Multicriteria Decision-Making for the Environment: Sustainability and Vulnerability Analysis of Critical Infrastructure Systems from Transportation Networks to Electric Power Supply Chains

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Outline of Presentation

- Background
- The Transportation Network Equilibrium Problem and Methodological Tools
- The Braess Paradox
- Transportation and Critical Infrastructure Networks
- Some Interesting MCDM Applications to Sustainability
- A New Network Performance/Efficiency Measure with Applications to Critical Infrastructure Networks
- A New Approach to Transportation Network Robustness
- What About Dynamic Networks?
- The Time-Dependent (Demand-Varying) Braess Paradox and Evolutionary Variational Inequalities
- Extension of the Efficiency Measure to Dynamic Networks
- Where Are We Now? An Empirical Case Study

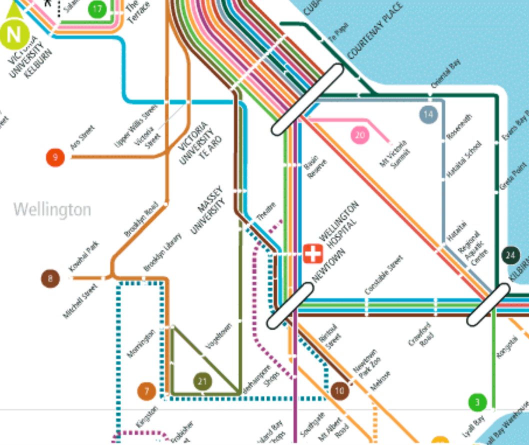
Background

We Are in a New Era of Decision-Making Characterized by:

- *complex interactions* among decision-makers in organizations;
- alternative and at times *conflicting criteria* used in decision-making;
- *constraints on resources*: natural, human, financial, time, etc.;
- *global reach* of many decisions;
- *high impact* of many decisions;
- increasing *risk and uncertainty*, and
- the *importance of dynamics* and realizing a fast and sound response to evolving events.

Network problems are their own class of problems and they come in various forms and formulations, i.e., as optimization (linear or nonlinear) problems or as equilibrium problems and even dynamic network problems.

Critical infrastructure network problems, with an emphasis on Transportation, will be the focus of this talk.



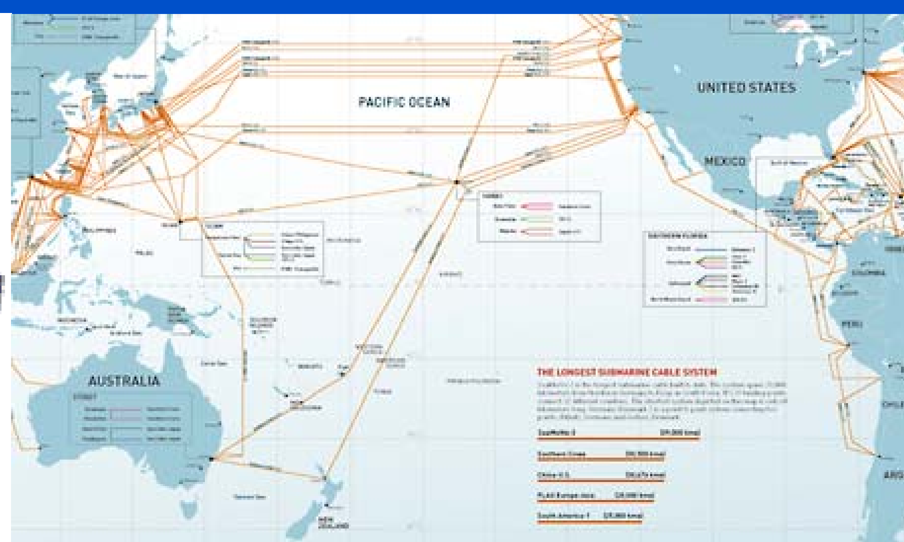
Bus Network

Transportation, Communication, and Energy Networks

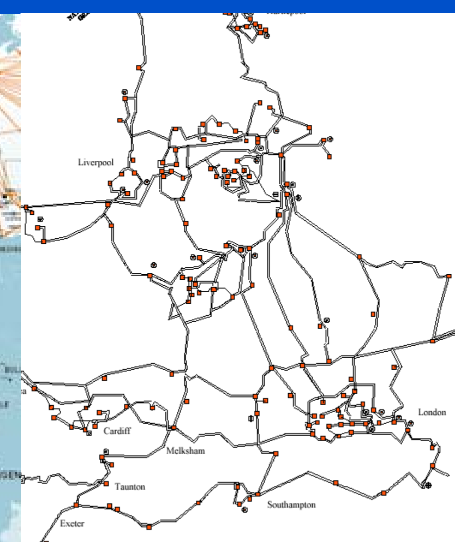
Rail Network

Iridium Satellite Constellation Network

Satellite and Undersea Cable Networks



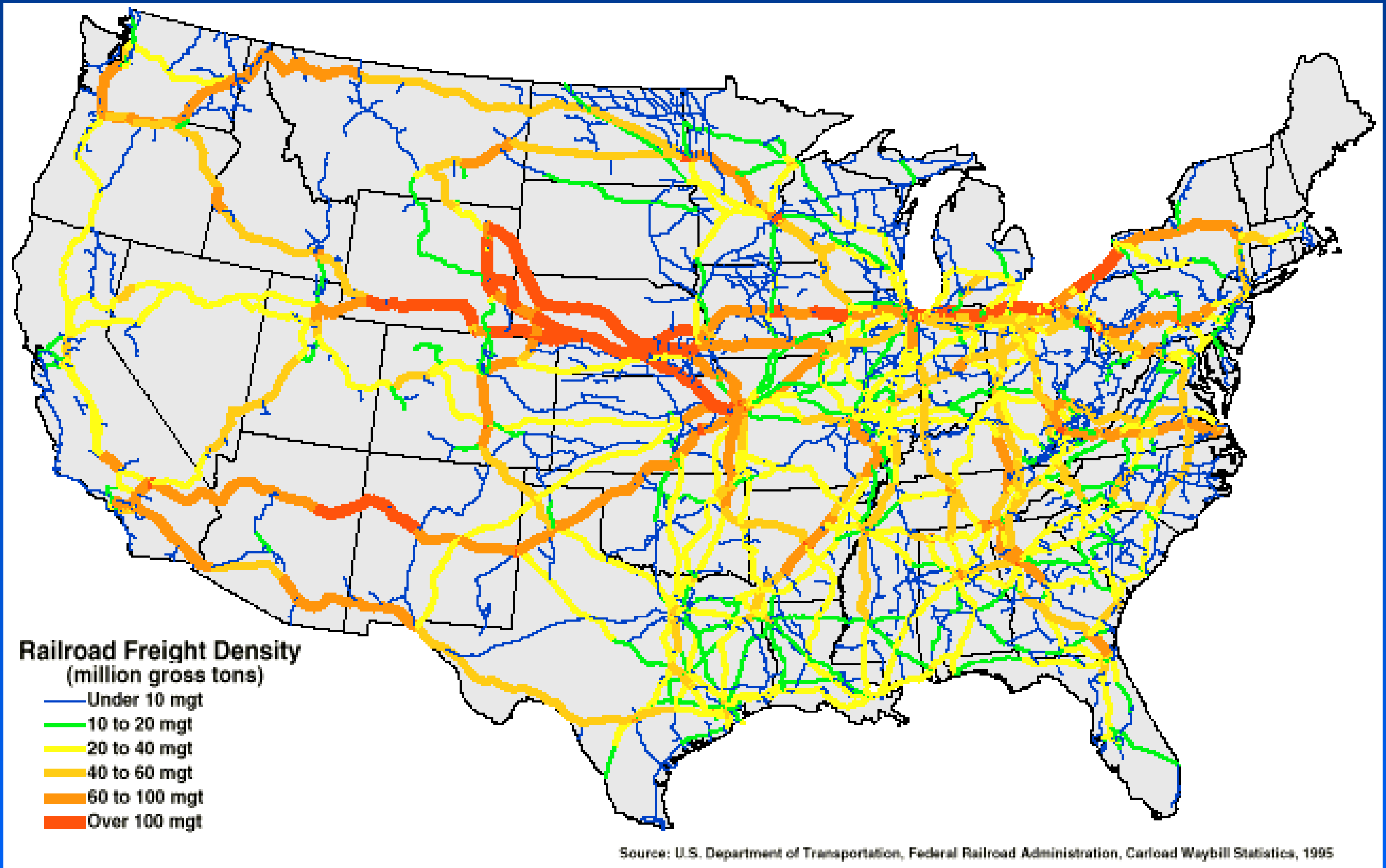
British Electricity Grid



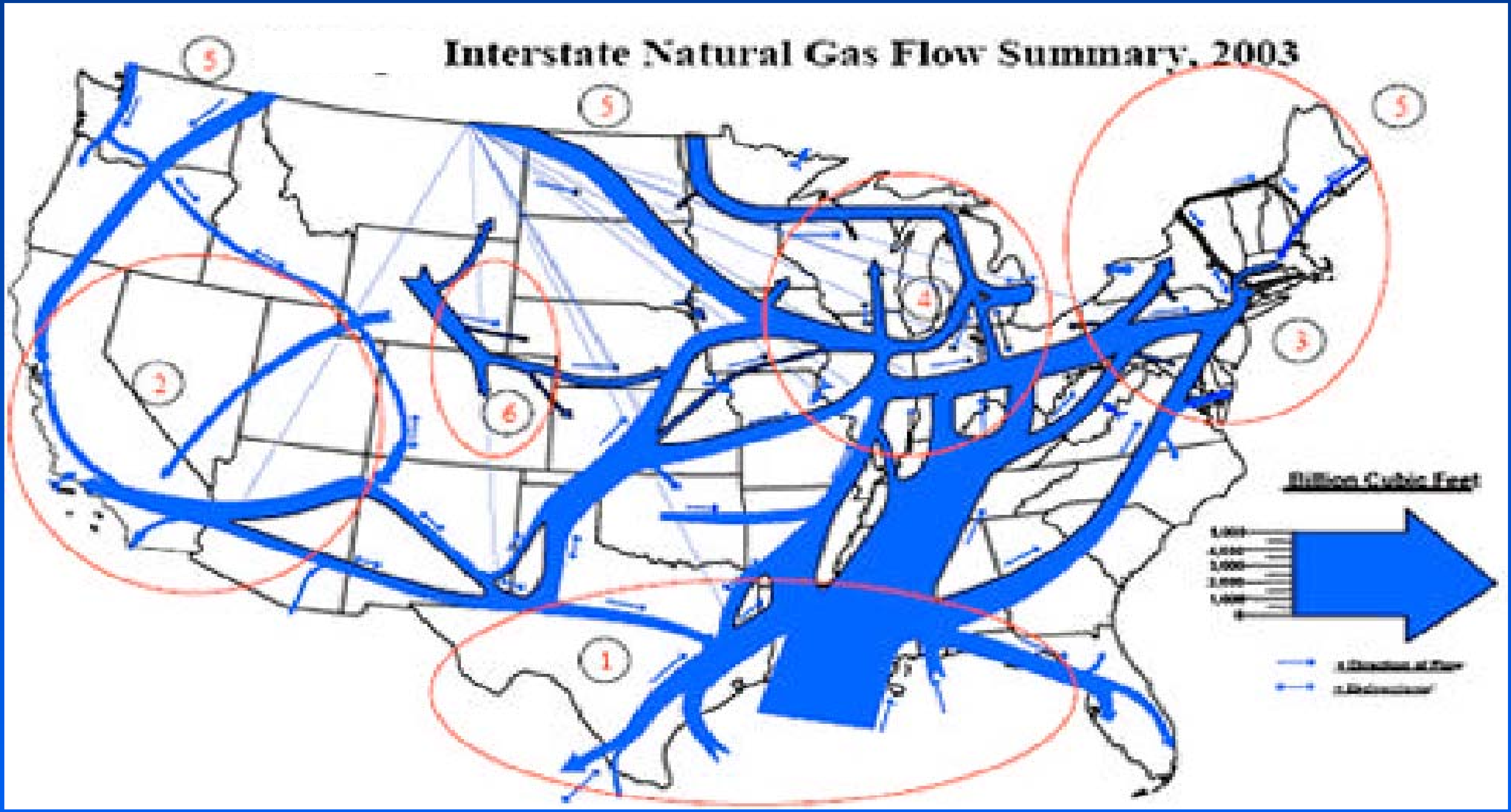
Components of Common Physical Networks

Network System	Nodes	Links	Flows
Transportation	Intersections, Homes, Workplaces, Airports, Railyards	Roads, Airline Routes, Railroad Track	Automobiles, Trains, and Planes,
Manufacturing and logistics	Workstations, Distribution Points	Processing, Shipment	Components, Finished Goods
Communication	Computers, Satellites, Telephone Exchanges	Fiber Optic Cables Radio Links	Voice, Data, Video
Energy	Pumping Stations, Plants	Pipelines, Transmission Lines	Water, Gas, Oil, Electricity

