- PMF for service time  $p_V(v) = (1 - \mu)^{v-1} \mu, v \in \mathbb{Z}_{>0}$ .
- Expected service time =  $1/\mu$ .

# A single-node queuing system

- Consider an isolated node
- A single node with
  - Bernoulli arrivals with rate  $\lambda$
  - Probabilistic service with rate  $\mu$
- State of the system:  $X[t]$  = queue size at time  $t$
- Given  $X[t]$ , we can predict the distributions for  $X[t + 1], X[t + 2], \dots$

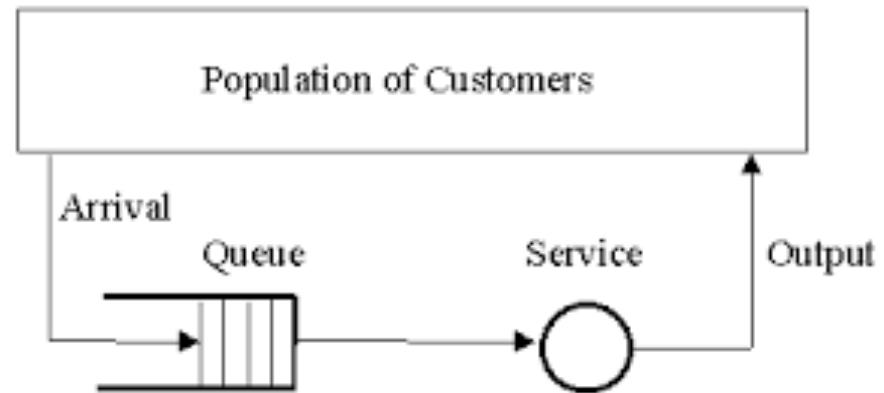


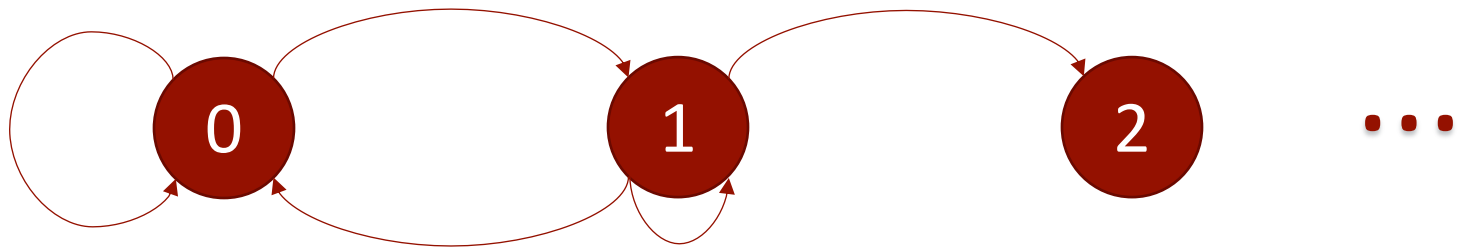
Figure 1

# A single-node queuing system

- State transition probabilities (system dynamics)
- Suppose  $X[t] = x > 0$ 
$$\Pr\{X[t + 1] = x - 1\} = \mu(1 - \lambda)$$
$$\Pr\{X[t + 1] = x + 1\} = \lambda(1 - \mu)$$
$$\Pr\{X[t + 1] = x\} = (1 - \lambda)(1 - \mu) + \lambda\mu$$
- Interpretation of the three formulae?
- Suppose  $X[t] = 0$ 
$$\Pr\{X[t + 1] = 0\} = 1 - \lambda$$
$$\Pr\{X[t + 1] = 1\} = \lambda$$
- Can you draw the state transition diagram?



# A single-node queuing system



# A single-node queuing system

- Of particular interest is the steady-state behavior of the queuing system.
- Simplistically, steady-state behavior  $\approx$  long time average. (*Ergodicity*)
- The most important performance metric for a queuing system is the steady-state or long time-average queue size

$$\bar{X} = \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{t} \sum_{s=0}^t X[s] = ?$$

- We say that the queuing system is
  - stable or convergent if  $\bar{X} < \infty$
  - unstable if  $\bar{X} = \infty$
- Can you make a scientific guess when is the queue stable?

