

CONTROL PLAN OPTIMIZATION

Charles Brett

IBM Research - Singapore
9 Changi Business Park Central 1
Singapore, 486048
c.brett@sg.ibm.com

Saif Jabari

New York University - Abu Dhabi
P.O. Box 129188
Abu Dhabi, UAE
sej7@nyu.edu

Sebastien Blandin

IBM Research - Singapore
9 Changi Business Park Central 1
Singapore, 486048
sblandin@sg.ibm.com

Laura Wynter

IBM Research - Singapore
9 Changi Business Park Central 1
Singapore, 486048
lwynter@sg.ibm.com

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1 1 ABSTRACT

2 We propose an algorithm for real-time optimization of traffic lights in urban road networks. The
3 algorithm is based on maximizing controller flow subject to a macroscopic traffic dynamics model
4 (the cell transmission model). We make simplifications to this formulation that preserve its effec-
5 tiveness at optimizing traffic lights while decreasing the computational cost by an order of mag-
6 nitude. The resulting algorithm is based on alternately solving a number of continuous knapsack
7 problems (which are computationally cheap) and simulating traffic dynamics (also cheap). Our
8 algorithm is centralized, allowing coordination between traffic lights, however computationally
9 cheap enough for use in real-time on road networks of moderate size. Numerical results are pre-
10 sented which support this claim and demonstrate the effectiveness of our algorithm at maximizing
11 flow and minimizing delay.

1 2 INTRODUCTION

2 Congestion has negative social, economic and environmental consequences, so it is important to
3 investigate if better use can be made of existing road infrastructure through improved traffic con-
4 trol. Many cities now have numerous traffic sensors (loop detectors and cameras) and traffic lights
5 capable of communicating, but we lack algorithms capable of taking full advantage of this in real-
6 time. This paper proposes a computationally efficient algorithm for coordinated optimization of
7 traffic lights.

8 A building block of such optimization algorithms is a traffic model. The standard macro-
9 scopic traffic model is the LWR (Lighthill-Whitman-Richards) model proposed in [Lighthill and](#)
10 [Whitham \(1\)](#) and [Richards \(2\)](#), which is based on a system of hyperbolic conservation laws. The-
11 oretical aspects of this model and junction coupling were developed further in [Lebacque \(3\)](#) and
12 [Garavello and Piccoli \(4\)](#). The cell transmission model (CTM) proposed in [Daganzo, Daganzo](#)
13 [\(5, 6\)](#) turns out to be a finite difference discretization of the LWR model using a Godunov scheme
14 (see [LeVeque, Lebacque \(7, 8\)](#)) under reasonable assumptions. This model is widely used due
15 to its simplicity, computational efficiency, and ability to replicate traffic dynamics. [Szeto et al.](#)
16 [\(9\)](#) demonstrates that the CTM can also replicate congested traffic dynamics on arterial networks
17 containing traffic lights.

18 In order to address the traffic light optimization problem, one might like to use a macro-
19 scopic traffic model such as the CTM in a model predictive control (MPC) framework (see [García](#)
20 [et al. \(10\)](#)). Some literature has explored this possibility (see e.g. [Hegyi et al., Hegyi et al., Lin](#)
21 [et al. \(11, 12, 13\)](#)), however the CTM requires small time steps for stability (on the order of 1
22 second). Therefore the resulting nonlinear control problems have large state spaces, even for small
23 time horizons, and generally cannot be solved in real time (see e.g. [Gomes and Horowitz, Jacquet](#)
24 [et al., Papamichail et al., Lu et al., Lo \(14, 15, 16, 17, 18\)](#)). Recent work such as [Tang et al. \(19\)](#)
25 attempts to decompose this nonlinear control problem in order to enable real-time traffic control.

26 Decentralized control approaches are also an active area of research. For example, back
27 pressure control, which was independently proposed in [Wongpiromsarn et al. \(20\)](#) and [Varaiya](#)
28 [\(21\)](#). This approach is scalable and has the theoretical guarantee of ‘maximum network through-
29 put’ though it may not coordinate traffic lights optimally or fit with their common cycle based
30 implementation.

31 The main contribution of this work is a fast algorithm suitable for real-time optimization
32 of traffic lights over a network. It is related to the algorithm in [Tang et al. \(19\)](#), but two key
33 modifications allow effective traffic light optimization while decreasing the computational cost
34 by approximately an order of magnitude. As in [Tang et al. \(19\)](#) we decomposes the full control
35 problem into two subproblems and alternate between solving each one. The first is the control sub-
36 problem of optimizing the traffic lights given fixed traffic states. We propose a new cycle averaging
37 approximation which reduces this problem to a number of continuous knapsack problems, which
38 can be solved computationally cheaply (in comparison to the linear programming control subprob-
39 lems in [Tang et al. \(19\)](#)). Note that the back pressure algorithm also involves solving knapsack
40 problems, but with differently defined weights, so there is a link between this and our algorithm.
41 The second subproblem is simulating traffic states given a fixed control plan. We propose using a
42 simple ‘max-flow’ junction model, which has an explicit solution. In comparison the more com-
43 plicated junction model in [Tang et al. \(19\)](#) requires solving a linear programming problem, which
44 would dominate the decreased computation time of the control subproblem.

1 3 NETWORK TRAFFIC FLOW MODELING AND OPTIMIZATION

2 We begin by introducing a continuous model for traffic flow on a network with traffic lights.

3 3.1 Link dynamics

4 First-order continuum traffic flow models such as the LWR model (see [Lighthill and Whitham](#),
 5 [Richards \(1, 2\)](#)) describe the spatio-temporal evolution of three variables of traffic flow: (i) the
 6 traffic density, denoted $\rho(x, t)$, which represents the number of vehicles at time instant $t \in \mathbb{R}_+$ in a
 7 “small” section of road centered at $x \in \mathbb{R}$, $(x - \frac{1}{2}dx, x + \frac{1}{2}dx)$, divided by the section length dx . (ii)
 8 The flow of vehicles, $q(x, t)$, crossing position $x \in \mathbb{R}$ over the short time interval $(t - \frac{1}{2}dt, t + \frac{1}{2}dt)$.
 9 (iii) The (space) mean speed of vehicles, $v(x, t)$ in $(x - dx, x + dx)$ during $(t - dt, t + dt)$. By
 10 definition, we have that $q = \rho v$ and, consequently, any two of the three macroscopic variables
 11 can be used to describe traffic conditions along the road. The conservation of vehicles (or traffic
 12 densities) along the road, in the absence of sources and sinks, is given by:

$$\frac{\partial \rho}{\partial t} + \frac{\partial q}{\partial x} = 0. \quad (1)$$

13 To close the conservation equation, an “equilibrium” flow-density relation is used: $q \equiv Q(\rho)$,
 14 which is typically a non-linear concave relation (also known as the “fundamental diagram” of
 15 traffic flow). Without loss of generality, we shall assume a unique critical density, denoted by ρ_{crit} ,
 16 below which traffic conditions are in free-flow and above which traffic conditions are congested.
 An example of the fundamental diagram is shown in [Figure 1](#). The resulting (first-order) traffic

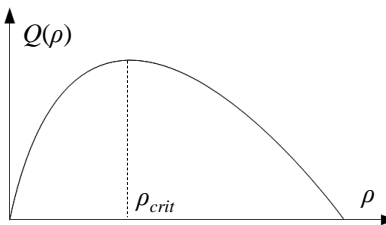


FIGURE 1 : Example fundamental flow-density relation

17
 18 flow model is a non-linear scalar conservation law:

$$\frac{\partial \rho}{\partial t} + \frac{\partial Q(\rho)}{\partial x} = 0. \quad (2)$$

19 To solve (2), knowledge of initial traffic conditions is needed; this is given by a prescribed initial
 20 traffic density profile: $\rho(\cdot, 0)$. The solution of (2) generally develops discontinuities known as
 21 shockwaves (see, for example, [LeVeque \(7\)](#) for further details). Shockwaves describe the spatio-
 22 temporal evolution of traffic jams (and their dissipation dynamics).