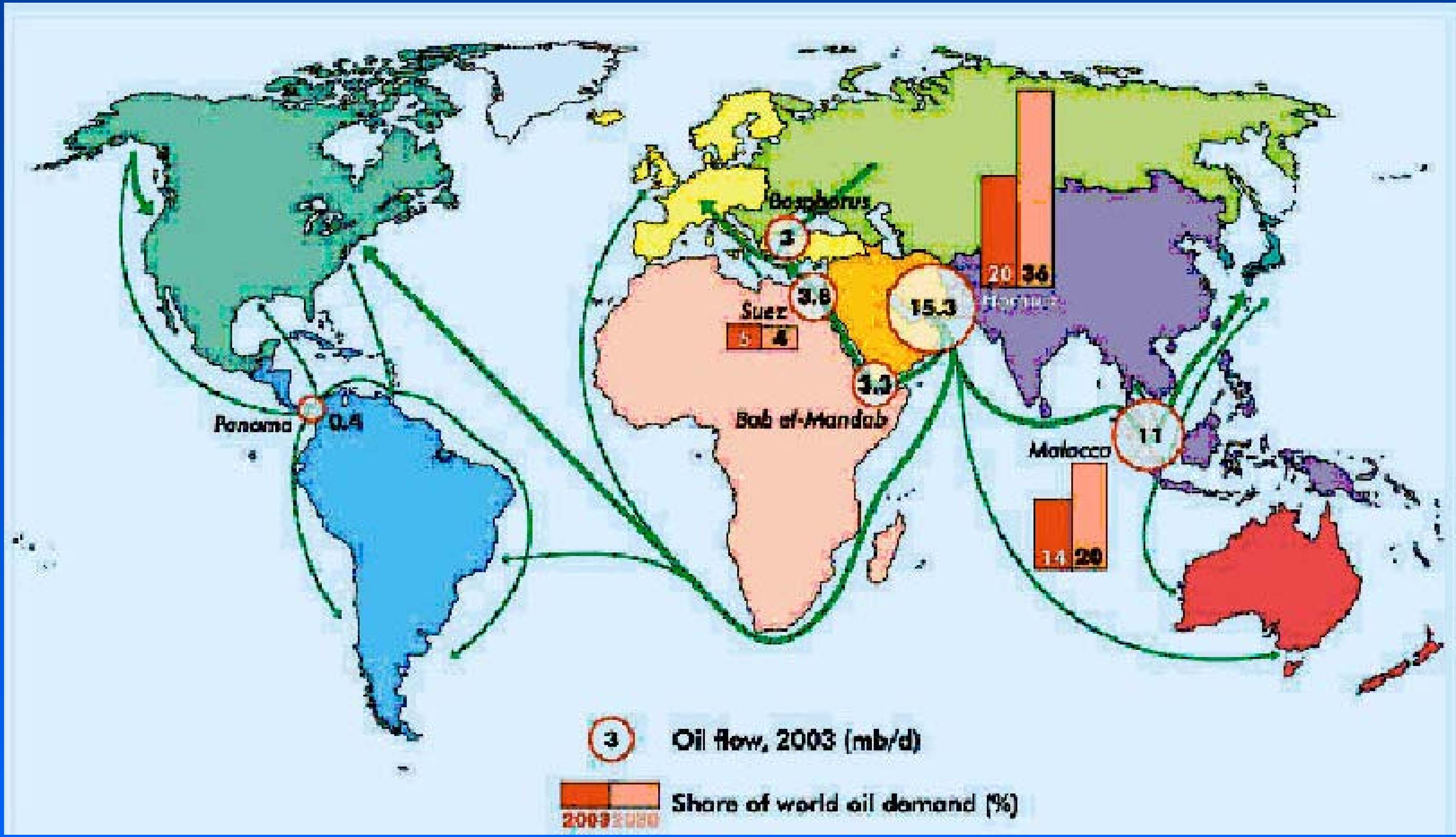
US Railroad Freight Flows



Natural Gas Pipeline Network in the US



World Oil Trading Network



The study of the efficient operation on transportation networks dates to *ancient Rome* with a classical example being the publicly provided Roman road network and the *time of day chariot policy,* whereby chariots were banned from the ancient city of Rome at particular times of day.

Characteristics of Networks Today

- *large-scale nature* and complexity of network topology;
- *congestion*;
- the *interactions among networks* themselves such as in transportation versus telecommunications;
- *policies* surrounding networks today may have a *major impact* not only economically but also environmentally, *socially, politically, and security-wise*.

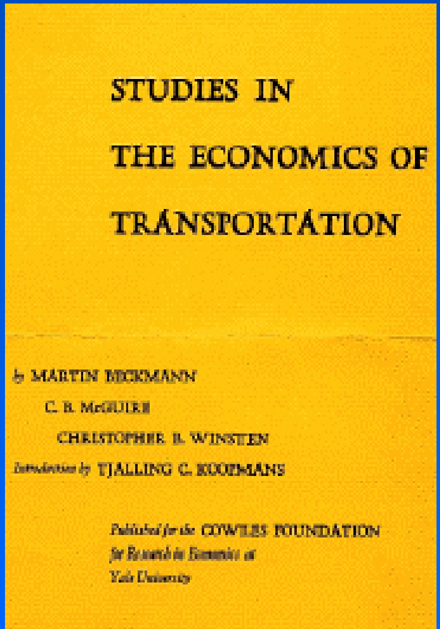
- *alternative behaviors of the users of the network*
  - system-optimized versus
  - user-optimized (network equilibrium),

  which may lead to

  paradoxical phenomena.

The Transportation Network Equilibrium Problem and Methodological Tools

Transportation science has historically been the discipline that has pushed the frontiers in terms of methodological developments for such problems (which are often large-scale) beginning with the book, *Studies in the Economics of Transportation*, by Beckmann, McGuire, and Winsten (1956).



Quandt (1967) and Schneider (1968) introduced multicriteria decision-making into transportation network modeling (see also **Dial (1979)**).

Dafermos (1980) showed that the transportation network equilibrium (also referred to as user-optimization) conditions as formulated by **Smith (1979)** were a finite-dimensional variational inequality. In 1981, **Dafermos** proposed a multicriteria transportation network equilibrium model in which the costs were flow-dependent.

In 1993, **Dupuis and Nagurney** proved that the set of solutions to a variational inequality problem coincided with the set of solutions to a projected dynamical system (PDS) in R^n.

In 1996, **Nagurney and Zhang** published ***Projected Dynamical Systems and Variational Inequalities***.

In 2002, **Cojocaru** proved the 1993 result for Hilbert Spaces.

In 2002, **Nagurney and Dong** published ***Supernetworks: Decision-Making for the Information Age***.

The Transportation Network Equilibrium (TNE) Problem

Consider a general network $G = [N, L]$, where N denotes the set of nodes, and L the set of directed links. Let a denote a link of the network connecting a pair of nodes, and let p denote a path consisting of a sequence of links connecting an O/D pair. P_w denotes the set of paths, assumed to be acyclic, connecting the O/D pair of nodes w and P the set of all paths.

Let x_p represent the flow on path p and f_a the flow on link a. The following conservation of flow equation must hold:

$$f_a = \sum_{p \in P} x_p \delta_{ap},$$

where $\delta_{ap} = 1$, if link a is contained in path p, and 0, otherwise. This expression states that the load on a link a is equal to the sum of all the path flows on paths p that contain (traverse) link a.

Moreover, if we let d_w denote the demand associated with O/D pair w, then we must have that

$$d_w = \sum_{p \in P_w} x_p,$$

where $x_p \geq 0$, $\forall p$, that is, the sum of all the path flows between an origin/destination pair w must be equal to the given demand d_w.

Let c_a denote the user cost associated with traversing link a, which is assumed to be continuous, and C_p the user cost associated with traversing the path p. Then

$$C_p = \sum_{a \in L} c_a \delta_{ap}.$$

In other words, the cost of a path is equal to the sum of the costs on the links comprising the path.

Transportation Network Equilibrium

The network equilibrium conditions are then given by:
For each path $p \in P_w$ and every O/D pair w:

$$C_p \begin{cases} = \lambda_w, & \text{if} \quad x_p^* > 0 \\ \geq \lambda_w, & \text{if} \quad x_p^* = 0 \end{cases}$$

where λ_w is an indicator, whose value is not known a priori. These equilibrium conditions state that the user costs on all used paths connecting a given O/D pair will be minimal and equalized.

As shown by Beckmann, McGuire, and Winsten (1956) and Dafermos and Sparrow (1969), if the user link cost functions satisfy the symmetry property that $[\frac{\partial c_b}{\partial c_a} = \frac{\partial c_a}{\partial c_b}]$ for all links a, b in the network then the solution to the above network equilibrium problem can be reformulated as the solution to an associated optimization problem. For example, if we have that $c_a = c_a(f_a)$, $\forall a \in L$, then the solution can be obtained by solving:

$$\text{Minimize} \quad \sum_{a \in L} \int_0^{f_a} c_a(y) dy$$

subject to:

$$d_w = \sum_{p \in P_w} x_p, \quad \forall w \in W,$$

$$f_a = \sum_{p \in P} x_p, \quad \forall a \in L,$$

$$x_p \geq 0, \quad \forall p \in P.$$

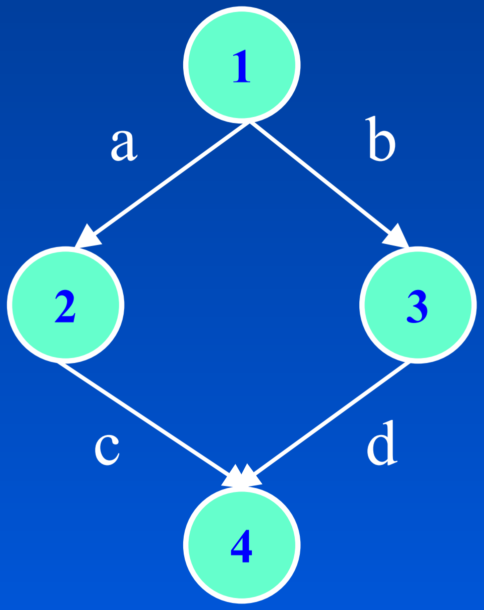
The Braess (1968) Paradox

Assume a network with a single O/D pair (1,4). There are 2 paths available to travelers: $\mathbf{p_1=(a,c)}$ and $\mathbf{p_2=(b,d)}$.

For a travel demand of **6,** the equilibrium path flows are $\mathbf{x_{p_1}^* = x_{p_2}^* = 3}$ and

The equilibrium path travel cost is

$\mathbf{C_{p_1} = C_{p_2} = 83}$.



$c_a(f_a)=10\,f_a$ $c_b(f_b) = f_b+50$

$c_c(f_c) = f_c+50$ $c_d(f_d) = 10\,f_d$

Adding a Link Increases Travel Cost for All!