# [Not required] A single-node queuing system

- Let  $p_{ij}$  be the **transition probabilities**, i.e.

$$p_{ij} = \Pr\{X(t+1) = j | X(t) = i\}$$

- Let  $\pi_i$  be the **steady-state probabilities**, i.e.

$$\lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} \Pr\{X(t) = i\} = \pi_i$$

- The steady-state equations for the queuing system is

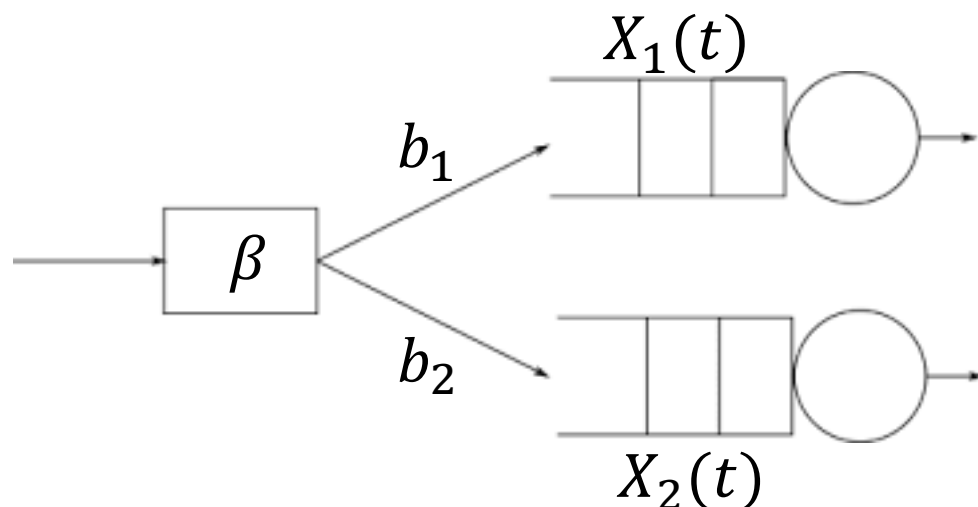
$$\begin{aligned} p_{01}\pi_0 &= p_{10}\pi_1 \\ (p_{i-1,i} + p_{i,i+1})\pi_i &= p_{i-1,i}\pi_{i-1} + p_{i+1,i}\pi_{i+1}, \quad i = 1, 2, \dots \\ \pi_0 + \pi_1 + \pi_2 + \dots &= 1. \end{aligned}$$

- Then we can obtain  $\pi_i$  by solving the above equations
- $\bar{X} = \sum_{x=0}^{\infty} \pi_x x$
- Can you derive  $\pi_x$ ?

# Routing for parallel queues

- Customers arrive at a router with rate  $\lambda$
- Router assigns customer to one of two parallel queues
- State:  $X[t] = [X_1[t] X_2[t]]^T \in \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 0}^2$
- Routing policy:

$$\beta: \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 0}^2 \rightarrow [0,1]^2 \text{ or } \beta: \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix} \mapsto \begin{bmatrix} b_1 \\ b_2 \end{bmatrix} \text{ s.t. } b_1 + b_2 = 1.$$



**Bernoulli (static) routing:**

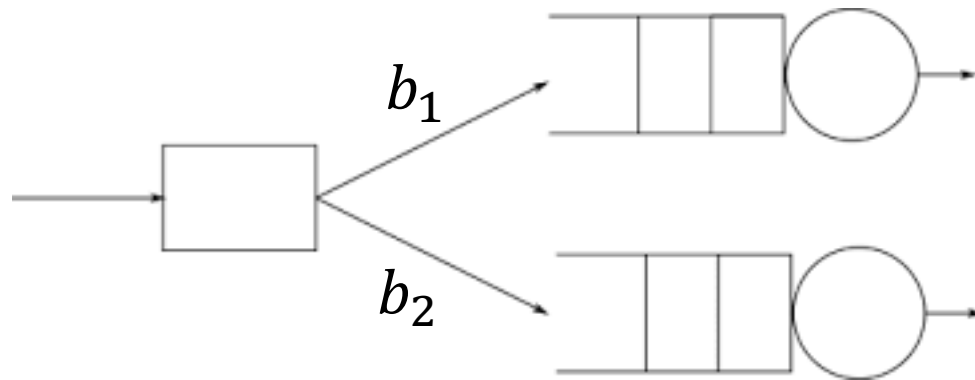
$\beta(x)$  independent of  $x$ .