23 3.2 Boundary conditions and node dynamics

24 Consider a section of roadway of length L (i.e., $x \in [0, L]$) with fixed traffic sensors at the bound-
 25 aries providing flow measurements at successive time intervals. The traffic densities, $\rho(0, t+)$ and
 26 $\rho(L, t+)$, at the boundaries, $x = 0$ and $x = L$, respectively, are given by (see, for example, references
 27 [Lebacque, Lebacque, Lebacque \(3, 8, 22\)](#)):

$$\rho(0, t+) = \begin{cases} S^{-1}(q(0, t)), & q(0, t) < R(\rho(0, t)) \\ \rho(0, t), & q(0, t) \geq R(\rho(0, t)) \end{cases} \quad (3)$$

1 and

$$\rho(L, t+) = \begin{cases} R^{-1}(q(L, t)), & q(L, t) < S(\rho(L, t)) \\ \rho(L, t), & q(L, t) \geq S(\rho(L, t)), \end{cases} \quad (4)$$

2 where $q(0, t)$ and $q(L, t)$ are prescribed boundary flows and S and R are equilibrium sending and
3 receiving functions (sometimes referred to as equilibrium demand and supply functions, respec-
4 tively). Examples of S and R are shown in [Figure 2](#).

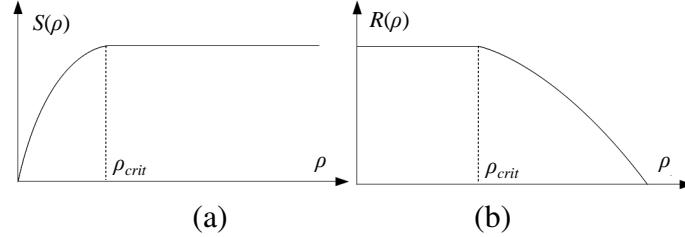


FIGURE 2 : Example sending and receiving functions from $Q(\rho)$ (a) sending function, (b) receiving function

5 Now consider a road network. Denote by $\rho_a(x, t)$ and $q_a(x, t) \equiv Q_a(t, \rho_a)$, respectively, the
6 traffic density and flow at a distance $x \in [0, L_a]$ from the upstream end of road segment $a \in \mathcal{A}$,
7 where Q_a is a segment-specific fundamental relation (allowed also to vary with time) and \mathcal{A} is a
8 set of network road segments. The traffic dynamics are now described by a system of non-linear
9 conservation laws:

$$\frac{\partial \rho_a(x, t)}{\partial t} + \frac{\partial Q_a(t, \rho_a)}{\partial x} = 0, \quad a \in \mathcal{A} \quad (5)$$

10 with prescribed initial conditions $\{\rho_a(\cdot, 0)\}_{a \in \mathcal{A}}$. Likewise, the boundary traffic densities must
11 honor the following boundary conditions for each $a \in \mathcal{A}$:

$$\rho_a(0, t+) = \begin{cases} S_a^{-1}(t, q_a(0, t)), & q_a(0, t) < R_a(t, \rho_a(0, t)), \\ \rho_a(0, t), & q_a(0, t) \geq R_a(t, \rho_a(0, t)). \end{cases} \quad (6)$$

12 and

$$\rho_a(L_a, t+) = \begin{cases} R_a^{-1}(t, q_a(L_a, t)), & q_a(L_a, t) < S_a(t, \rho_a(L_a, t)), \\ \rho_a(L_a, t), & q_a(L_a, t) \geq S_a(t, \rho_a(L_a, t)), \end{cases} \quad (7)$$

13 where $S_a(t, \rho_a)$ and $R_a(t, \rho_a)$ are local demand and local supply (sending and receiving) functions
14 for road segment a .

15 The flows $q_a(0, \cdot)$ and $q_a(L_a, \cdot)$ are prescribed for a set of boundary road segments $a \in$
16 $\mathcal{A}_B \subseteq \mathcal{A}$. The boundary flows (both prescribed and otherwise) must honor the following general
17 conditions: (i) traffic is to be conserved at the interfaces between road segments at any instant t ,
18 (ii) flows out of the downstream boundary of a road segment are bounded from above by the local
19 demand (i.e., the sending flow) for each time instant t , and (iii) flows into the upstream boundary
20 of a road segment are bounded from above by the local supply (i.e., the receiving flow) for each
21 time instant t . We also impose the condition that flow through each junction is to be maximized
22 to avoid unrealistic flow holding. More stringent conditions have been proposed in [Lebacque \(22\)](#)
23 (the invariance principle), [Holden and Risebro \(23\)](#) and [Jabari \(24\)](#) (non-simultaneity of conflicting
24 flows), but are not considered in this work. Our junction model is reasonable in the situation that
25 lanes do not share movements and lanes are the entire length of a road.

1 Let \mathcal{J} denote the set of network junctions representing the interfaces between road seg-
 2 ments in \mathcal{A} . For each $j \in \mathcal{J}$, let $\mathcal{P}(j) \subset \mathcal{A}$ denote the set of road segments immediately pre-
 3 ceding (i.e., producing flows into) junction j and let $\mathcal{S}(j) \subset \mathcal{A}$ denote the set of road segments
 4 immediately succeeding (i.e., producing flows out of) junction j . We adopt the following formula-
 5 tion for boundary flows ($\{q_i(L_i, t)\}_{i \in \mathcal{P}(j)}$ and $\{q_k(0, t)\}_{k \in \mathcal{S}(j)}$) through a junction, which must be
 6 satisfied at each time instant t :

$$\begin{aligned} \max_{\{q_i(L_i, t)\}_{i \in \mathcal{P}(j)}} \quad & \sum_{i \in \mathcal{P}(j)} q_i(L_i, t) \\ \text{s.t.} \quad & \sum_{i \in \mathcal{P}(j)} q_i(L_i, t) - \sum_{k \in \mathcal{S}(j)} q_k(0, t) = 0 \\ & 0 \leq q_i(L_i, t) \leq S_i(t, \rho_i(L_i, t-)) \quad i \in \mathcal{P}(j) \\ & 0 \leq q_k(0, t) \leq R_k(t, \rho_k(0, t-)) \quad k \in \mathcal{S}(j). \end{aligned} \quad (8)$$

7 In essence, the solution to (8) constitutes a coupling between the system of conservation laws in
 8 (5).

9 3.3 Junction movements

10 Let $q_{i,k}(t)$ denote the portion of flow departing road segment $i \in \mathcal{P}(j)$ towards road segment
 11 $k \in \mathcal{S}(j)$. That is, $q_i(L_i, t) = \sum_{k \in \mathcal{S}(j)} q_{i,k}(t)$ and $q_k(0, t) = \sum_{i \in \mathcal{P}(j)} q_{i,k}(t)$. Consequently, the
 12 equality (mass balance) constraint in (8) holds by definition. Using these new variables, (8) can be
 13 reformulated as

$$\begin{aligned} \max_{\{q_{i,k}(t)\}_{i \in \mathcal{P}(j), k \in \mathcal{S}(j)}} \quad & \sum_{i \in \mathcal{P}(j)} \sum_{k \in \mathcal{S}(j)} q_{i,k}(t) \\ \text{s.t.} \quad & \sum_{k \in \mathcal{S}(j)} q_{i,k}(t) \leq S_i(t, \rho_i(L_i, t-)) \quad i \in \mathcal{P}(j) \\ & \sum_{i \in \mathcal{P}(j)} q_{i,k}(t) \leq R_k(t, \rho_k(0, t-)) \quad k \in \mathcal{S}(j) \\ & q_{i,k}(t) \geq 0 \quad i \in \mathcal{P}(j), k \in \mathcal{S}(j). \end{aligned} \quad (9)$$

14 This reformulation expresses the junction flows in terms of individual movements. This will offer
 15 the flexibility needed to allow for various signal phasing schemes. Before we present the impact of
 16 signal timing on the junction dynamics, we demonstrate that a closed form solution exists for (9).
 17 For each $i \in \mathcal{P}(j)$ and each $k \in \mathcal{S}(j)$, the solution is given by

$$q_{i,k}^*(t) \equiv \min \left\{ \frac{R_k(t)}{\sum_{k' \in \mathcal{S}(j)} R_{k'}(t)} S_i(t), \frac{S_i(t)}{\sum_{i' \in \mathcal{P}(j)} S_{i'}(t)} R_k(t) \right\} \quad (10)$$

18 where the arguments of the local demand and supply functions (as they appear in (8)) are omitted
 19 to simplify notation. To demonstrate that $\{q_{i,j}^*(t)\}_{i \in \mathcal{P}(j), k \in \mathcal{S}(j)}$ is an optimal solution to (9), first
 20 note that, for each $k \in \mathcal{S}(j)$,