Adding a new link creates a new path **p_3=(a,e,d).**

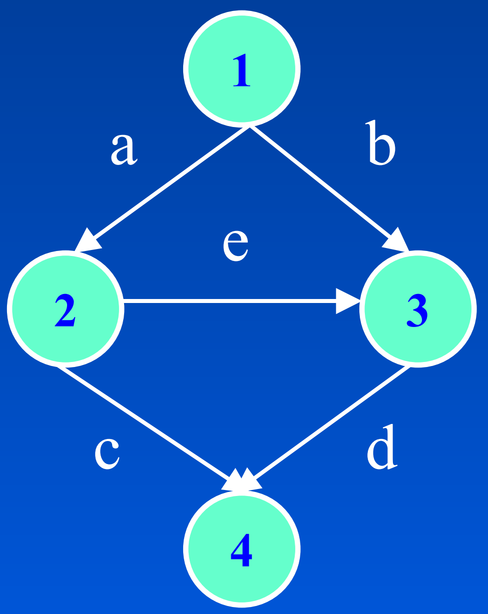
The original flow distribution pattern is no longer an equilibrium pattern, since at this level of flow the cost on path **p_3, C_{p_3}=70.**

The new equilibrium flow pattern network is

$x_{p_1}^* = x_{p_2}^* = x_{p_3}^* = 2$.

The equilibrium path travel costs:

$C_{p_1} = C_{p_2} = C_{p_3} = 92$.



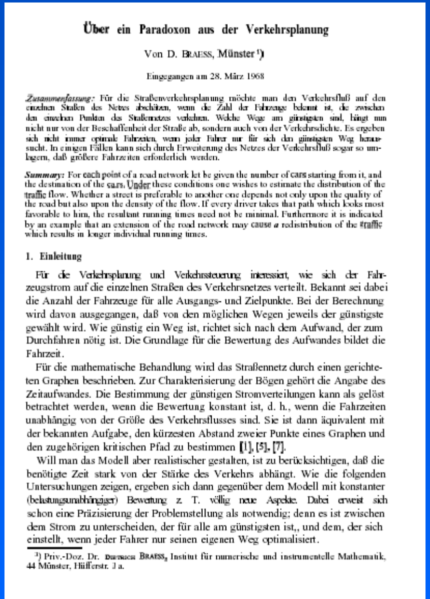
$c_e(f_e) = f_e + 10$

The 1968 Braess article has been translated from German to English and appears as

On a Paradox of Traffic Planning

by Braess, Nagurney, Wakolbinger

in the November 2005 issue of *Transportation Science.*



Über ein Paradoxon aus der Verkehrsplanung

Von D. Braess, Münster [1])

Eingegangen am 28. März 1968

Zusammenfassung: Für die Straßenverkehrsplanung möchte man den Verkehrsfluß auf den einzelnen Straßen des Netzes abschätzen, wenn die Zahl der Fahrzeuge bekannt ist, die zwischen den einzelnen Punkten des Straßennetzes verkehren. Welche Wege am günstigsten sind, hängt nun nicht nur von der Beschaffenheit der Straße ab, sondern auch von der Verkehrsdichte. Es ergeben sich nicht immer optimale Fahrzeiten, wenn jeder Fahrer nur für sich den günstigsten Weg heraussucht. In einigen Fällen kann sich durch Erweiterung des Netzes der Verkehrsfluß sogar so umlagern, daß größere Fahrzeiten erforderlich werden.

Summary: For each point of a road network let be given the number of cars starting from it, and the destination of the cars. Under these conditions one wishes to estimate the distribution of the traffic flow. Whether a street is preferable to another one depends not only upon the quality of the road but also upon the density of the flow. If every driver takes that path which looks most favorable to him, the resultant running times need not be minimal. Furthermore it is indicated by an example that an extension of the road network may cause a redistribution of the traffic which results in longer individual running times.

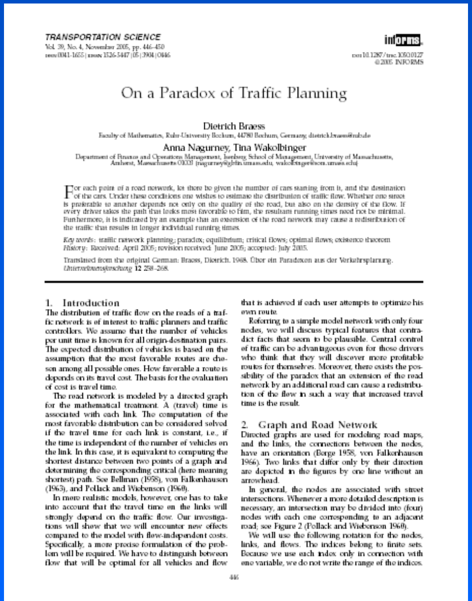
1. Einleitung

Für die Verkehrsplanung und Verkehrssteuerung interessiert, wie sich der Fahrzeugstrom auf die einzelnen Straßen des Verkehrsnetzes verteilt. Bekannt sei dabei die Anzahl der Fahrzeuge für alle Ausgangs- und Zielpunkte. Bei der Berechnung wird davon ausgegangen, daß von den möglichen Wegen jeweils der günstigste gewählt wird. Wie günstig ein Weg ist, richtet sich nach dem Aufwand, der zum Durchfahren nötig ist. Die Grundlage für die Bewertung des Aufwandes bildet die Fahrzeit.

Für die mathematische Behandlung wird das Straßennetz durch einen gerichteten Graphen beschrieben. Zur Charakterisierung der Bögen gehört die Angabe des Zeitaufwandes. Die Bestimmung der günstigen Stromverteilungen kann als gelöst betrachtet werden, wenn die Bewertung konstant ist, d. h., wenn die Fahrzeiten unabhängig von der Größe des Verkehrsflusses sind. Sie ist dann äquivalent mit der bekannten Aufgabe, den kürzesten Abstand zweier Punkte eines Graphen und den zugehörigen kritischen Pfad zu bestimmen [1], [5], [7].

Will man das Modell aber realistischer gestalten, ist zu berücksichtigen, daß die benötigte Zeit stark von der Stärke des Verkehrs abhängt. Wie die folgenden Untersuchungen zeigen, ergeben sich dann gegenüber dem Modell mit konstanter (belastungsunabhängiger) Bewertung z. T. völlig neue Aspekte. Dabei erweist sich schon eine Präzisierung der Problemstellung als notwendig; denn es ist zwischen dem Strom zu unterscheiden, der für alle am günstigsten ist,, und dem, der sich einstellt, wenn jeder Fahrer nur seinen eigenen Weg optimalisiert.

[1]) Priv.-Doz. Dr. Dietrich Braess, Institut für numerische und instrumentelle Mathematik, 44 Münster, Hüfferstr. 3 a.



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On a Paradox of Traffic Planning

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For each point of a road network, let there be given the number of cars starting from it, and the destination of the cars. Under these conditions one wishes to estimate the distribution of traffic flow. Whether one street is preferable to another depends not only on the quality of the road, but also on the density of the flow. If every driver takes the path that looks most favorable to him, the resultant running times need not be minimal. Furthermore, it is indicated by an example that an extension of the road network may cause a redistribution of the traffic that results in longer individual running times.

Key words: traffic network planning; paradox; equilibrium; critical flows; optimal flows; existence theorem
History: Received: April 2005; revision received: June 2005; accepted: July 2005.

Translated from the original German: Braess, Dietrich. 1968. Über ein Paradoxon aus der Verkehrsplanung. *Unternehmensforschung* **12** 258–268.

1. Introduction

The distribution of traffic flow on the roads of a traffic network is of interest to traffic planners and traffic controllers. We assume that the number of vehicles per unit time is known for all origin-destination pairs. The expected distribution of vehicles is based on the assumption that the most favorable routes are chosen among all possible ones. How favorable a route is depends on its travel cost. The basis for the evaluation of cost is travel time.

The road network is modeled by a directed graph for the mathematical treatment. A (travel) time is associated with each link. The computation of the most favorable distribution can be considered solved if the travel time for each link is constant, i.e., if the time is independent of the number of vehicles on the link. In this case, it is equivalent to computing the shortest distance between two points of a graph and determining the corresponding critical (here meaning shortest) path. See Bellman (1958), von Falkenhausen (1963), and Pollack and Wiebenson (1960).

In more realistic models, however, one has to take into account that the travel time on the links will strongly depend on the traffic flow. Our investigations will show that we will encounter new effects compared to the model with flow-independent costs. Specifically, a more precise formulation of the problem will be required. We have to distinguish between flow that will be optimal for all vehicles and flow that is achieved if each user attempts to optimize his own route.

Referring to a simple model network with only four nodes, we will discuss typical features that contradict facts that seem to be plausible. Central control of traffic can be advantageous even for those drivers who think that they will discover more profitable routes for themselves. Moreover, there exists the possibility of the paradox that an extension of the road network by an additional road can cause a redistribution of the flow in such a way that increased travel time is the result.

2. Graph and Road Network

Directed graphs are used for modeling road maps, and the links, the connections between the nodes, have an orientation (Berge 1958, von Falkenhausen 1966). Two links that differ only by their direction are depicted in the figures by one line without an arrowhead.

In general, the nodes are associated with street intersections. Whenever a more detailed description is necessary, an intersection may be divided into (four) nodes with each one corresponding to an adjacent road; see Figure 2 (Pollack and Wiebenson 1960).

We will use the following notation for the nodes, links, and flows. The indices belong to finite sets. Because we use each index only in connection with one variable, we do not write the range of the indices.

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If no such symmetry assumption holds for the user link costs functions, then the equilibrium conditions can no longer be reformulated as an associated optimization problem and the equilibrium conditions are formulated and solved as a *variational inequality problem!*

VI Formulation of TNE

Dafermos (1980), Smith (1979)

A traffic path flow pattern satisfies the above equilibrium conditions if and only if it satisfies the variational inequlity problem: determine $x^* \in K$, such that

$$\sum_p C_p(x^*) \times (x_p - x_p^*) \geq 0, \quad \forall x \in K.$$

Finite-dimensional variational inequality theory has been applied to-date to the wide range of equilibrium problems noted above.

In particular, the finite-dimensional variational inequality problem is to determine $x^* \in K \subset R^n$ such that

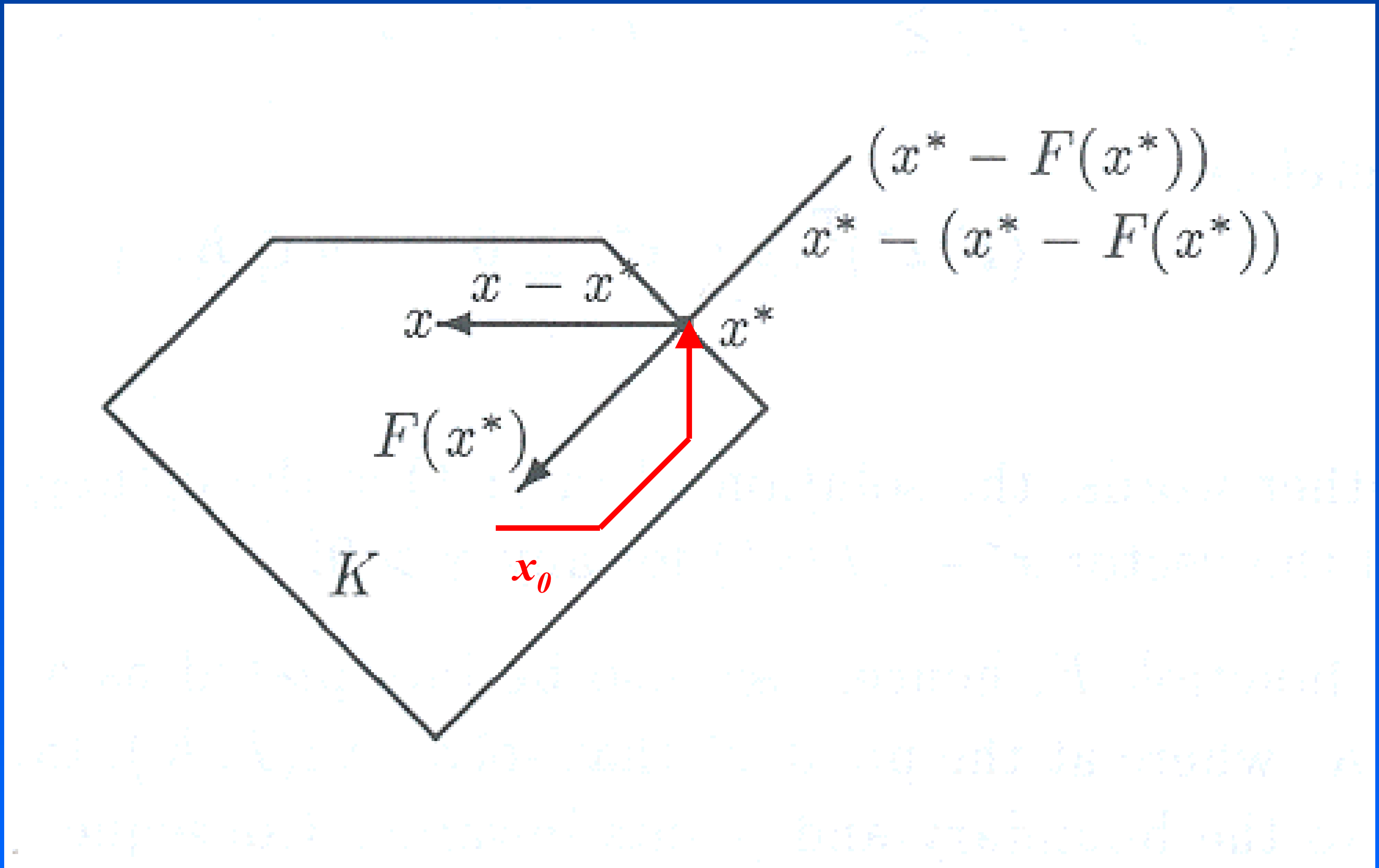
$$\langle F(x^*), x - x^* \rangle \geq 0, \quad \forall x \in K,$$