**Dynamic routing:**

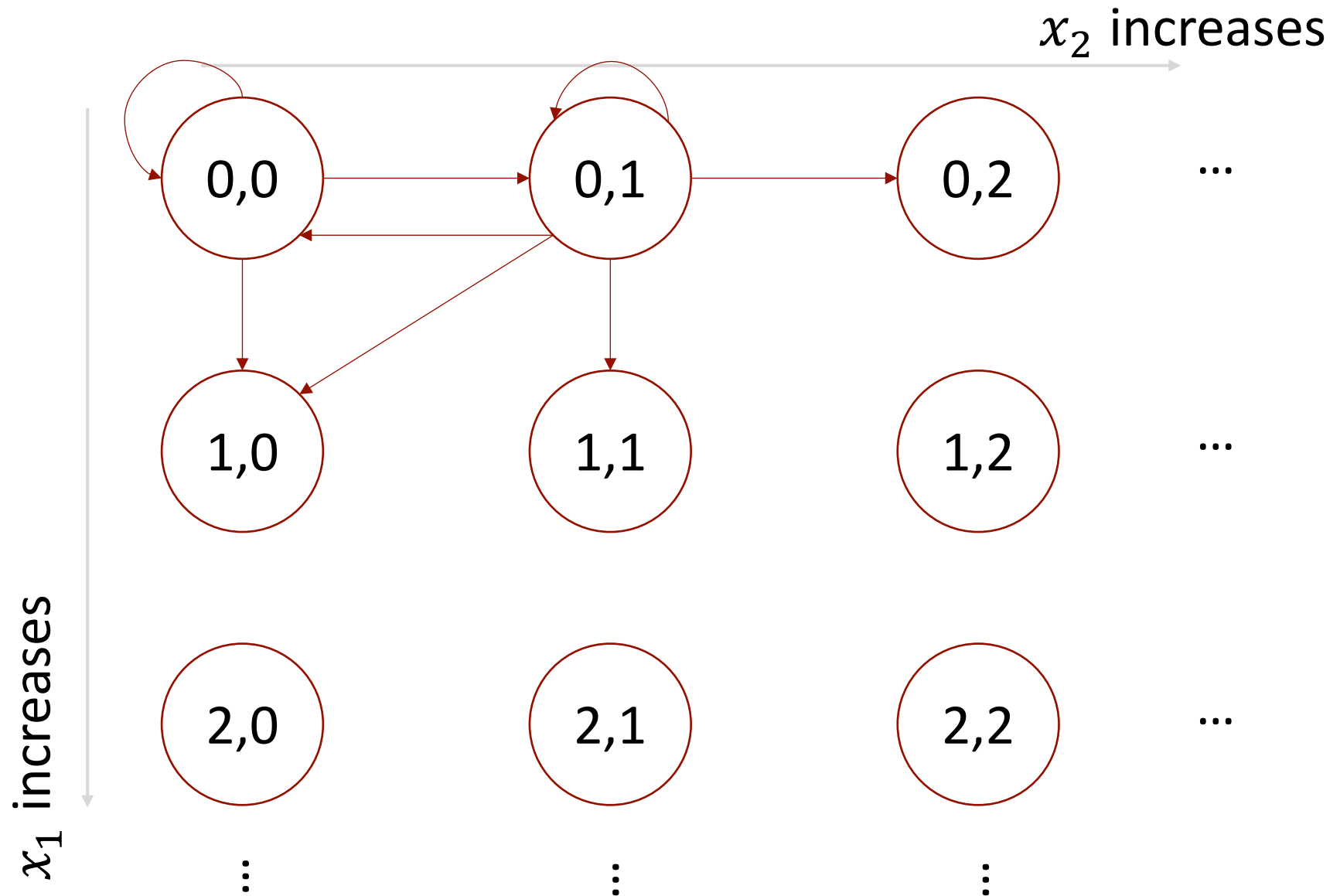
$\beta(x)$  dependent of  $x$

# Bernoulli routing

- When a customer arrives, it is assigned to queue 1 with probability  $b_1$  and queue 2 with probability  $b_2$ , respectively.
- $b_1 \in [0,1]$ ,  $b_2 \in [0,1]$ ,  $b_1 + b_2 = 1$
- Open-loop routing
- Independent of  $X(t)$
- State transition diagram?

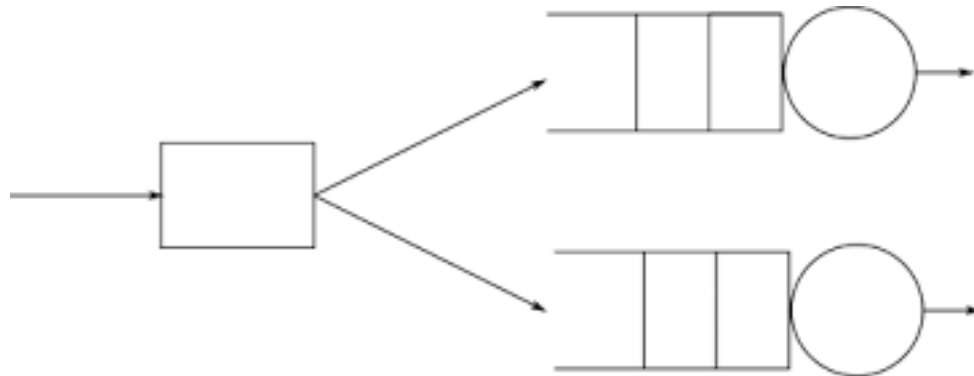


# State-transition diagram (Bernoulli routing)



# Dynamic routing: parallel queues

- Now suppose that we can route an incoming customer according to the real-time traffic state  $X(t)$
- What is a good way of routing?
- Intuition:
  - If a queue is long, then do not add the customer to it.
  - If a queue is short, then it is OK to add the customer to it.
- “Join the shortest queue” (JSQ) policy
- State transition diagram?