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{i \in \mathcal{P}(j)} q_{i,k}^*(t) &= \sum_{i \in \mathcal{P}(j)} \min \left\{ \frac{R_k(t)}{\sum_{k' \in \mathcal{S}(j)} R_{k'}(t)} S_i(t), \frac{S_i(t)}{\sum_{i' \in \mathcal{P}(j)} S_{i'}(t)} R_k(t) \right\} \\ &= R_k(t) \min \left\{ \frac{1}{\sum_{k' \in \mathcal{S}(j)} R_{k'}(t)}, \frac{1}{\sum_{i' \in \mathcal{P}(j)} S_{i'}(t)} \right\} \sum_{i \in \mathcal{P}(j)} S_i(t) \\ &\leq R_k(t). \end{aligned} \quad (11)$$

1 Likewise, for each $i \in \mathcal{P}(j)$

$$\begin{aligned}
 \sum_{k \in \mathcal{S}(j)} q_{i,k}^*(t) &= \sum_{k \in \mathcal{S}(j)} \min \left\{ \frac{R_k(t)}{\sum_{k' \in \mathcal{S}(j)} R_{k'}(t)} S_i(t), \frac{S_i(t)}{\sum_{i' \in \mathcal{P}(j)} S_{i'}(t)} R_k(t) \right\} \\
 &= S_i(t) \min \left\{ \frac{1}{\sum_{k' \in \mathcal{S}(j)} R_{k'}(t)}, \frac{1}{\sum_{i' \in \mathcal{P}(j)} S_{i'}(t)} \right\} \sum_{k \in \mathcal{S}(j)} R_k(t) \\
 &\leq S_i(t).
 \end{aligned} \tag{12}$$

2 Since, by definition, $S_i(t)$ and $R_k(t)$ are positive (see [Figure 2](#)), $\{q_{i,j}^*(t)\}_{i \in \mathcal{P}(j), k \in \mathcal{S}(j)}$ is a feasible
 3 solution to [\(9\)](#). Summing the first and second sets of constraints in [\(9\)](#) over $k \in \mathcal{S}(j)$ and $i \in \mathcal{P}(j)$,
 4 respectively, we see that the objective function in [\(9\)](#) is bounded from above by

$$\min \left\{ \sum_{k \in \mathcal{S}(j)} R_k(t), \sum_{i \in \mathcal{P}(j)} S_i(t) \right\}. \tag{13}$$

5 To show that this bound is always attained by $\{q_{i,j}^*(t)\}_{i \in \mathcal{P}(j), k \in \mathcal{S}(j)}$, sum the second equality in
 6 [\(11\)](#) over $k \in \mathcal{S}(j)$ (alternatively, sum the second equality in [\(12\)](#) over $i \in \mathcal{P}(j)$). We get

$$\sum_{k \in \mathcal{S}(j)} \sum_{i \in \mathcal{P}(j)} q_{i,k}^*(t) = \min \left\{ \frac{1}{\sum_{k' \in \mathcal{S}(j)} R_{k'}(t)}, \frac{1}{\sum_{i' \in \mathcal{P}(j)} S_{i'}(t)} \right\} \sum_{i \in \mathcal{P}(j)} S_i(t) \sum_{k \in \mathcal{S}(j)} R_k(t),$$

7 so that if $\sum_{k' \in \mathcal{S}(j)} R_{k'}(t) \geq \sum_{i' \in \mathcal{P}(j)} S_{i'}(t)$, then

$$\sum_{k \in \mathcal{S}(j)} \sum_{i \in \mathcal{P}(j)} q_{i,k}^*(t) = \sum_{i \in \mathcal{P}(j)} S_i(t).$$

8 Likewise, if $\sum_{k' \in \mathcal{S}(j)} R_{k'}(t) \leq \sum_{i' \in \mathcal{P}(j)} S_{i'}(t)$, then

$$\sum_{k \in \mathcal{S}(j)} \sum_{i \in \mathcal{P}(j)} q_{i,k}^*(t) = \sum_{k \in \mathcal{S}(j)} R_k(t).$$

9 Hence, the bound given by [\(13\)](#) is always attained and $\{q_{i,j}^*(t)\}_{i \in \mathcal{P}(j), k \in \mathcal{S}(j)}$ is optimal. It then
 10 follows immediately that $q_i^*(L_i, t) \equiv \sum_{k \in \mathcal{S}(j)} q_{i,k}^*(t)$ and $q_k^*(0, t) \equiv \sum_{i \in \mathcal{P}(j)} q_{i,k}^*(t)$ is an optimal
 11 solution of [\(8\)](#). Note that this solution is holding free (see [Jabari \(24\)](#)) and so appropriate for traffic
 12 modeling.

13 As a special case, consider a junction with one predecessor, $|\mathcal{P}(j)| = 1$, and one successor,
 14 $|\mathcal{S}(j)| = 1$. Then, [\(10\)](#) simplifies to $q_i^*(L_i, t) = q_k^*(0, t) = \min\{S_i(t), R_k(t)\}$, which is consistent
 15 with numerical schemes used for modeling traffic dynamics within road segments (see [Daganzo,](#)
 16 [Lebacque, Daganzo \(5, 8, 25\)](#)).

17 3.4 Signal control

18 The movement-based solution formula [\(10\)](#) can be immediately extended to capture the impact
 19 of signal status on boundary flows. The local supply and demand functions, S and R , represent
 20 maximal flows under the prevailing traffic conditions (the traffic densities). The formula, [\(10\)](#), can
 21 then be interpreted as maximal flows at the junction boundaries. Traffic signal control only restricts

1 these flows. For junction $j \in \mathcal{J}$, let $g_{i,k}(t) \in [0, 1]$ denote such capacity restrictions for the traffic
 2 movement between road segments $i \in \mathcal{P}(j)$ and $k \in \mathcal{S}(j)$. The restricted movement flow between
 3 $i \in \mathcal{P}(j)$ and $k \in \mathcal{S}(j)$ at time t is given by

$$q_{i,k}(t) = g_{i,k}(t)q_{i,k}^*(t) = g_{i,k}(t) \min \left\{ \frac{R_k(t)}{\sum_{k' \in \mathcal{S}(j)} R_{k'}(t)} S_i(t), \frac{S_i(t)}{\sum_{i' \in \mathcal{P}(j)} S_{i'}(t)} R_k(t) \right\}. \quad (14)$$

4 The restriction parameter $g_{i,k}(t)$ is allowed to take values in $[0, 1]$. This is interpreted as
 5 follows: $g_{i,k}(t) = 0$ during a red signal indication, $g_{i,k}(t) = 1$ during a protected green phase, and
 6 $g_{i,k}(t) \in (0, 1)$ during a permitted (turning) phase. By modifying the restriction variables, g , any
 7 signal timing plan can be accommodated in this framework. The restricted boundary flows are
 8 given by

$$q_i(L_i, t) = \sum_{k \in \mathcal{S}(j)} q_{i,k}(t) \quad (15)$$

9 and

$$q_k(0, t) = \sum_{i \in \mathcal{P}(j)} q_{i,k}(t). \quad (16)$$

10 4 SIGNAL GREEN SPLIT OPTIMIZATION: CONTINUOUS FORMULATION

11 In this section we formulate the problem of modifying green splits so as to maximize network-
 12 wide throughput across network junctions. Note that maximising this does not necessarily imply
 13 improvement in other performance measures, such as delay. However it is reasonable to hope for
 14 this. In the numerical results section we will see that delay decreased in all of our test cases.

15 Let $\mathcal{J}_c \subseteq \mathcal{J}$ denote the set of junctions to control. For each $j \in \mathcal{J}_c$, let $\mathcal{M}(j) \equiv \{(i, k) :$
 16 $i \in \mathcal{P}(j), k \in \mathcal{S}(j)\}$ denote the set of movements to be controlled and let $\mathcal{H}_p(j) \subset \mathcal{M}(j)$ denote
 17 the set of movements in phase p , which receive a green signal indication simultaneously. Note
 18 that $\mathcal{H}_p(j)$ may contain both protected and permitted movements, that is, the movements which
 19 belong to a phase need not be non-conflicting. The set of all phases shall be referred to here as
 20 a signal phasing plan. The phasing plan is denoted by $\mathcal{H}(j) = \{\mathcal{H}_1(j), \dots, \mathcal{H}_{|\mathcal{H}(j)|}(j)\}$. Let
 21 $g_p(t) \in \{0, 1\}$ denote whether phase p receives a green signal indication at time t . Then, for each
 22 $(i, k) \in \mathcal{M}(j)$

$$g_{i,k}(t) = \sum_{p=1}^{|\mathcal{H}(j)|} \alpha_{i,k}^p g_p(t), \quad (17)$$

23 where $\alpha_{i,k}^p = 1$ if movement (i, k) is protected in phase p , $\alpha_{i,k}^p \in (0, 1)$ if (i, k) is permitted in phase
 24 p , and $\alpha_{i,k}^p = 0$ if (i, k) is prohibited in phase p .