where $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle$ denoted the inner product in R^n and K is closed and convex.

A Geometric Interpretation of a Variational Inequality and a Projected Dynamical System

Dupuis and Nagurney (1993)

Nagurney and Zhang (1996)



The variational inequality problem, contains, as special cases, such classical problems as:

- systems of equations
- optimization problems
- complementarity problems

and is also closely related to fixed point problems.

Hence, it is a unifying mathematical formulation for a variety of mathematical programming problems.

Transportation and Critical Infrastructure Networks

The TNE Paradigm is the Unifying Paradigm for Critical Infrastructure Problems:

- Transportation Networks
- the Internet
- Financial Networks
- Electric Power Supply Chains.

The TNE Paradigm can also capture multicriteria decision-making associated with sustainability. Decision-makers (manufacturers, retailers, and/or consumers) in multitiered networks may seek to:

- maximize profits
- minimize pollution (emissions/waste)
- minimize risk

with individual weights associated with the different criteria.

Ironically, several of the critical infrastructure systems; in particular, transportation networks and electric power supply chains are also the dominant sources of emissions!

Data on Emissions Generated

- **Electricity generation is the *dominant industrial source* of air emissions in the US today. Fossil fuel-based power plants are responsible for *67% of the nation's sulfur dioxide emissions, 23% of the nitrogen oxide emissions*, and *40% of man-made carbon dioxide* emissions (EPA).**

- **Electricity worldwide is produced mainly by using *coal*, which is responsible for *40% of the carbon dioxide pollution* (and, hence, global warming). Coal is expected to maintain about 36% share of the electricity generation market through 2020 (IPCC).**

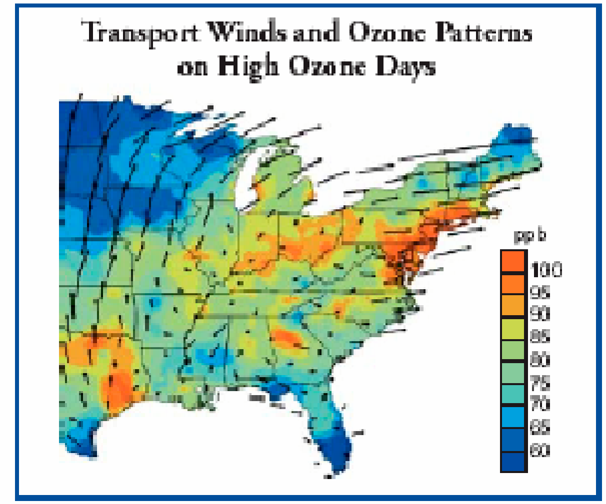
- ***Motorists* contribute the *majority of the carbon dioxide emitted* and about *75% of the nitrogen oxides* in major population centers such as London. Road traffic is the fastest growing source of pollution in Europe. Increasing vehicular usage in China and India is also contributing significantly to worldwide emissions.**

Spatial Nature of Pollutants

- The impacts of pollutants (such as SO_2, NO_x, and Hg) depend critically on the location of their sources and where their impacts are realized.

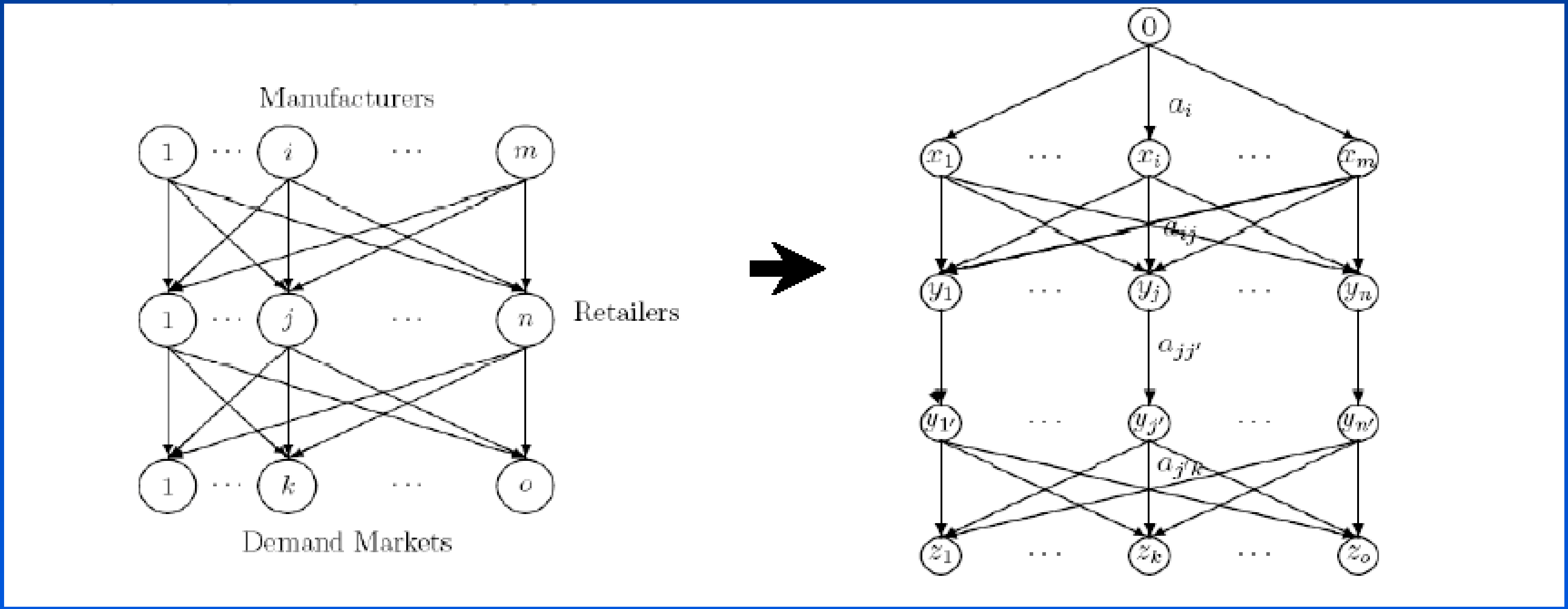
- There are noted traffic volumes of pollutants from Asia to North America as well as from North America to Europe (Akimoto (2003)).

- Pollutants released from Midwestern US power plants travel by winds toward the East Coast of the US and Canada (EPA).



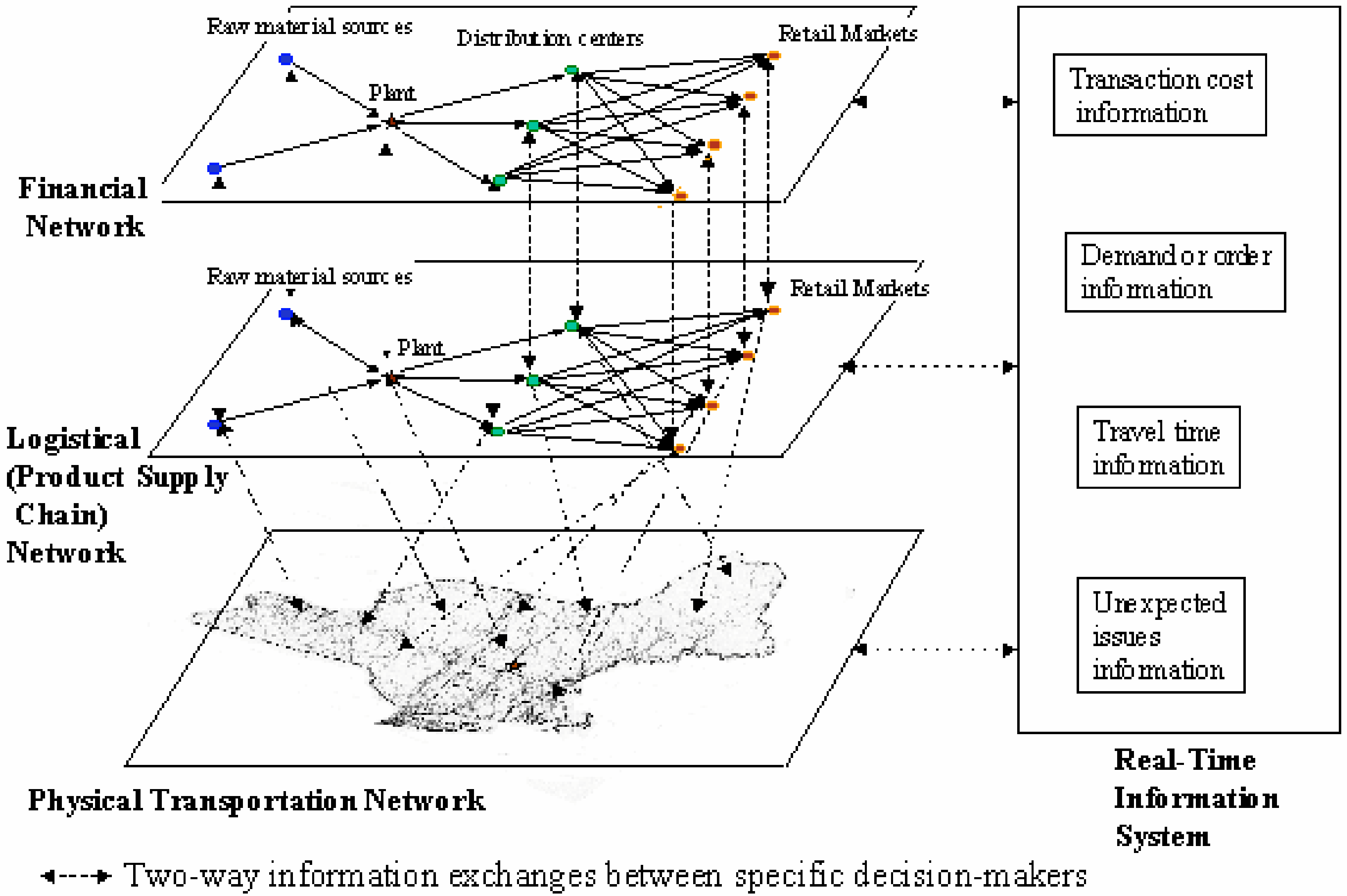
High ozone levels in the Northeast are typically associated with persistent transport from west to east. (Data represent high 90th percentile ozone conditions.)
Source: Ozone Transport Assessment Group

The Equivalence of Supply Chains and Transportation Networks



Nagurney, *Transportation Research E* (2006).