# State-transition diagram (JSQ routing)





# Dynamic routing: parallel queues

- JSQ policy:

$$\beta(x) = \begin{cases} [1 \ 0]^T & x_1 < x_2 \\ [0 \ 1]^T & x_1 > x_2 \\ ? & x_1 = x_2 \end{cases}$$

- Ties can be broken uniformly at random.
- That is, when  $x_1 = x_2$ , we set

$$\beta(x) = \begin{bmatrix} 0.5 \\ 0.5 \end{bmatrix}$$

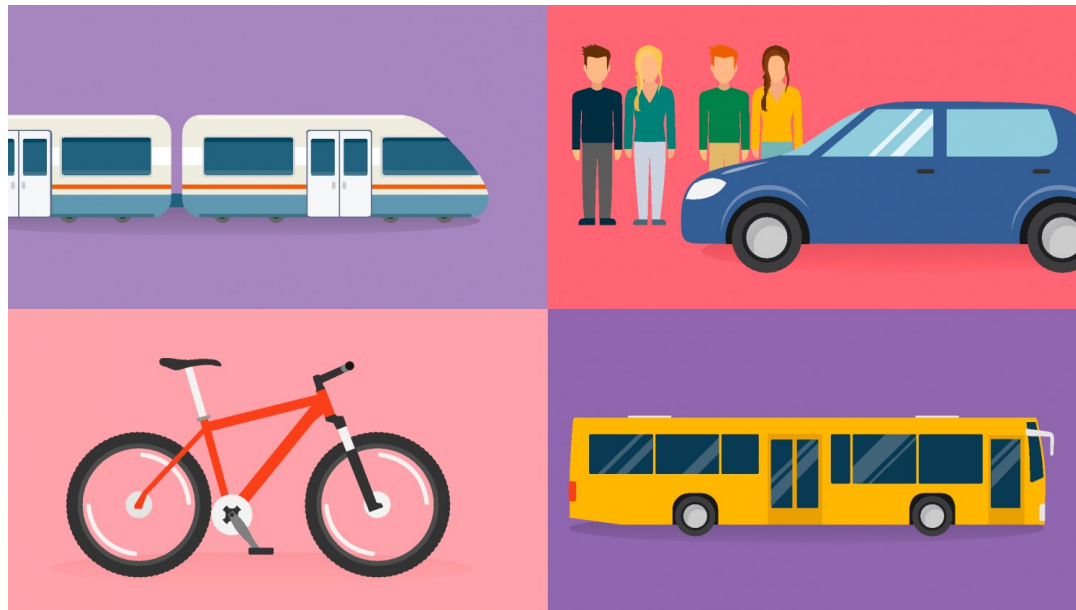
- Can adapt to randomness
- Can adapt to disruptions (e.g. server malfunction)

# How routing actually works in transportation?

- There are two notions:
  1. What you want the travelers to do?
  2. How travelers would respond to your instruction?
- Usually, we are not able to force travelers to take a certain route...
- Instead, we can analyze travelers' behavior and incentivize/encourage travelers to do a favored action.
- Incentivize = pay them somehow...
- Theoretical foundation: discrete choice theory

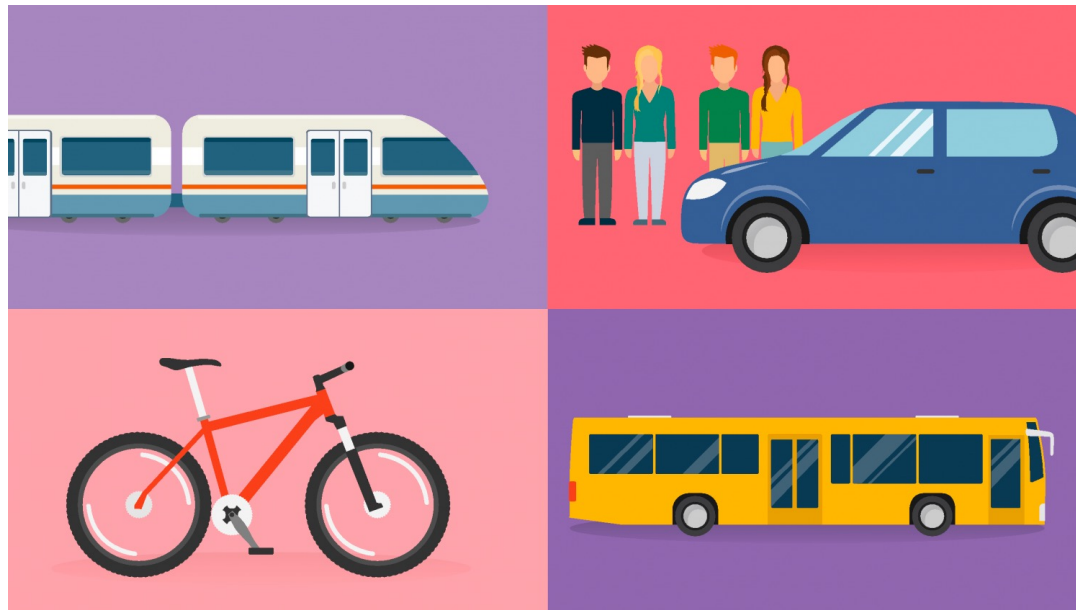
# Discrete choice

- Customer chooses from  $K$  options
- A commuter chooses subway or bus
- A truck driver chooses departure time
- A driver chooses tolled or free roads