25 Our optimization will not alter the phasing plans, only the green durations allocated to the
 26 different phases and, possibly, the order of the phases. Consequently, the variables $\{\alpha_{i,k}^p\}$ are con-
 27 stant and fixed (they could be calibrated for each junction based on data or experience). Then, from
 28 (17), the movement variables $g_{i,k}$ are uniquely determined by the phase status variables g_p . The lat-
 29 ter shall serve as our decision variables. Throughout, we will assume a finite control/computational
 30 horizon, that is, $t \in [0, T]$, where $T < \infty$. We are now ready to state the control constraints.

31 **Bounds on phase lengths.** For $j \in \mathcal{J}_c$, let Ω_j denote a fixed cycle length. To prohibit aggressive
 32 changes in signal timing (compared to a baseline timing plan), we place upper and lower bound

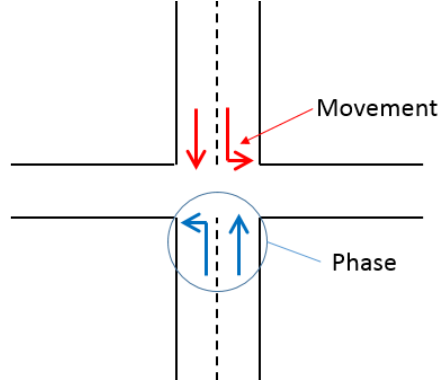


FIGURE 3 : A movement allows traffic to move from one incoming link to one outgoing link of a junction. A phase is a set of movements that are active simultaneously.

- 1 constraints, denoted l_p^j and u_p^j , on the length of each phase: for each $t \in [0, T]$, $p \in \{1, \dots, |\mathcal{H}(j)|\}$,
 2 and $j \in \mathcal{J}_c$

$$l_p^j \leq \int_t^{t+\Omega_j} g_p(u) du \leq u_p^j. \quad (18)$$

- 3 **One phase at a time.** This is ensured via the following two sets of constraints: for each $t \in [0, T]$
 4 and each $j \in \mathcal{J}_c$

$$\sum_{p=1}^{|\mathcal{H}(j)|} g_p(t) = 1, \quad (19)$$

- 5 and for each $p \in \{1, \dots, |\mathcal{H}(j)|\}$

$$g_p(t) \in \{0, 1\}. \quad (20)$$

- 6 **Each phase is active at most once during a signal cycle.** The following states that a switch in
 7 phase status from inactive to active occurs no more than once over the course of a cycle: for each
 8 $t \in (0, T]$, $p \in \{1, \dots, |\mathcal{H}(j)|\}$, and $j \in \mathcal{J}_c$

$$\int_t^{t+\Omega_j} \delta(\Delta g_p(u) - 1) du \leq 1, \quad (21)$$

- 9 where δ is the Dirac delta function and $\Delta g_p(t) = g_p(t) - g_p(t-)$. $\Delta g_p(t) = 1$ if at time instant t
 10 phase p goes from inactive to active, $\Delta g_p(t) = 0$ if there is no change in the status of phase p at
 11 time instant t , and $\Delta g_p(t) = -1$ if the status of phase p changes from active to inactive.

- 12 When $l_p^j > 0$ for all p , (18) - (21) also ensure a constant cycle length, Ω_j , with each phase
 13 being active only once during the phase. Since $l_p^j > 0$ for all p , each phase must become active
 14 during any interval of length Ω_j , in accordance with (18). In this case, the constraints in (21) are
 15 binding. Hence, each phase occurs exactly once during any signal cycle. That the resulting cycle
 16 length is Ω_j follows immediately from (19) by integrating over intervals of length Ω_j . For each
 17 $t \in [0, T]$ and each $j \in \mathcal{J}_c$, we get

$$\int_t^{t+\Omega_j} \sum_{p=1}^{|\mathcal{H}(j)|} g_p(u) du = \Omega_j. \quad (22)$$

1 Hence, cycle lengths remain constant provided $l_p^j > 0$ for all p . In addition, the following condition
 2 is necessary for feasibility: for each $j \in \mathcal{J}_c$

$$\sum_{p=1}^{|\mathcal{H}(j)|} l_p^j \leq \Omega_j \leq \sum_{p=1}^{|\mathcal{H}(j)|} u_p^j. \quad (23)$$

3 **Objective function.** We wish to optimize throughput (i.e., maximize flow) through network junc-
 4 tions by modifying signal splits:

$$\max_{\{g_p\}} \sum_{j \in \mathcal{J}_c} \sum_{i \in \mathcal{P}(j)} \int_0^T q_i(L_i, t) dt, \quad (24)$$

5 where, from (14), (15), and (17), we have that

$$q_i(L_i, t) = \sum_{k \in \mathcal{S}(j)} \sum_{p=1}^{|\mathcal{H}(j)|} \alpha_{i,k}^p q_{i,k}^*(t) g_p(t), \quad t \in [0, T], j \in \mathcal{J}_c, i \in \mathcal{P}(j). \quad (25)$$

6 This captures the dependence of junction inflows on signal status.

7 5 COMPUTATIONAL SCHEME

8 We now state discretized versions of the traffic dynamics model and control problem which are
 9 suitable for solving computationally.

10 5.1 Network traffic state dynamics

11 We employ a discrete time and space (finite volume) computational technique similar to those de-
 12 scribed in [Daganzo](#), [Daganzo](#), [Lebacque](#), [Daganzo](#) (5, 6, 8, 25), but generalized to include general
 13 (many-to-many) junctions. Each road segment is divided into small cells. Let \mathcal{C} denote the set of
 14 network cells and let l_c denote the length of cell c ; without loss of generality, l_c is constant across
 15 cells pertaining to the same road segment. We compute the traffic variables in discrete time steps of
 16 length Δt , which divides the time horizon into N steps (i.e., $T = N\Delta t$). Denote by ρ_c^n the (average)
 17 traffic density in cell c over the time interval $[(n-1)\Delta t, n\Delta t]$, where $n \in \{0, 1, \dots, N\}$. That is

$$\rho_c^n \equiv \frac{1}{l_c} \int_{\{x \in X_c\}} \rho_{a(c)}(x, n\Delta t) dx, \quad (26)$$

18 where X_c defines the spatial extent of cell c and $a(c)$ is the index of the road segment to which cell c
 19 belongs. Likewise, q_{c-}^n and q_{c+}^n denote the average flow entering and departing cell c , respectively,
 20 over time interval n :

$$q_{c-}^n \equiv \frac{1}{\Delta t} \int_{[n\Delta t, (n+1)\Delta t)} q_{a(c)}(\inf X_c, t) dt \quad (27)$$

21 and

$$q_{c+}^n \equiv \frac{1}{\Delta t} \int_{[n\Delta t, (n+1)\Delta t)} q_{a(c)}(\sup X_c, t) dt. \quad (28)$$

22 The discrete time interval length, Δt , is global; that is, the traffic state throughout the entire network
 23 is calculated simultaneously in each time step. The choice of Δt is not arbitrary; it must honor the

1 Courant, Friedrichs, and Lewy (CFL) condition for all cells in the network. That is,

$$\Delta t \leq \min_{c \in \mathcal{C}, t \in [0, T]} \left(\frac{l_c}{\sup_{0 \leq t \leq T} \sup_{0 \leq \kappa \leq \rho_{jam,c}^t} |\partial_\rho Q_c(t, \kappa)|} \right), \quad (29)$$

2 where $\partial_\rho Q_c(t, \rho) = \frac{\partial Q_c(t, \rho)}{\partial \rho}$ is the characteristic slope at density ρ for cell c and $\rho_{jam,c}^t$ is the
3 jammed traffic density in cell c at time instant t . The traffic densities in the network are then
4 computed recursively using

$$\rho_c^{n+1} - \rho_c^n = \frac{\Delta t}{l_c} (q_{c-}^n - q_{c+}^n), \quad c \in \mathcal{C}. \quad (30)$$