Supply Chain -Transportation Supernetwork Representation



Nagurney, Ke, Cruz, Hancock, Southworth, *Environment and Planning B* (2002)

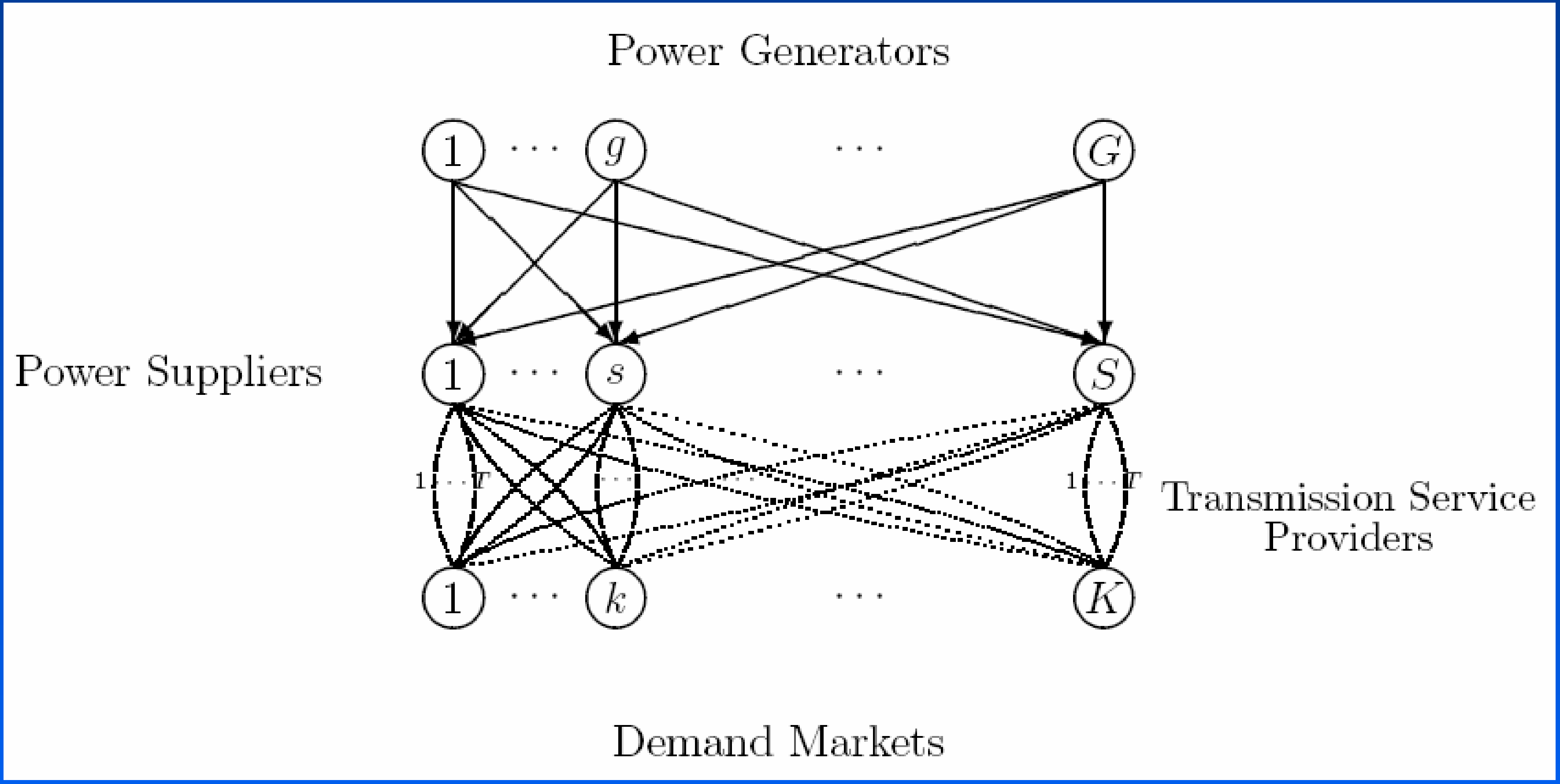
The fifth chapter of Beckmann, McGuire, and Winsten's book, ***Studies in the Economics of Transportation*** (1956) describes some *unsolved problems* including a single commodity network equilibrium problem that the authors imply could be generalized to capture electric power networks.

Specifically, they asked whether electric power generation and distribution networks can be reformulated as transportation network equilibrium problems.

From: http://www.nasa.gov

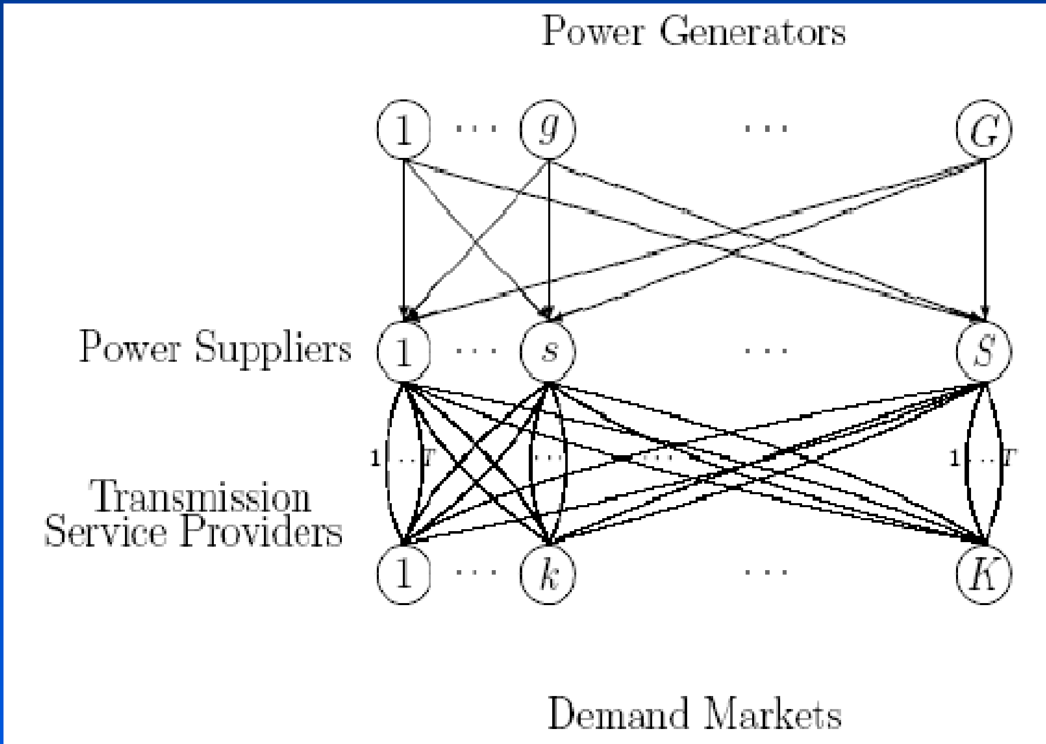
Electric Power Supply Chains

The Electric Power Supply Chain Network

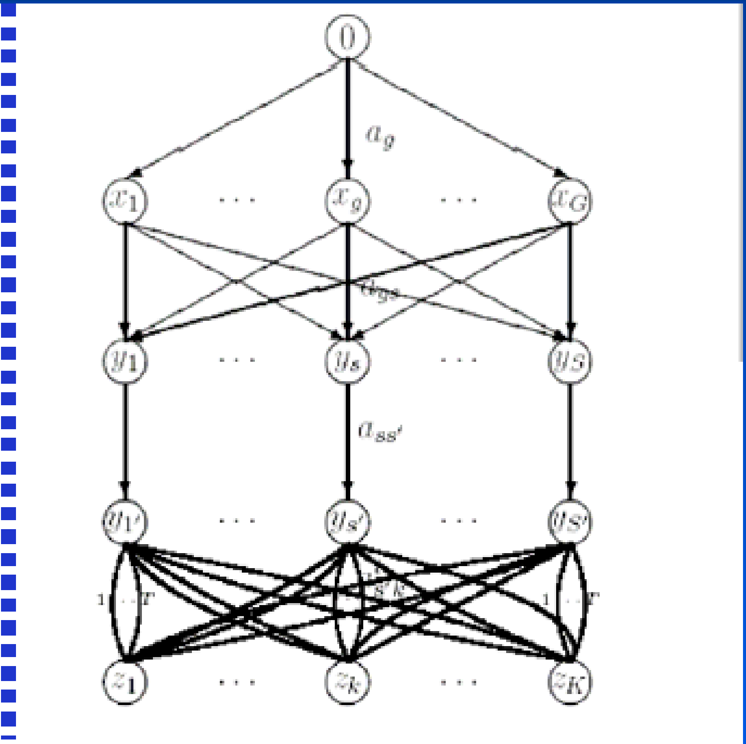


Nagurney and Matsypura, *Proceedings of the CCCT* (2004).

The Transportation Network Equilibrium Reformulation of Electric Power Supply Chain Networks



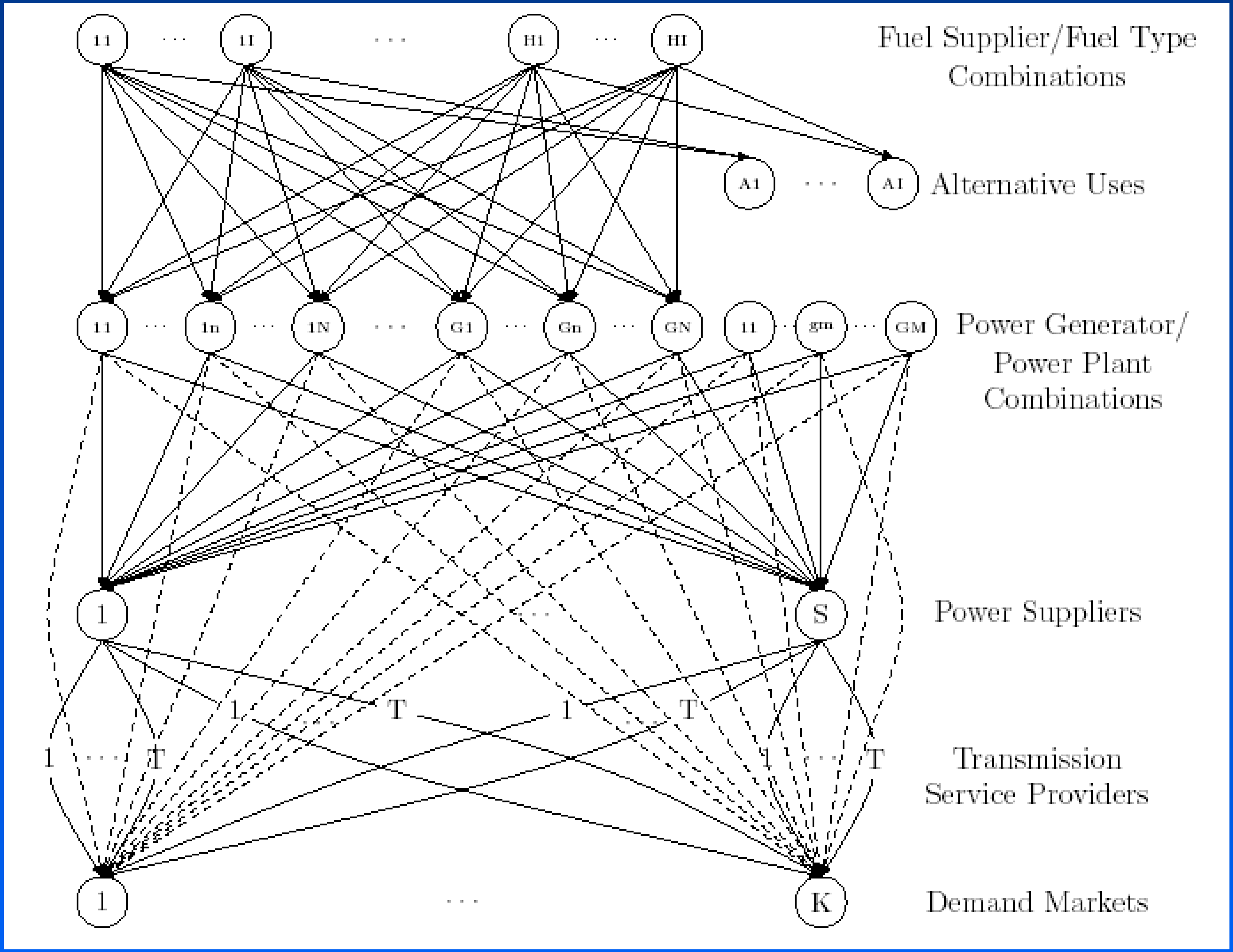
Electric Power Supply Network



Transportation Chain Network

Nagurney, Liu, Cojocaru, and Daniele, *Transportation Research E* (2007).