# Discrete choice model

- Input: attributes of options
- Output: probability of choosing an option
- Tool: logistic regression



# Logistic regression

- Logit function

$$\Pr\{G = k | X = x\} = \frac{\exp(\beta_{k0} + \beta_k^T x)}{\sum_{l=1}^K \exp(\beta_{l0} + \beta_l^T x)}$$

- Classification

$$G(x) = \arg \max_k \frac{\exp(\beta_{k0} + \beta_k^T x)}{\sum_{l=1}^K \exp(\beta_{l0} + \beta_l^T x)}$$

- Process of fitting coefficients  $\beta_{ki}$ : called logistic regression
- Use maximum likelihood

# Basic discrete-choice model

- Utility: a quantification of customers' preferences
- Example 1: price of a product
- Example 2: price-to-quality ratio
- Example 3: travel time plus toll (value of time)
- Example 4: price plus comfort level
- Let  $V_{i,n}$  be the  $n$ th customer's utility of the  $i$ th option
- The probability of choosing  $i$  is

$$P_{i,n} = \frac{\exp(V_{i,n})}{\sum_{m=1}^K \exp(V_{i,m})}$$

- High utility  $\rightarrow$  high probability of being chosen

# Utility function

- In smart city settings, by far the most common form of utility function is linear

$$V_{i,n} = \sum_{k=1}^K \beta_{n,k} x_{i,k}$$

- For example, travel mode estimation

$$V_{\text{subway}} = b_0 + b_1 x(\text{travel time}) + b_2 x(\text{fare}) + b_3 x(\text{crowdness})$$

- Signs of the coefficients?

# Interpretation

- Coefficients  $\beta_{i,k}$ : quantifies the i-th customer's preferences with respect to the k-th feature

- $\beta_{i,k} > 0 \rightarrow ?$

- $\beta_{i,k} < 0 \rightarrow ?$

- Magnitude of  $\beta_{i,k}$  captures the sensitivity

$$V_{\text{subway}} = b_0 + b_1x(\text{travel time}) + b_2x(\text{fare}) + b_3x(\text{crowdness})$$



# Estimation

- Use maximum likelihood
- Suppose we have observation for  $N$  customers
- Both features and their actual choices are recorded
- Probability that customer  $i$  chooses option  $n_i$

$$P_{i,n_i} = \frac{\exp(\sum_{k=1}^K \beta_{n_i,k} x_{i,k})}{\sum_{n=1}^K \exp(\sum_{k=1}^K \beta_{n,k} x_{i,k})}$$

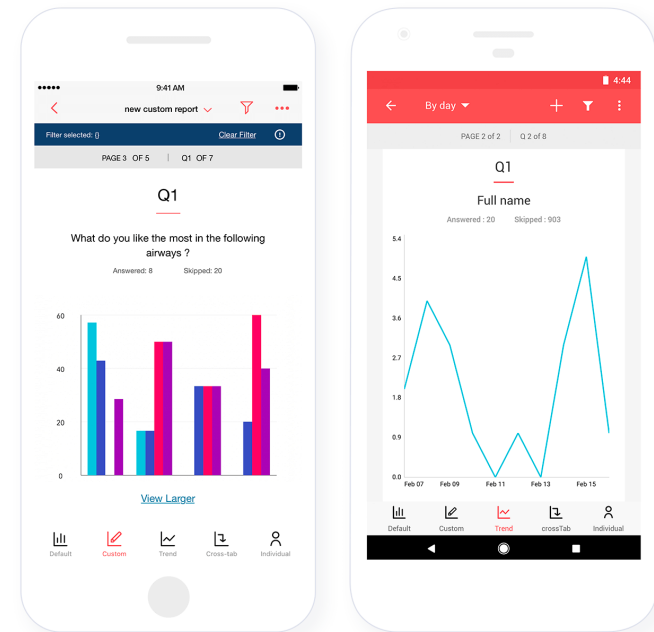
- Likelihood of their choices

$$lik(B) = \prod_{i=1}^N P_{i,n_i}(B)$$

- MLE:  $\frac{\partial}{\partial \beta_{n,k}} lik(B) = 0$  for all  $n$  and for all  $k$

# Data

- Conventionally obtained from surveys
- Demographic information, technical and/or economical metrics, geographical information, etc.
- Modern ways of obtaining data
  - App-based surveys
  - “Big Data”
  - MTA trip records
  - Uber trip records
  - Airlines trip records...
- Important: people are increasingly concerned with efficiency vs. privacy