5 The cell boundary flows q_{c-}^n and q_{c+}^n are calculated in accordance with the boundary con-
6 ditions discussed in [Subsection 3.3](#) and [Subsection 3.4](#). That is, cell boundaries are treated as
7 network junctions with predecessors and successors. With slight abuse of notation, let $\mathcal{P}(c-)$
8 ($\mathcal{S}(c-)$) denote the set of cells immediately preceding (succeeding) the upstream boundary of
9 cell c and let $\mathcal{P}(c+)$ ($\mathcal{S}(c+)$) denote the same pertaining to the downstream boundary of cell
10 c . Note that these boundaries may also be network junctions, i.e., they may also belong to \mathcal{J} .
11 Also let S_c^n and R_c^n denote the sending and receiving (local demand and supply) functions for cell
12 c . We shall adopt the following definitions: $S_c^n(\rho) \equiv S_{a(c)}(n\Delta t, \rho)$ and $R_c^n(\rho) \equiv R_{a(c)}(n\Delta t, \rho)$. The
13 discrete movement flows (analogous to [\(14\)](#)) are given by

$$q_{c,d}^n = g_{c,d}^n q_{c,d}^{n,*} = g_{c,d}^n \min \left\{ \frac{R_d^n(\rho_d^n)}{\sum_{d' \in \mathcal{S}(c+)} R_{d'}^n(\rho_{d'}^n)} S_c^n(\rho_c^n), \frac{S_c^n(\rho_c^n)}{\sum_{c' \in \mathcal{P}(d-)} S_{c'}^n(\rho_{c'}^n)} R_d^n(\rho_d^n) \right\}, \quad (31)$$

14 where $g_{c,d}^n \equiv 1$ when flows between cell c and d do not cross a signalized intersection. When the
15 boundary $c+$ ($= d-$) is a signalized junction $g_{c,d}^n \equiv g_{a(c),a(d)}(n\Delta t)$. (We are assuming, without loss
16 of generality, that signal status changes coincide with the ticks of our discrete time interval clock.)

17 Finally, analogous to [\(16\)](#) and [\(15\)](#), respectively, we have that

$$q_{c-}^n = \sum_{b \in \mathcal{P}(c-)} q_{b,c}^n \quad (32)$$

18 and

$$q_{c+}^n = \sum_{d \in \mathcal{S}(c+)} q_{c,d}^n. \quad (33)$$

19 This, combined with equation [\(30\)](#) provides a recipe for iteratively calculating cell traffic densities
20 over the course of the computational time horizon, when the signal timing plans are known. The
21 steps are summarized in [Algorithm 1](#).

22 5.2 Signal green splits: Discrete formulation

23 In this section, we formulate a discrete analogue of the continuous formulation presented in [Sec-](#)
24 [tion 4](#). For junction $j \in \mathcal{J}$, let g_p^n denote the status of phase $p \in \{1, \dots, |\mathcal{H}(j)|\}$ during time step

Algorithm 1: Network traffic state computation scheme

```

1: Initialize:
2: initial conditions: set  $\rho_c^0$  for each  $c \in \mathcal{C}$ 
3: boundary conditions: set  $q_{c-}^n = q_{a(c)}(0, n\Delta t)$  and  $q_{c+}^n = q_{a(c)}(L_{a(c)}, n\Delta t)$  for  $n = 1, \dots, N, a \in \mathcal{A}_B$ 
4: Iterate:
5: for  $n = 1 \dots N$  do
6:   for  $c \in \mathcal{C}$  do
7:      $S_c^{n-1} \leftarrow S_{a(c)}((n-1)\Delta t, \rho_c^{n-1})$ 
8:      $R_c^{n-1} \leftarrow R_{a(c)}((n-1)\Delta t, \rho_c^{n-1})$ 
9:   end for
10:  for  $c \in \mathcal{C}$  do
11:     $q_{c,d}^{n-1} \leftarrow g_{c,d}^{n-1} \min \left\{ \frac{R_d^{n-1}}{\sum_{d' \in \mathcal{S}(c+)} R_{d'}^{n-1}} S_c^{n-1}, \frac{S_c^{n-1}}{\sum_{d' \in \mathcal{S}(c+)} S_{d'}^{n-1}} R_d^{n-1} \right\}$ 
12:     $q_{c-}^{n-1} = \sum_{b \in \mathcal{P}(c-)} q_{b,c}^{n-1}$ 
13:     $q_{c+}^{n-1} = \sum_{d \in \mathcal{S}(c+)} q_{c,d}^{n-1}$ 
14:    /* if  $c$  is the upstream-most (boundary) cell of  $a(c)$  */
15:    if  $\inf X_c == 0$  then
16:       $\rho_c^n \leftarrow \begin{cases} S_{a(c)}^{-1}((n-1)\Delta t, q_{c-}^{n-1}), & q_{c-}^{n-1} < R_c^{n-1}, \\ \rho_c^{n-1}, & q_{c-}^{n-1} \geq R_c^{n-1} \end{cases}$ 
17:    else if  $\sup X_c == L_a$  then
18:      /* if  $c$  is the downstream-most (boundary) cell of  $a(c)$  */
19:       $\rho_c^n \leftarrow \begin{cases} R_{a(c)}^{-1}((n-1)\Delta t, q_{c+}^{n-1}), & q_{c+}^{n-1} < S_c^{n-1}, \\ \rho_c^{n-1}, & q_{c+}^{n-1} \geq S_c^{n-1} \end{cases}$ 
20:    else
21:      /* if  $c$  is an intermediate cell of  $a(c)$  */
22:       $\rho_c^n \leftarrow \rho_c^{n-1} + \frac{\Delta t}{l_c} (q_{c-}^{n-1} - q_{c+}^{n-1})$ 
23:    end if
24:  end for
25: end for

```

- 1 n and let ω_j denote the number of time steps in cycle j , that is, $\omega_j \Delta t = \Omega_j$. The discrete analogues
2 of (18) - (20) are immediately given by:

$$l_p^j \leq \sum_{m=n}^{n+\omega_j} g_p^m \leq u_p^j \quad 0 \leq n \leq N - \omega_j, 1 \leq p \leq |\mathcal{H}(j)|, j \in \mathcal{J}_c \quad (34)$$

$$\sum_{p=1}^{|\mathcal{H}(j)|} g_p^n = 1 \quad 0 \leq n \leq N, j \in \mathcal{J}_c \quad (35)$$

$$g_p^n \in \{0, 1\} \quad 0 \leq n \leq N, 1 \leq p \leq |\mathcal{H}(j)|, j \in \mathcal{J}_c. \quad (36)$$

- 3 Now, for any p and n , the discrete analogue of (21) is given by

$$\sum_{m=n}^{n+\omega_j} \mathbf{1}_{\{g_p^m - g_p^{m-1} = 1\}} \leq 1. \quad (37)$$

- 4 Since the decision variables g_p^n are binary, this is equivalent to

$$\sum_{m=n}^{n+\omega_j} (g_p^m - g_p^{m-1})^+ \leq 1, \quad (38)$$

1 where $(\cdot)^+ = \max\{\cdot, 0\}$. This can be written as¹

$$\sum_{m=n}^{n+\omega_j} (g_p^m - g_p^{m-1} + |g_p^m - g_p^{m-1}|) \leq 2. \quad (39)$$

2 For $n \in \{1, \dots, N - \omega_j\}$, $p \in \{1, \dots, |\mathcal{H}(j)|\}$, and $j \in \mathcal{J}_c$, introduce new decision variables $\{z_p^n\}$
3 and new constraints

$$|g_p^n - g_p^{n-1}| \leq z_p^n.$$

4 Then, (39) can be replaced with

$$\sum_{m=n}^{n+\omega_j} (g_p^m - g_p^{m-1} + z_p^m) \leq 2.$$

5 Thus, the following (linear!) constraints will serve as a discrete analogue of (21)

$$\sum_{m=n}^{n+\omega_j} (g_p^m - g_p^{m-1} + z_p^m) \leq 2 \quad 1 \leq n \leq N - \omega_j, 1 \leq p \leq |\mathcal{H}(j)|, j \in \mathcal{J}_c \quad (40)$$

$$g_p^n - g_p^{n-1} - z_p^n \leq 0 \quad 1 \leq n \leq N, 1 \leq p \leq |\mathcal{H}(j)|, j \in \mathcal{J}_c \quad (41)$$

$$g_p^n - g_p^{n-1} + z_p^n \geq 0 \quad 1 \leq n \leq N, 1 \leq p \leq |\mathcal{H}(j)|, j \in \mathcal{J}_c. \quad (42)$$

6 5.3 Decomposition approach

7 Due to the size and complexity of the overall problem, solution algorithms typically used to solve
8 non-linear programming problems are ineffective in our case. For this reason, a decomposition
9 approach which utilizes the structure of the subproblems is used. The approach iterates between
10 solving the network traffic dynamics problem and the control problem.