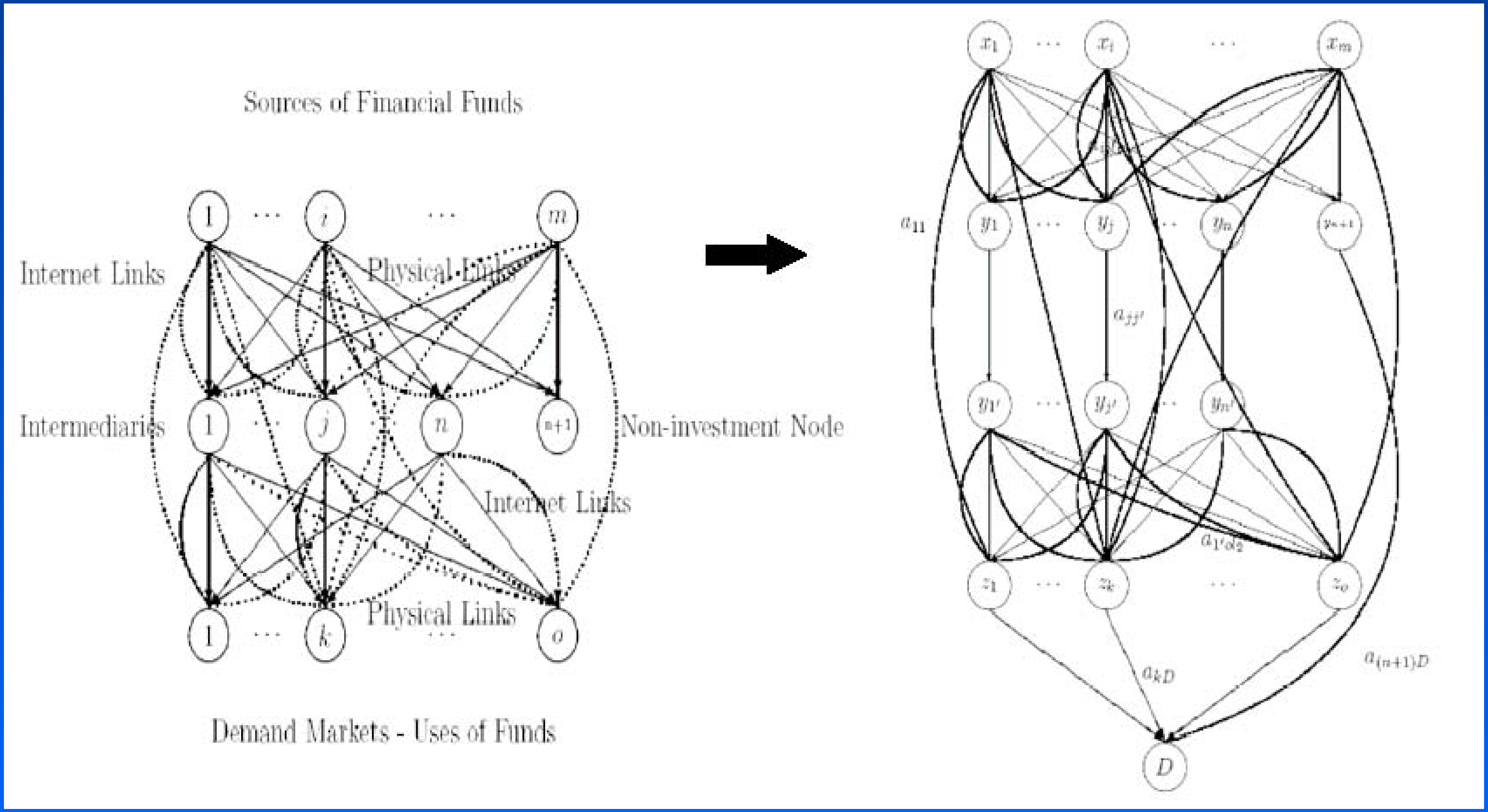
Electric Power Supply Chain Network with Fuel Suppliers



Matsypura, Nagurney, and Liu, *International Journal of Emerging Power Systems* (2007).

In 1952, Copeland wondered whether money flows like water or electricity.

The Transportation Network Equilibrium Reformulation of the Financial Network Equilibrium Model with Intermediation



Liu and Nagurney, *Computational Management Science* (2007).

We have shown that *money* as well as *electricity* flow like *transportation* and have answered questions posed fifty years ago by Copeland and by Beckmann, McGuire, and Winsten!

Some Interesting MCDM Applications to Sustainability

Papers where environmentally-based MCDM network problems have been transformed and solved using the TNE equivalences/relationships:

Modelling Generator Power Plant Portfolios and Pollution Taxes in Electric Power Supply Chain Networks: A Transportation Network Equilibrium Transformation, Wu, Nagurney, Liu, and Stranlund, *Transportation Research D* (2006).

Optimal Endogenous Carbon Taxes for Electric Power Supply Chains with Power Plants, Nagurney, Liu, and Woolley, *Mathematical Modelling* (2006).

Sustainable Supply Chain Networks and Transportation, Nagurney, Liu, and Woolley, *International Journal of Sustainable Transportation* (2007).

Spatially Differentiated Trade of Permits for Multipollutant Electric Power Supply Chains, Woolley, Nagurney, and Stranlund, presented at the INFORMS Puerto Rico Conference (2007).

An Integrated Electric Power Supply Chain and Fuel Market Network Framework: Theoretical Modeling with Empirical Analysis for New England, Liu and Nagurney, INFORMS Seattle Meeting (2007).

Recent disasters have demonstrated the importance and the vulnerability of network systems.

Examples:

- 9/11 Terrorist Attacks, September 11, 2001;
- The biggest blackout in North America, August 14, 2003;
- Two significant power outages in September 2003 -- one in the UK and the other in Italy and Switzerland;
- Hurricane Katrina, August 23, 2005;
- The Minneapolis I35 Bridge Collapse, August 1, 2007.

Earthquake Damage

prcs.org.pk

Tsunami

letthesunshinein.wordpress.com

Storm Damage

www.srh.noaa.gov

Infrastructure Collapse

www.10-7.com

Recent Literature on Network Vulnerability

- Latora and Marchiori (2001, 2002, 2004)
- Holme, Kim, Yoon and Han (2002)
- Taylor and D’este (2004)
- Murray-Tuite and Mahmassani (2004)
- Chassin and Posse (2005)
- Barrat, Barthélemy and Vespignani (2005)
- Sheffi (2005)
- Dall’Asta, Barrat, Barthélemy and Vespignani (2006)
- Jenelius, Petersen and Mattson (2006)
- Taylor and D’Este (2007)

Our Research on Network Efficiency, Vulnerability, and Robustness

A Network Efficiency Measure for Congested Networks, Nagurney and Qiang, *Europhysics Letters,* **79**, December (2007).

A Transportation Network Efficiency Measure that Captures Flows, Behavior, and Costs with Applications to Network Component Importance Identification and Vulnerability, Nagurney and Qiang, *Proceedings of the POMS 18th Annual Conference,* Dallas, Texas (2007).

A Network Efficiency Measure with Application to Critical Infrastructure Networks, Nagurney and Qiang, *Journal of Global Optimization* (2008), in press.

Robustness of Transportation Networks Subject to Degradable Links, Nagurney and Qiang, *Europhysics Letters,* **80**, December (2007).

A Unified Network Performance Measure with Importance Identification and the Ranking of Network Components, Qiang and Nagurney, *Optimization Letters* (2008).

A New Network Performance/Efficiency Measure with Applications to Critical Infrastructure Networks

The Nagurney and Qiang (N-Q) Network Efficiency Measure

The network performance/efficiency measure $\mathcal{E}(G,d)$, for a given network topology *G* and fixed demand vector *d*, is defined as

$$\mathcal{E}(G,d) = \frac{\sum_{w \in W} \frac{d_w}{\lambda_w}}{n_W},$$

where n_w is the number of O/D pairs in the network and λ_w is the equilibrium disutility for O/D pair *w*.

Nagurney and Qiang, *Europhysics Letters,* 79 (2007).

Importance of a Network Component

Definition: Importance of a Network Component

The importance, *I(g),* of a network component *gεG* is measured by the relative network efficiency drop after *g* is removed from the network:

$$I(g) = \frac{\triangle \mathcal{E}}{\mathcal{E}} = \frac{\mathcal{E}(G,d) - \mathcal{E}(G-g,d)}{\mathcal{E}(G,d)},$$

where *G-g* is the resulting network after component g is removed.

The Latora and Marchiori (L-M) Network Efficiency Measure

Definition: The L-M Measure

The network performance/efficiency measure, *E(G)* for a given network topology, *G*, is defined as:

$$E(G) = \frac{1}{n(n-1)} \sum_{i \neq j \in G} \frac{1}{d_{ij}}$$

where n is the number of nodes in the network and d_{ij} is the shortest path length between node i and node j.

The L-M Measure vs. the N-Q Measure

Theorem:

If positive demands exist for all pairs of nodes in the network, *G*, and each of demands is equal to 1, and if d_{ij} is set equal to λ_w, where $w=(i,j)$, for all $w \varepsilon W$, then the N-Q and L-M network efficiency measures are one and the same.

The Approach to Study the Importance of Network Components

The elimination of a link is treated in the N-Q network efficiency measure by removing that link while the removal of a node is managed by removing the links entering and exiting that node.

In the case that the removal results in no path connecting an O/D pair, we simply assign the demand for that O/D pair to an abstract path with a cost of infinity. Hence, our measure is well-defined even in the case of disconnected networks.

The measure generalizes the Latora and Marchiori network measure for complex networks.

Example 1

Assume a network with two O/D pairs:
w_1=(1,2) and w_2=(1,3) with demands:
d_{w_1}=100 and d_{w_2}=20.

The paths are:

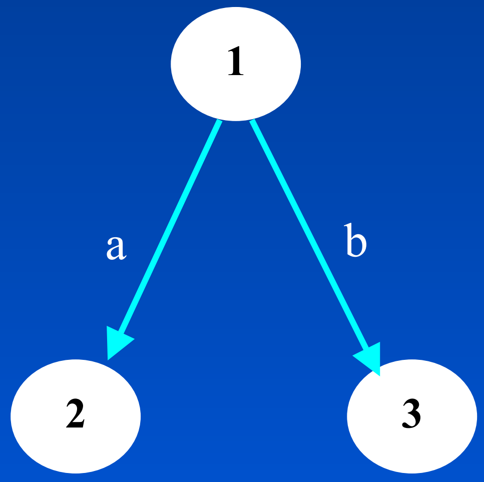
for w_1, $p_1=a$; for w_2, $p_2=b$.

The equilibrium path flows are:

$x_{p_1}^*$= 100, $x_{p_2}^*$=20.

The equilibrium path travel costs are:

$C_{p_1}=C_{p_2}$=20.