# Mode choice

- Objective: develop a model explaining automobile ownership and commuting mode
- Application: justification for the Bay Area Rapid Transit (BART)
- Survey data
- $V = -0.0412c/w - 0.0201T - 0.0531T^0 - 0.89D^1 - 1.78D^3 - 2.15D^4$
- $c$  = round-trip cost (\$)
- $w$  = passenger wage rate (\$/min)
- $T$  = in-vehicle travel time (min)
- $T^0$  = out-of-vehicle time (min)
- $D$  = alternative-specific dummies



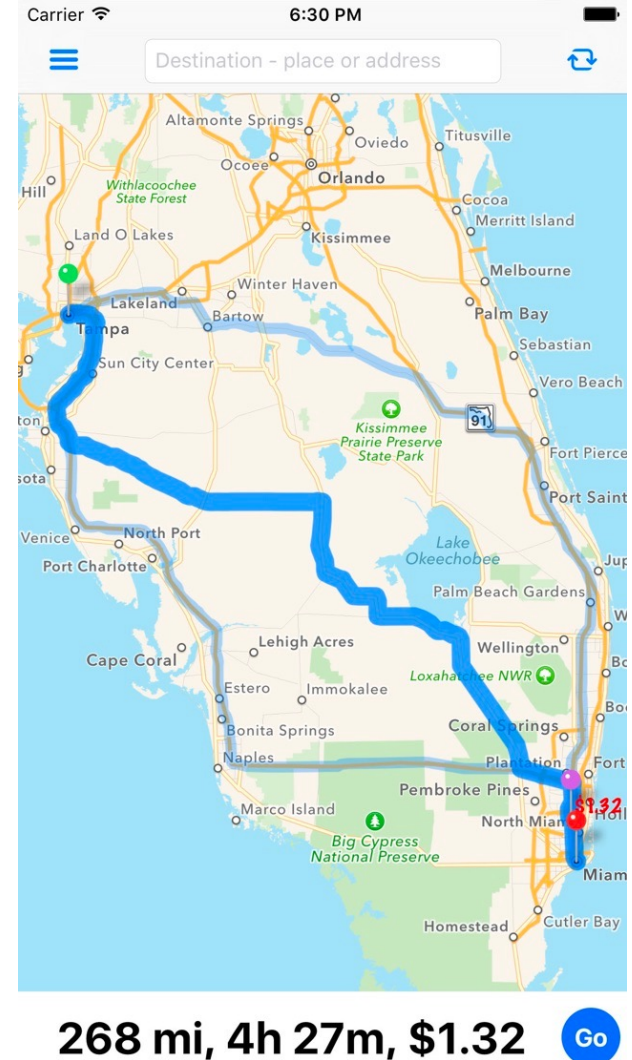
# Trip scheduling

- From a city manager's perspective, we prefer to balance the trip schedules of commuters rather than concentrate them in short peak hours
- Objective: understand how people schedule trips
- $V = -0.106T - 0.065SDE - 0.254SDL - 0.58DL$
- $T$  = trip time
- $SDE$  = schedule delay early
- $SDL$  = schedule delay late
- $DL$  = late dummy



# Route choice

- How do people select between toll and free routes?
- Important for setting congestion pricing
- $V = -0.862D^{\text{tag}} + 0.0239\text{Inc}(D^{\text{tag}}) - 0.766\text{ForLang}(D^{\text{tag}}) - 0.789D^3 - 0.357c - 0.109T - 0.159R + 0.074\text{Male}(R) + \text{other terms}$
- $D^{\text{tag}}$  = alternative-specific dummies
- Inc = annual income
- ForLang = foreign language
- c = toll, T = travel time
- R = reliability



# Outline

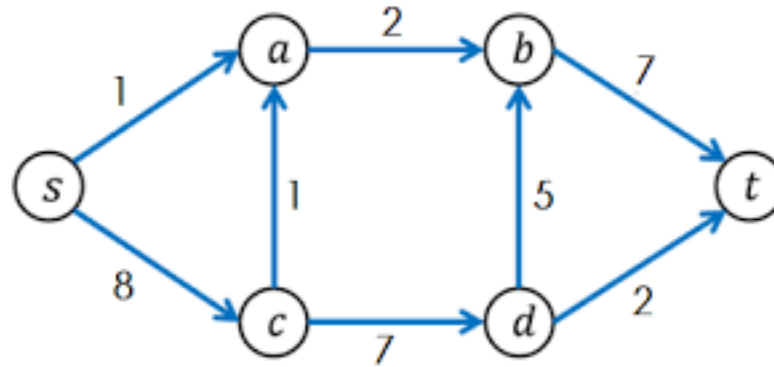
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  - Bernoulli routing
  - Dynamic routing

# Network model

- Consider a network with nodes  $N$  and links  $E$
- We use integers to label nodes
  - Node 1, 2,...
- We use pairs of integers to label links
  - Link (1,2), (2,3),...
- Directed link (i,j)
- A “customer” (vehicle/passenger/job) enters the network via an origin node (O) and exits via a destination node (D)
- OD is predefined, but route has to be determined in real time.
- Route = a sequence of nodes

# Multi-class queuing network

- Can we treat each customer in the same way?