11 We start with a baseline timing plan $\{g_p^n\}$ and calculate the constants $\{g_{c,d}^n\}$ using (17)
12 and $g_{c,d}^n = g_{a(c),a(d)}(n\Delta t)$. Next, we use these constants to compute the network traffic states
13 using Algorithm 1. We then use the output to solve the following binary integer programming
14 subproblem:

$$\begin{aligned} \max_{\{g_p^n, z_p^n\}} & \sum_{j \in \mathcal{J}_c} \sum_{(i,k) \in \mathcal{M}(j)} \sum_{p=1}^{|\mathcal{H}(j)|} \sum_{n=0}^N \alpha_{i,k}^p q_{i,k}^{n,*} g_p^n \\ \text{s.t.} & \quad l_p^j \leq \sum_{m=n}^{n+\omega_j} g_p^m \leq u_p^j & 0 \leq n \leq N - \omega_j, 1 \leq p \leq |\mathcal{H}(j)|, j \in \mathcal{J}_c \\ & \quad \sum_{p=1}^{|\mathcal{H}(j)|} g_p^n = 1 & 0 \leq n \leq N, j \in \mathcal{J}_c \\ & \quad \sum_{m=n}^{n+\omega_j} (g_p^m - g_p^{m-1} + z_p^m) \leq 2 & 1 \leq n \leq N - \omega_j, 1 \leq p \leq |\mathcal{H}(j)|, j \in \mathcal{J}_c \\ & \quad g_p^n - g_p^{n-1} - z_p^n \leq 0 & 1 \leq n \leq N, 1 \leq p \leq |\mathcal{H}(j)|, j \in \mathcal{J}_c \\ & \quad g_p^n - g_p^{n-1} + z_p^n \geq 0 & 1 \leq n \leq N, 1 \leq p \leq |\mathcal{H}(j)|, j \in \mathcal{J}_c \\ & \quad g_p^n \in \{0, 1\} & 0 \leq n \leq N, 1 \leq p \leq |\mathcal{H}(j)|, j \in \mathcal{J}_c. \end{aligned} \quad (43)$$

15 The only change to (43) from one iteration to the next is the $\{q_{i,k}^{n,*}\}$ variables obtained after
16 calculating the network traffic states using Algorithm 1. In other words, we only change the slope

¹Since $(z)^+ = \frac{1}{2}(z + |z|)$ for any $z \in \mathbb{R}$.

1 of the objective function from one iteration to the next. Since decision variables pertaining to dif-
 2 ferent junctions do not interact (in the constraints), (43) can be decomposed into $|\mathcal{J}_c|$ subproblems
 3 that can be solved in parallel. Thus, for each $j \in \mathcal{J}_c$, we have a control subproblem given by

$$\begin{aligned}
 \max_{\{g_p^n, z_p^n\}} \quad & \sum_{(i,k) \in \mathcal{M}(j)} \sum_{p=1}^{|\mathcal{H}(j)|} \sum_{n=0}^N \alpha_{i,k}^p q_{i,k}^{n,*} g_p^n \\
 \text{s.t.} \quad & l_p^j \leq \sum_{m=n}^{n+\omega_j} g_p^m \leq u_p^j & 0 \leq n \leq N - \omega_j, 1 \leq p \leq |\mathcal{H}(j)| \\
 & \sum_{p=1}^{|\mathcal{H}(j)|} g_p^n = 1 & 0 \leq n \leq N \\
 & \sum_{m=n}^{n+\omega_j} (g_p^m - g_p^{m-1} + z_p^m) \leq 2 & 1 \leq n \leq N - \omega_j, 1 \leq p \leq |\mathcal{H}(j)| \\
 & g_p^n - g_p^{n-1} - z_p^n \leq 0 & 1 \leq n \leq N, 1 \leq p \leq |\mathcal{H}(j)| \\
 & g_p^n - g_p^{n-1} + z_p^n \geq 0 & 1 \leq n \leq N, 1 \leq p \leq |\mathcal{H}(j)| \\
 & g_p^n \in \{0, 1\} & 0 \leq n \leq N, 1 \leq p \leq |\mathcal{H}(j)|.
 \end{aligned} \tag{44}$$

4 5.4 Simplification of binary programming problem

5 We now consider another simplification to the control subproblems (44) that results from (i) chang-
 6 ing the objective function to one that maximizes the averaged throughputs over signal cycles and
 7 (ii) assuming that the order of the phases is not to be altered (only their duration).

8 Without loss of generality, we will assume that T can be divided evenly into Υ_j intervals
 9 of length Ω_j (ω_j in units of discrete time steps) for each junction j (typically, $\Upsilon_j \gg \Delta t$). Let w_p^τ
 10 denote the length of phase p in cycle τ . That is, for $\tau \geq 1$,

$$w_p^\tau \equiv \int_{(\tau-1)\Omega_j}^{\tau\Omega_j} g_p(u) du. \tag{45}$$

11 In terms of the discrete variables, we have that

$$w_p^\tau = \sum_{n=(\tau-1)\omega_j}^{\tau\omega_j} g_p^n. \tag{46}$$

12 Hereafter, we adopt the latter, in which case, phase lengths are in (integer) units of number of
 13 discrete time steps. The signal timing constraints are immediately given by

$$l_p^j \leq w_p^\tau \leq u_p^j \quad 1 \leq \tau \leq \Upsilon_j, 1 \leq p \leq |\mathcal{H}(j)| \tag{47}$$

$$\sum_{p=1}^{|\mathcal{H}(j)|} w_p^\tau = \omega_j \quad 1 \leq \tau \leq \Upsilon_j. \tag{48}$$

14 Binary constraints are not needed in this setting. Furthermore, that each phase is active once during
 15 a cycle is implicit in this new formulation. These consequences follow directly from the two
 16 simplifications considered above. For cycle τ and phase p , the average throughput for movement
 17 (i, k) is given by

$$\frac{w_p^\tau}{\omega_j} \sum_{n=(\tau-1)\omega_j}^{\tau\omega_j} \alpha_{i,k}^p q_{i,k}^{n,*},$$

18 which is the total throughput over the cycle scaled by the fraction of time allocated to phase p in
 19 cycle τ . For junction $j \in \mathcal{J}_c$, maximizing the total, cycle-averaged, throughput over all cycles, all

1 movements, and all phases is written as follows:

$$\max_{\{w_p^\tau\}} \sum_{p=1}^{|\mathcal{H}(j)|} \sum_{\tau=1}^{\Upsilon_j} \left(\sum_{(i,k) \in \mathcal{M}(j)} \sum_{n=(\tau-1)\omega_j}^{\tau\omega_j} \frac{\alpha_{i,k}^p q_{i,k}^{n,*}}{\omega_j} \right) w_p^\tau. \quad (49)$$

2 To simplify notation, define the decomposition constants

$$\beta_p^\tau \equiv \sum_{(i,k) \in \mathcal{M}(j)} \sum_{n=(\tau-1)\omega_j}^{\tau\omega_j} \frac{\alpha_{i,k}^p q_{i,k}^{n,*}}{\omega_j}.$$

3 which are obtained directly from the network traffic states calculated using [Algorithm 1](#). The
4 simplified junction control subproblems are given by

$$\begin{aligned} \max_{\{w_p^\tau\}} & \sum_{\tau=1}^{\Upsilon_j} \sum_{p=1}^{|\mathcal{H}(j)|} \beta_p^\tau w_p^\tau \\ \text{s.t.} & \sum_{p=1}^{|\mathcal{H}(j)|} w_p^\tau = \omega_j \quad 1 \leq \tau \leq \Upsilon_j \\ & l_p^j \leq w_p^\tau \leq u_p^j \quad 1 \leq \tau \leq \Upsilon_j, 1 \leq p \leq |\mathcal{H}(j)|. \end{aligned} \quad (50)$$