$c_a(f_a)=0.01f_a+19$
$c_b(f_b)=0.05f_b+19$

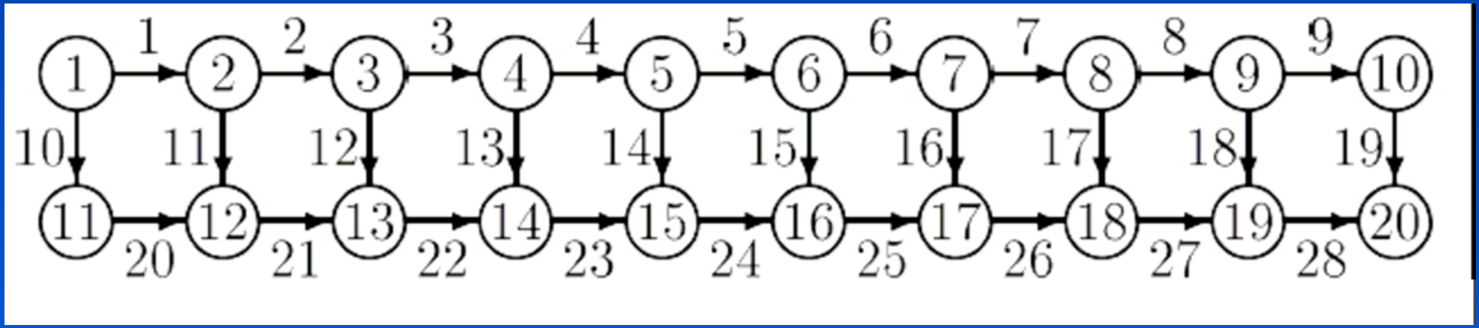
Importance and Ranking of Links and Nodes

Link	Importance Value from Our Measure	Importance Ranking from Our Measure
a	0.8333	1
b	0.1667	2

Node	Importance Value from Our Measure	Importance Ranking from Our Measure
1	1	1
2	0.8333	2
3	0.1667	3

Example 2

The network is given by:



From: Nagurney,

Transportation Research B (1984)

$w_1=(1,20)$ $w_2=(1,19)$

$d_{w_1} = 100$ $d_{w_2} = 100$

Example 2: Link Cost Functions

Link a	Link Cost Function $c_a(f_a)$
1	$.00005f_1^4 + 5f_1 + 500$
2	$.00003f_2^4 + 4f_2 + 200$
3	$.00005f_3^4 + 3f_3 + 350$
4	$.00003f_4^4 + 6f_4 + 400$
5	$.00006f_5^4 + 6f_5 + 600$
6	$7f_6 + 500$
7	$.00008f_7^4 + 8f_7 + 400$
8	$.00004f_8^4 + 5f_8 + 650$
9	$.00001f_9^4 + 6f_9 + 700$
10	$4f_{10} + 800$
11	$.00007f_{11}^4 + 7f_{11} + 650$
12	$8f_{12} + 700$
13	$.00001f_{13}^4 + 7f_{13} + 600$
14	$8f_{14} + 500$

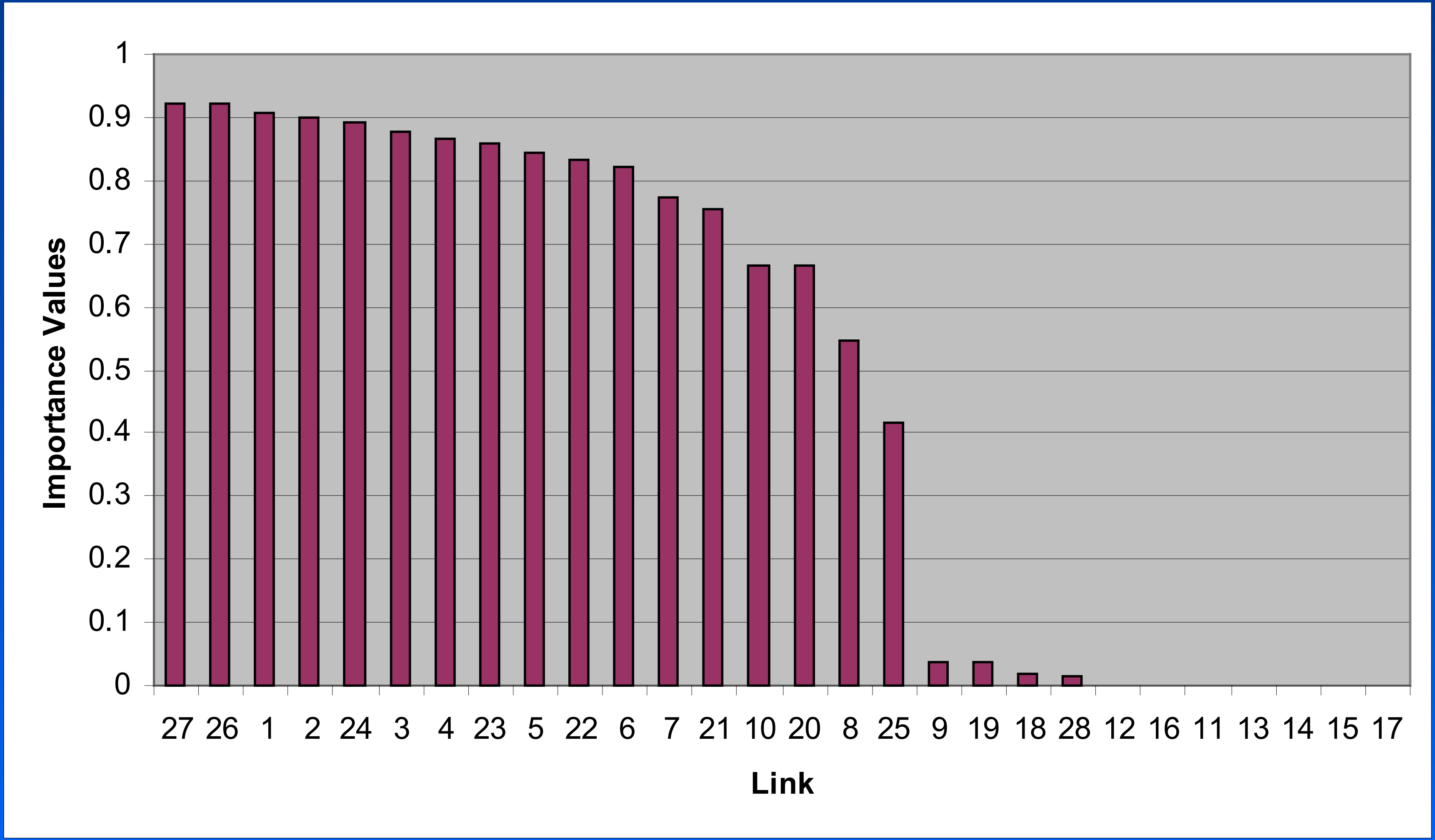
Link a	Link Cost Function $c_a(f_a)$
15	$.00003f_{15}^4 + 9f_{15} + 200$
16	$8f_{16} + 300$
17	$.00003f_{17}^4 + 7f_{17} + 450$
18	$5f_{18} + 300$
19	$8f_{19} + 600$
20	$.00003f_{20}^4 + 6f_{20} + 300$
21	$.00004f_{21}^4 + 4f_{21} + 400$
22	$.00002f_{22}^4 + 6f_{22} + 500$
23	$.00003f_{23}^4 + 9f_{23} + 350$
24	$.00002f_{24}^4 + 8f_{24} + 400$
25	$.00003f_{25}^4 + 9f_{25} + 450$
26	$.00006f_{26}^4 + 7f_{26} + 300$
27	$.00003f_{27}^4 + 8f_{27} + 500$
28	$.00003f_{28}^4 + 7f_{28} + 650$

Example 2: Importance and Ranking of Links

Link a	Importance Value	Importance Ranking
1	0.9086	3
2	0.8984	4
3	0.8791	6
4	0.8672	7
5	0.8430	9
6	0.8226	11
7	0.7750	12
8	0.5483	15
9	0.0362	17
10	0.6641	14
11	0.0000	22
12	0.0006	20
13	0.0000	22
14	0.0000	22

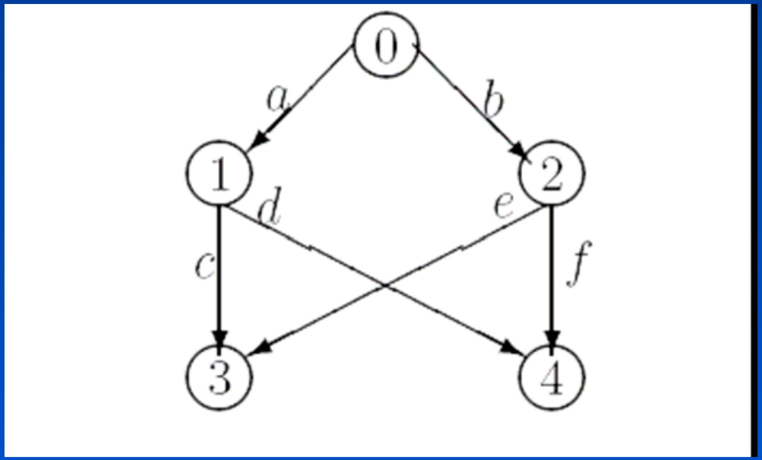
Link a	Importance Value	Importance Ranking
15	0.0000	22
16	0.0001	21
17	0.0000	22
18	0.0175	18
19	0.0362	17
20	0.6641	14
21	0.7537	13
22	0.8333	10
23	0.8598	8
24	0.8939	5
25	0.4162	16
26	0.9203	2
27	0.9213	1
28	0.0155	19

Example 2: Link Importance Rankings



Example 3 – Elastic Demand

The network topology is the following:



O/D pairs are: $w_1 = (0,3)$, $w_2 = (0,4)$

Link cost functions are: $c_a(f_a)=f_a$, $c_b(f_b)=f_b$, $c_c(f_c)=f_c$, $c_d(f_d)=f_d$, $c_e(f_e)=f_e$, $c_f(f_f)=f_f$

Inverse demand functions are: $\lambda_{w_1}(d_{w_1}) = 100 - d_{w_1}$

$\lambda_{w_2}(d_{w_2}) = 40 - d_{w_2}$

Example 3: Importance and Rankings of Links

Link	Importance Value from Our Measure	Importance Ranking from Our Measure	Importance Value from the L-M Measure	Importance Ranking from the L-M Measure
a	0.5327	1	N/A	N/A
b	0.5327	1	N/A	N/A
c	0.1475	2	N/A	N/A
d	0.0533	3	0.4516	1
e	0.1475	2	N/A	N/A
f	0.0533	3	0.4516	1

Example 3: Importance and Rankings of Nodes

Node	Importance Value from Our Measure	Importance Ranking from Our Measure	Importance Value from the L-M Measure	Importance Ranking from the L-M Measure
0	1.0000	1	N/A	N/A
1	0.5327	2	0.2775	2
2	0.5327	2	0.2775	2
3	0.1475	3	0.3509	1
4	0.1475	3	0.3509	1

The Advantages of the N-Q Network Efficiency Measure

- The measure captures demands, flows, costs, and behavior of users, in addition to network topology;
- The resulting importance definition of network components is applicable and well-defined even in the case of disconnected networks;
- It can be used to identify the importance (and ranking) of either nodes, or links, or both; and
- It can be applied to assess the efficiency/performance of a wide range of network systems.
- It is applicable also to elastic demand networks (Qiang and Nagurney, *Optimization Letters* (2008)).
- It has been extended to dynamic networks.