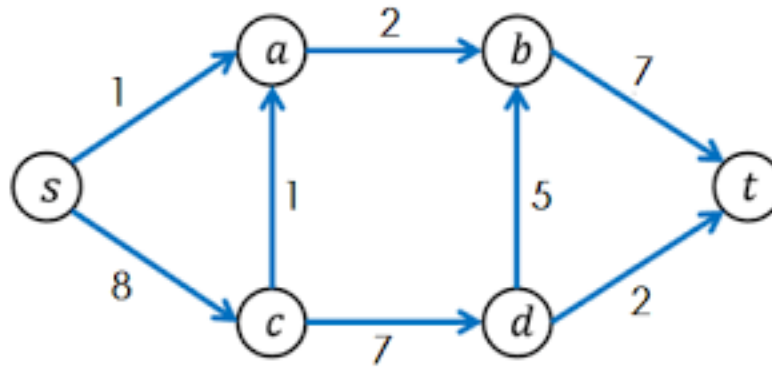


- We classify customers according to their OD
- A set of classes (ODs)  $\mathcal{C}$
- Each class  $c \in \mathcal{C}$  has an origin  $o_c$  and a destination  $d_c$
- Class- $c$  arrival rate:  $\lambda_c > 0$  at  $o_c$
- Note: a node can be the origin/destination of multiple classes



# Multi-class queuing network

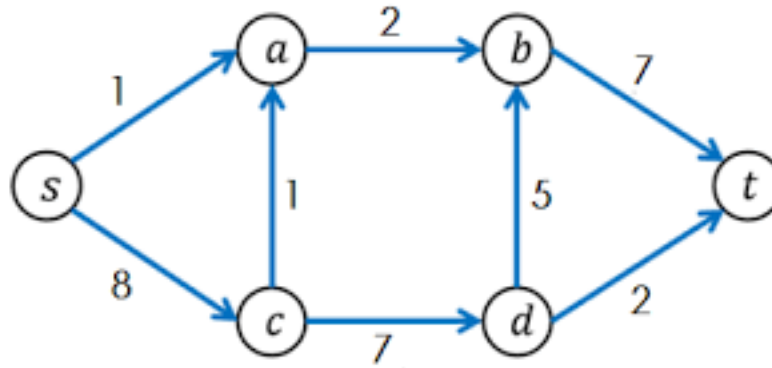
- System state:  $X_{ij}^c(t)$ ,  $(i, j) \in E, c \in \mathcal{C}$



- Compact notation:  $X(t) = [X_{ij}^c(t)]_{(i,j) \in E, c \in \mathcal{C}}$
- State space (set of states)  $\mathcal{X} = \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 0}^{|E| \times |\mathcal{C}|}$
- In general, service rate  $\mu_i$  can also depend on class
- But we do not consider such complication in this lecture

# Bernoulli routing

- When a customer leaves a server, it goes randomly to a downstream server with **time-invariant** probabilities



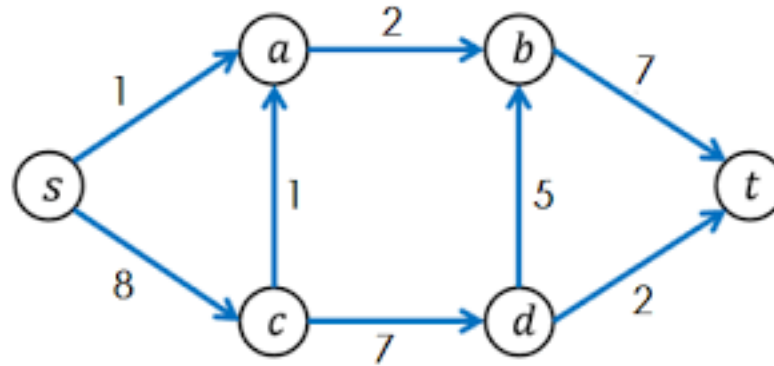
- For a node  $i$  with downstream nodes  $Out(i; c)$  for class- $c$  traffic, the routing probabilities are  $p_{ij}^c$  such that