5 Notice that decision variables in (50) pertaining to different cycles do not appear in the
6 same constraints. Hence, these subproblems can be further decomposed into one problem per
7 signal cycle. The resulting problems are easy to solve using a greedy algorithm. To see this,
8 let $\bar{w}_p^\tau \equiv w_p^\tau - l_p^j$, $\bar{u}_p^j \equiv u_p^j - l_p^j$, and $\bar{\omega}_j \equiv \omega_j - \sum_p^{|\mathcal{H}(j)|} l_p^j$. Then, the decomposed problems are
9 equivalent to

$$\begin{aligned} \max_{\{\bar{w}_p^\tau\}} & \sum_{p=1}^{|\mathcal{H}(j)|} \beta_p^\tau \bar{w}_p^\tau \\ \text{s.t.} & \sum_{p=1}^{|\mathcal{H}(j)|} \bar{w}_p^\tau = \bar{\omega}_j \\ & 0 \leq \bar{w}_p^\tau \leq \bar{u}_p^j \quad 1 \leq p \leq |\mathcal{H}(j)|. \end{aligned} \quad (51)$$

10 Solving (51) is equivalent to solving a continuous knapsack problem², provided the discrete
11 analogue of the feasibility condition (23) holds for each j :

$$\sum_{p=1}^{|\mathcal{H}(j)|} l_p^j \leq \omega_j \leq \sum_{p=1}^{|\mathcal{H}(j)|} u_p^j. \quad (52)$$

12 When (52) holds, the greedy algorithm used to solve the knapsack problem is guaranteed to pro-
13 duce an optimal solution to (51), that is, one that also honors the equality constraint in (51). To
14 summarize, the control subproblem can be solved using [Algorithm 2](#).

15 Since the lower and upper bounds on the phase lengths, l_p^j and u_p^j , are in (integer) units
16 of discrete time steps, [Algorithm 2](#) produces integer solutions for w_p^τ . Assume the orders of the
17 phases is the same as their indices, i.e., phase p is the p th phase of the cycle. Then, the output of
18 the control subproblem is translated into input to the network traffic state computation scheme by
19 setting $g_p^n = 1$ for each $n \in \mathcal{Q}_p^n = \{(\tau-1)\omega_j + \sum_{q=1}^{p-1} \omega_q, \dots, (\tau-1)\omega_j + \sum_{q=1}^p \omega_q - 1\}$ and $g_p^n = 0$
20 for $n \in \{(\tau-1)\omega_j, \dots, \tau\omega_j\} / \mathcal{Q}_p^n$, where $\sum_{q=1}^{p-1} \omega_q = 0$ for $p = 1$.

²The only difference between (51) and a continuous knapsack problem is the equality constraint in (51), which is an inequality (\leq) in the knapsack problem formulation.

Algorithm 2: Control subproblem solution algorithm

```

1: Initialize:
2: For each junction  $j$ , each phase  $p$ , and each cycle  $\tau$ ,  $\beta_p^\tau \leftarrow \sum_{(i,k) \in \mathcal{H}(j)} \sum_{n=(\tau-1)\omega_j}^{\tau\omega_j} \frac{\alpha_{i,k}^p q_{i,k}^{n,*}}{\omega_j}$ 
3: Iterate:
4: for  $j \in \mathcal{J}_c$  do
5:   for  $\tau = 1 \dots \Upsilon_j$  do
6:     Sort the phases  $p \in \mathcal{H}(j)$  in descending order of  $\beta_p^\tau$ :
        $\{(1), \dots, (|\mathcal{H}(j)|) : \beta_{(1)}^\tau \geq \beta_{(2)}^\tau \geq \dots \geq \beta_{(|\mathcal{H}(j)|)}^\tau\}$ 
7:      $\bar{w}_{(1)}^\tau \leftarrow \min\{\bar{\omega}_j, \bar{u}_{(1)}\}$ 
8:     for  $(p) = 2 \dots (|\mathcal{H}(j)|)$  do
9:        $\bar{w}_{(p)}^\tau \leftarrow \min\{\bar{\omega}_j - \sum_{(q)=1}^{(p)-1} \bar{w}_{(q)}^\tau, \bar{u}_{(p)}^j\}$ 
10:    end for
11:    for  $p \in \mathcal{H}(j)$  do
12:       $w_p^\tau \leftarrow \bar{w}_p^\tau + l_p^j$ 
13:    end for
14:  end for
15: end for

```

5.5 Full algorithm

Our full algorithm is formally summarized in [Algorithm 3](#). We will discuss the stopping criterion in the numerical results section. Note that a related computationally cheaper algorithm (that may not optimize the control plan as effectively) is to optimize *all* junctions (rather than just one) at each cycle before simulating again.

Algorithm 3: Full algorithm

```

1: Set initial control plan
2: repeat
3:   for cycles  $c$  do
4:     for controllable junctions  $j$  do
5:       Simulate traffic dynamics using Algorithm 1
6:       Optimize phase splits for a junction  $j$  at cycle  $c$  using Algorithm 2
7:     end for
8:   end for
9: until stopping criterion achieved

```

We envisage using [Algorithm 3](#) in a model predictive control type way: At each cycle we run the algorithm to generate an optimized control plan over a time horizon of multiple cycles, but only apply the first cycle of controls. This is desirable in a real-time system as it allows us to make use of incoming data.

The dependency between junctions (e.g. the phase split of an upstream junction influencing the optimal phase split of a downstream junction) is taken care of because we optimize over all junctions and cycles multiple times as a result of the ‘repeat’ part of the algorithm. The algorithm is not guaranteed to find a minimizer of the optimization problem, but we will see in the next section that in our test cases it finds a solution that improves the objective value over the initial

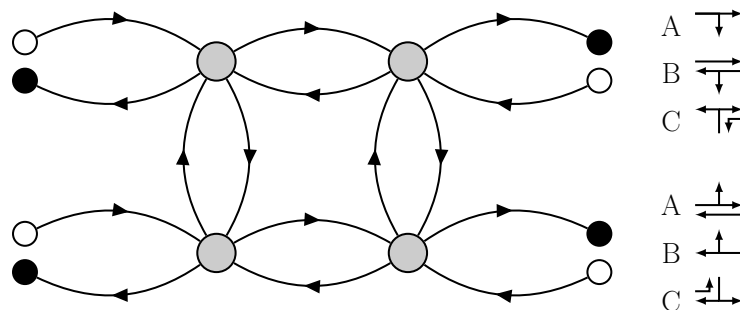


FIGURE 4 : The directed graph on the left illustrates the topology of our synthetic road network. White circles are source nodes, black circles are sink nodes, and gray circles are controllable junctions. In the top right we illustrate the phases for the top two junctions. In the bottom right we illustrate the phases for the bottom two junctions.

1 condition.

2 6 NUMERICAL RESULTS

3 In this section we will discuss the performance of [Algorithm 3](#) in three key areas: Algorithmic per-
 4 formance (convergence properties of the iterative method), runtime performance (computational
 5 cost of the algorithm in comparison to the related algorithm from [Tang et al. \(19\)](#)), and control
 6 performance (the improvement in traffic flow compared to a base plan).

7 We will mainly demonstrate performance on a synthetic network containing 4 controllable
 8 junctions, 16 links, and 4 source nodes. Its network and phase topology are illustrated in [Figure 4](#).
 9 Note that such junctions and phases can be observed in real road networks. The optimized control
 10 plan on a network of this size is easy to interpret and the low computational cost enables us to
 11 solve many different instances of the problem with a variety of boundary conditions. We will also
 12 mention preliminary results on a network inspired by a real road network with 20 controllable
 13 junctions and 297 links. One may want to optimize a network of this size when adjusting control
 14 plans in response to localized extreme conditions, such as an accident creating a traffic jam.

15 Unless otherwise stated, the key parameters that we will use in our tests are a cycle time of
 16 30 seconds, an optimization horizon of 5 cycles, an initial control plan where phase time is split
 17 evenly between phases, upper and lower phase bounds of 80% and 20% of the cycle time, and link
 18 parameters that are physically reasonable for an urban road.

19 There are no permitted phases in our test network so the α variables take the value 0 or 1.

20 6.1 Algorithmic performance

21 The alternating directions based algorithm is not guaranteed to increase the objective function from
 22 one iteration to the next. In fact the nature of our flow averaging simplification (which was what
 23 allowed us to reduce to a knapsack problem) means that the algorithm might not converge to just
 24 one control plan, but rather to a periodic oscillation between a number of control plans. In this case
 25 we take the control plan that maximizes the objective function. In the examples tested convergence
 26 occurred within a small number of iterations (generally less than 5, even on the largest problems).

27 In order to circumvent this undesirable oscillation property we have investigated more com-
 28 plicated algorithms which undo changes to the control plan if they do not lead to an improvement

# junctions	# cycles	CPU time for our algorithm (s)	CPU time ‘fast decomposition’ (s)
4	1	0.58	7.89
4	2	0.95	17.62
4	4	1.74	27.88
4	6	2.30	76.23
1	6	0.63	9.17
2	6	1.35	32.40
4	6	2.30	76.23

TABLE 1 : The average CPU time for our algorithm and the ‘fast decomposition’ algorithm on problems of different dimensions. Observe that our algorithm is approximately an order of magnitude faster.

1 in the objective function. However such algorithms do not result in control plans with significantly
2 better performance. We will demonstrate in [Subsection 6.3](#) that the naive alternating directions
3 approach nevertheless produces control plans that are effective at improving traffic conditions.

4 **6.2 Runtime performance**

5 In deriving our algorithm we make a number of simplifications with the intention of decreasing
6 the computational cost without sacrificing control performance. We will demonstrate that these
7 simplifications allow us to achieve a runtime that is an order of magnitude faster than the related
8 ‘fast decomposition’ algorithm from [Tang et al. \(19\)](#).

9 This algorithm works in a similar way to ours, alternating between solving a control prob-
10 lem and simulating traffic. However instead of solving the simplified control problem (51) it solves
11 a linear programming problem similar to (44), but continuous rather than binary. We implement
12 the algorithm from [Tang et al. \(19\)](#) using our slightly different forward model (we use actual flow
13 at controlled junctions rather than averaged flow) and compare runtime performance against our
14 proposed algorithm.

15 The computational cost of the forward simulation (using the CTM) scales linearly in time
16 and space, and at each iteration we simulate $O(|\mathcal{J}_c|)$ times. This cost is the same for both algo-
17 rithms and appears to be dominated by the cost of the control subproblem, which is different for
18 each algorithm. At each iteration of our algorithm we solve $|\mathcal{J}_c| \times Y$ knapsack problems each
19 with computational cost independent of the number of junctions and cycles Y (which we suppose
20 here, for simplicity, is the same for all junctions). So the total computational cost of solving the
21 control problems is $O(|\mathcal{J}_c| \times |Y|)$. In contrast the ‘fast decomposition’ algorithm requires solving
22 a linear programming problem, which we would expect to have computational cost greater than
23 $O(|\mathcal{J}_c| \times Y)$. We can see in [Table 1](#) that the runtime of our algorithm is approximately an order
24 of magnitude faster than the ‘fast decomposition’ algorithm. This comparison was made on net-
25 works consisting of different numbers of controllable junctions that are otherwise similar to our
26 previously mentioned synthetic example.

27 Note that this performance scales to networks of a size big enough for traffic management
28 applications. Preliminary tests on a realistic test example with 20 controllable junctions and 297
29 links achieved an average CPU time of 12.18 seconds, which is fast enough for real-time use.

30 In order to ensure a fair comparison we used the same implementation apart from the opti-
31 mization routine for the control problem. The linear program in the ‘fast decomposition’ algorithm

1 was solved using the IBM ILOG CPLEX Optimizer [CPL](#) (26). An average of the computation time
 2 was taken for 50 different optimization runs with randomly sampled boundary conditions, though
 3 the boundary conditions did not significantly affect the computation time. The computations were
 4 performed on a standard laptop.

5 6.3 Control performance (non-incident situation)

We compute two statistics to demonstrate the performance of our optimized control plans. The
 total link outflow (over all timesteps) and the total delay, which we define as

$$\sum_{\text{timesteps}} \sum_{\text{cells}} \# \text{ vehicles that cannot move to next cell (due to red lights, congestion etc) .}$$

6 We can compute the above statistics for different control plans in order to compare their
 7 performance. Note that the relative performance of different control plans likely varies for differ-
 8 ent networks and boundary and initial conditions. We will consider the synthetic network from
 9 [Figure 4](#) and generate different instances of the problem by randomly sampling different boundary
 10 conditions (i.e. randomly and independently sample each source flow uniformly from $(0, j)$, where
 11 j is the capacity of the link). The affect of different initial conditions is negligible over our 30
 12 minute simulation, so we initialize to zero traffic in the network.

13 The base control plan for our comparison is one that evenly splits the cycle time between
 14 phases. This is also the initial control plan for our optimization algorithm. We compare the base
 15 control plan against the optimized control plan on 200 different randomly generated instances. The
 16 percentage improvements can be seen in the histograms in [Figure 5](#). In particular, we observe an
 17 improvement in both statistics for all instances, with a median flow increase of 6.6% and a median
 18 delay decrease of 26%. Preliminary results show comparable performance on our realistic network
 19 with 20 controllable junctions and 297 links.

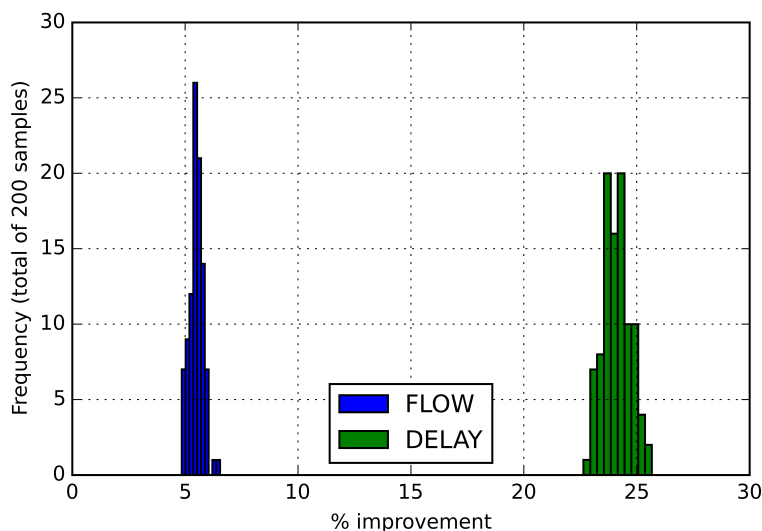


FIGURE 5 : Percentage improvement in flow and delay for 200 instances of the synthetic example in [Figure 4](#) with 4 controllable junctions.

1 One might claim the junction model we use in this paper does not provide a realistic enough
2 replication of traffic dynamics for validation purposes. We tested a junction flow model than has
3 fixed splitting rates, similar to that in [Tang et al. \(19\)](#), however this did not significantly change the
4 improvement statistics. In this case median flow increased by 5.5% (in comparison to 6.6%) and
5 median delay decreased by 24% percent (compared to 26%).

6 Note that taking different values for the upper and lower bounds on phase time can alter the
7 performance of the optimized control plans. In particular, if we have no upper and lower bounds
8 the algorithm will assign all cycle time to just a single phase. In addition to being undesirable from
9 a network management point of view (drivers may get frustrated), this can lead to a decrease in
10 performance compared to the even split base control plan. However, taking nonzero lower bounds
11 on phase times was generally sufficient to ensure improved performance. In practice these bounds
12 could be calibrated using historical data or operator experience.

13 **6.4 Control performance (incident situation)**

14 In the previous section we saw that our optimized control plans allow the road network to react to
15 varying boundary conditions (source flows), leading to improved traffic management compared to
16 a fixed base control plan. Similarly, the road network parameters can vary when incidents reduce
17 the capacity of links.

18 We suppose an incident reduces the capacity of a central link in the synthetic network to
19 20% of its original capacity half way though our simulation. We perform our optimization with
20 100 randomly sampled but fixed in time source flows. The median time averaged drop in total flow
21 before and after the incident is 14.0 % using the base plan compared to 11.6% using the optimized
22 control plan. Similarly we the median time averaged increase in delay before and after the incident
23 is 55.8 % using the base plan compared to 32.5% using the optimized control plan.

24 **7 CONCLUSION**

25 We started with the complicated nonlinear control problem of optimizing traffic lights in a network
26 in order to maximize controller flow. Some simplifying assumptions led us to a fast algorithm
27 for achieving this, which can be used in a real-time model predictive control type way. We have
28 demonstrated that our algorithm is an order of magnitude faster than a related algorithm from the
29 literature. In all tested cases the algorithm produced a control plan that performed better than a
30 naive even split control plan in terms of flow and delay improvement. Our next step is to verify
31 that our results hold on larger networks derived from real world data.

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