$$p_{ij}^c \in [0,1] \text{ for all } j \in Out(i; c)$$

$$\sum_{j \in Out(i; c)} p_{ij}^c = 1$$

# Dynamic routing

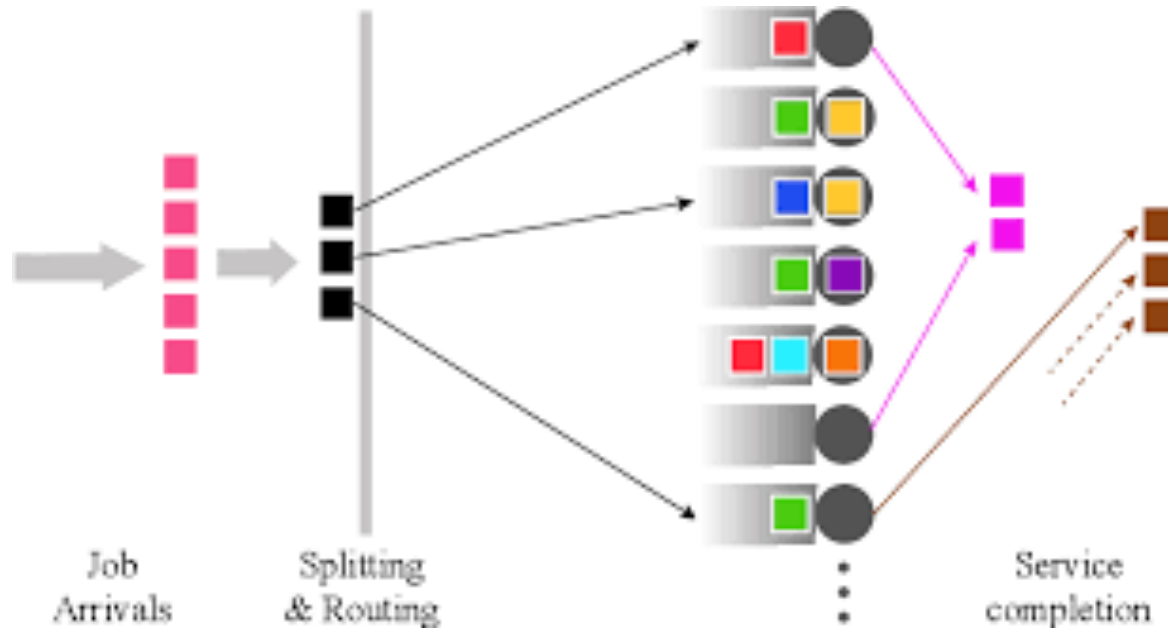
- When a customer leaves a node, its routing decision depends on real-time traffic conditions



- That is, the routing probabilities are functions of the traffic state, i.e.  $\beta_{ij}^c: \mathcal{X} \rightarrow [0,1]$
- This is feedback control.
- Also a Markov decision process.

# Does JSQ work on networks?

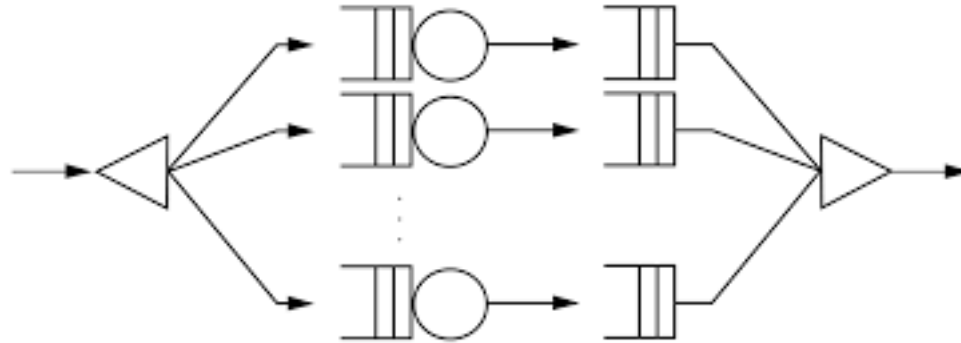
- Recall for two parallel queues, we can use the JSQ policy
- Now, suppose  $n$  parallel queues



- JSQ still works: stabilizing iff  $\lambda < \sum_i \mu_i$

# Does JSQ work on networks?

- However, JSQ can fail on more complex networks...



- Since JSQ is a localized routing policy, it cannot address further downstream congestions
- Fortunately, we can extend JSQ in a network setting
- “Join the shortest route” (JSR): when a customer enters the network, it selects the **route** with the minimal total # of customers thereon.

# MDP formulation

- Consider a network with nodes  $N$  and edges  $E$ .
- Node  $i \in N$ , link  $(i, j) \in E$  (i.e., from  $i$  to  $j$ ).
- Consider a single origin-destination pair.
- **State**: traffic state on each link  $X_{ij}[t] \in \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 0}$  for all  $(i, j) \in E$ .
- **Action**: routing destination at each node  $A_{ij}[t] \in \text{Out}(i, j)$  for all  $(i, j) \in E$ , where  $\text{Out}(i, j)$  is the set of downstream links to  $(i, j)$ .
- Dynamics: the transition probability
$$p(x' | x, a) \quad \text{for all } x, a, x'.$$

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