Motivation for Research on Transportation Network Robustness

According to the ASCE:

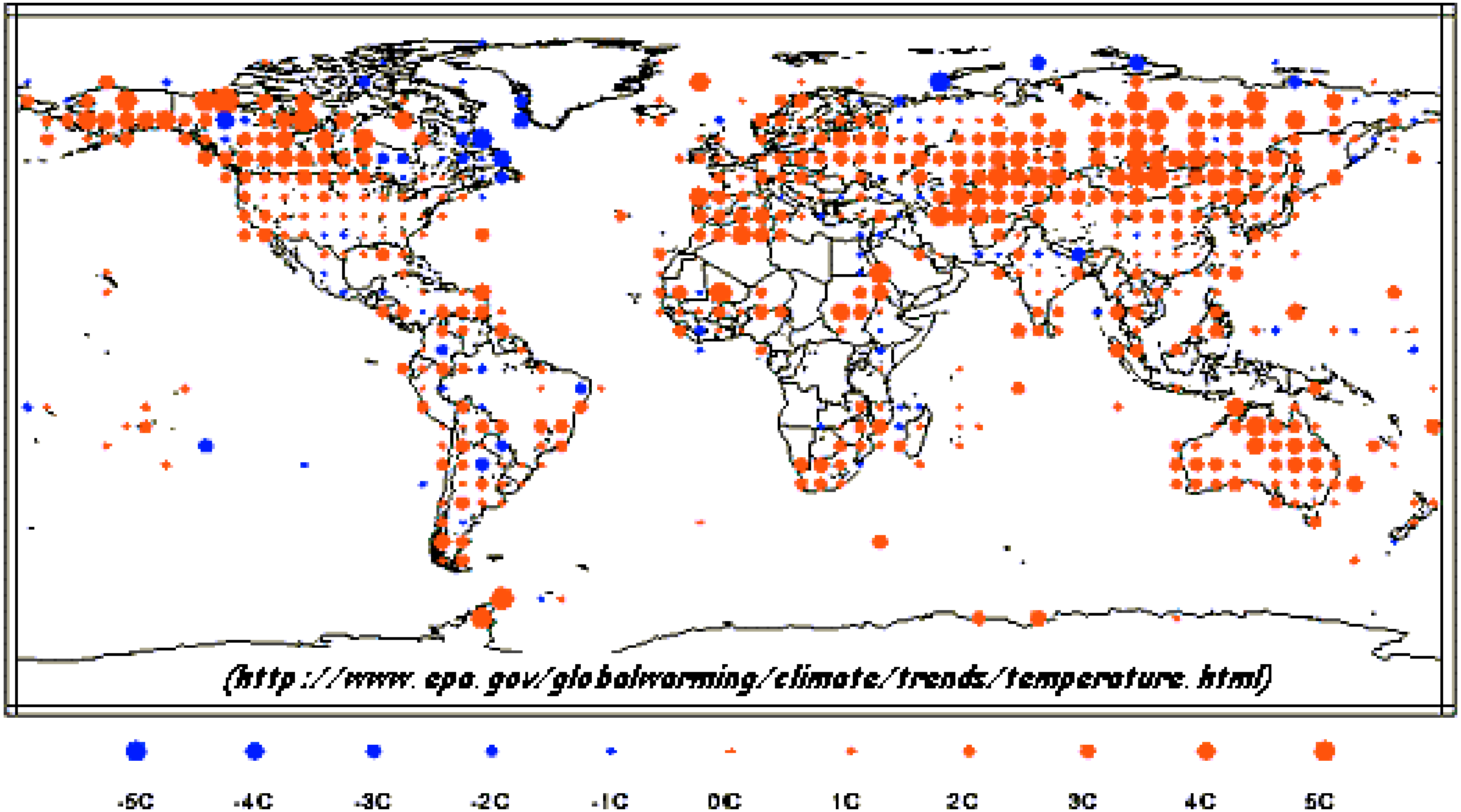
Poor maintenance, natural disasters, deterioration over time, as well as unforeseen attacks now lead to estimates of $94 billion in the US in terms of needed repairs for roads alone.

Poor road conditions in the United States cost US motorists $54 billion in repairs and operating costs annually.

The focus of the robustness of networks (and complex networks) has been on the impact of different network measures when facing the removal of nodes on networks.

We focus on the *degradation of links through reductions in their capacities* and the effects on the induced travel costs in the presence of known travel demands and different functional forms for the links.

Global Annual Mean Temperature Trend, 1950-1999



Source: Global Historical Climate Network,
National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration

Impacts of Climate Change on Transportation Infrastructure



Examples from Alaska (Smith and Lavasseur)

According to the European Environment Agency (2004), since 1990 the *annual number of extreme weather and climate related events has doubled*, in comparison to the previous decade. These events account for approximately 80% of all economic losses caused by catastrophic events. In the course of climate change, catastrophic events are projected to occur more frequently (see Schulz (2007)).

Schulz (2007) applied the Nagurney and Qiang (2007) network efficiency measure to a German highway system in order to identify the critical road elements and found that this measure provided more reasonable results than the measure of Taylor and D'Este (2007).

Robustness in Engineering and Computer Science

IEEE (1990) defined robustness as *the degree to which a system of component can function correctly in the presence of invalid inputs or stressful environmental conditions*.

Gribble (2001) defined system robustness as *the ability of a system to continue to operate correctly across a wide range of operational conditions, and to fail gracefully outside of that range*.

Schilllo et al. (2001) argued that robustness has to be studied *in relation to some definition of the performance measure*.

“Robustness” in Transportation

Sakakibara et al. (2004) proposed a topological index. The authors considered a transportation network to be robust if it is “dispersed” in terms of the number of links connected to each node.

Scott et al. (2005) examined transportation network robustness by analyzing the increase in the total network cost after removal of certain network components.

BPR Link Cost Functions

We use the Bureau of Public Roads (BPR) link cost functional form in our transportation network robustness study, which is given by:

$$c_a(f_a) = t_a^0 \left[1 + k\left(\frac{f_a}{u_a}\right)^{\beta} \right] \qquad \forall a \in L$$

where *k* and *β* are greater than zero and the *u's* are the practical capacities on the links.

A New Approach to Transportation Network Robustness

The Transportation Network Robustness Measure

Nagurney and Qiang, Europhysics Letters, 80, December (2007)

The robustness measure $\mathcal{R}^\gamma$ for a transportation network G with the vector of demands d, the vector of user link cost functions c, and the vector of link capacities u is defined as the relative performance retained under a given uniform capacity retention ratio γ ($\gamma \in (0,1]$) so that the new capacities are given by γu. Its mathematical definition is given as:

$$\mathcal{R}^\gamma = \mathcal{R}(G, c, d, \gamma, u) = \frac{\mathcal{E}^\gamma}{\mathcal{E}} \times 100\%$$

where $\mathcal{E}$ and $\mathcal{E}^\gamma$ are the network performance measures with the original capacities and the remaining capacities, respectively.

Simple Example

Assume a network with one O/D pair: w_1=(1,2) with demand given by d_{w1}=10.

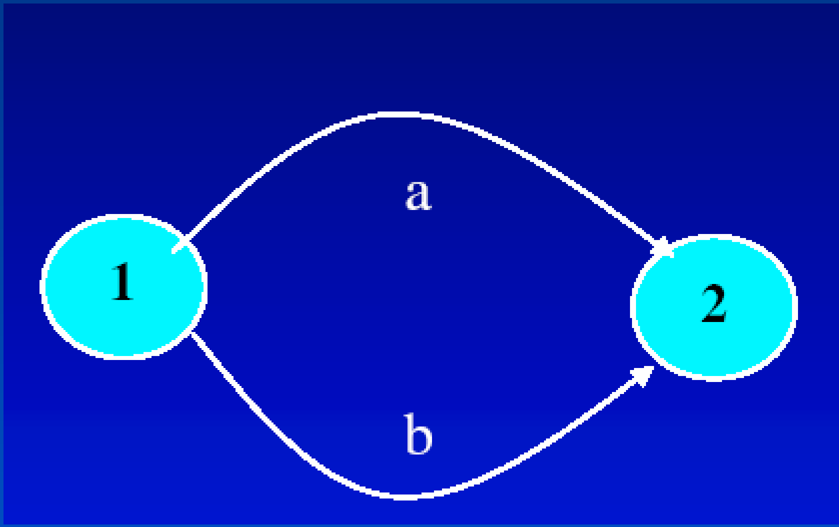
The paths are: $p_1=a$ and $p_2=b$.

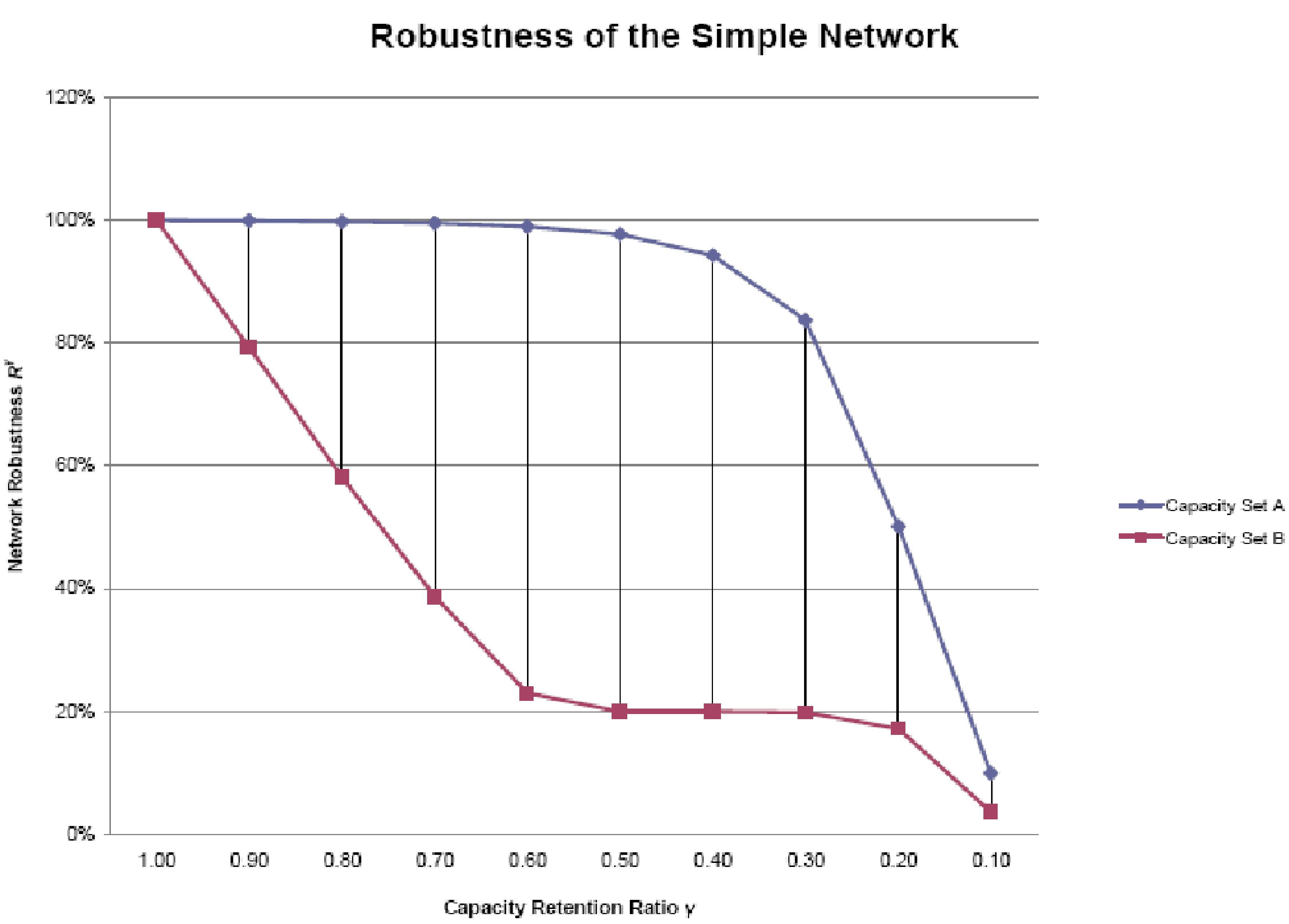
In the BPR link cost function, k=1 and β=4; t_a^0=10 and t_a^0=1.

Assume that there are two sets of capacities:

Capacity Set A, where $u_a=u_b$=50;

Capacity Set B, where u_a=50 and u_b=10.





Robustness of the Simple Network
120%
100%
80%
60%
40%
20%
0%
Network Robustness R'
1.00
0.90
0.80
0.70
0.60
0.50
0.40
0.30
0.20
0.10
Capacity Retention Ratio γ
Capacity Set A
Capacity Set B

Example: Braess Network with BPR Functions

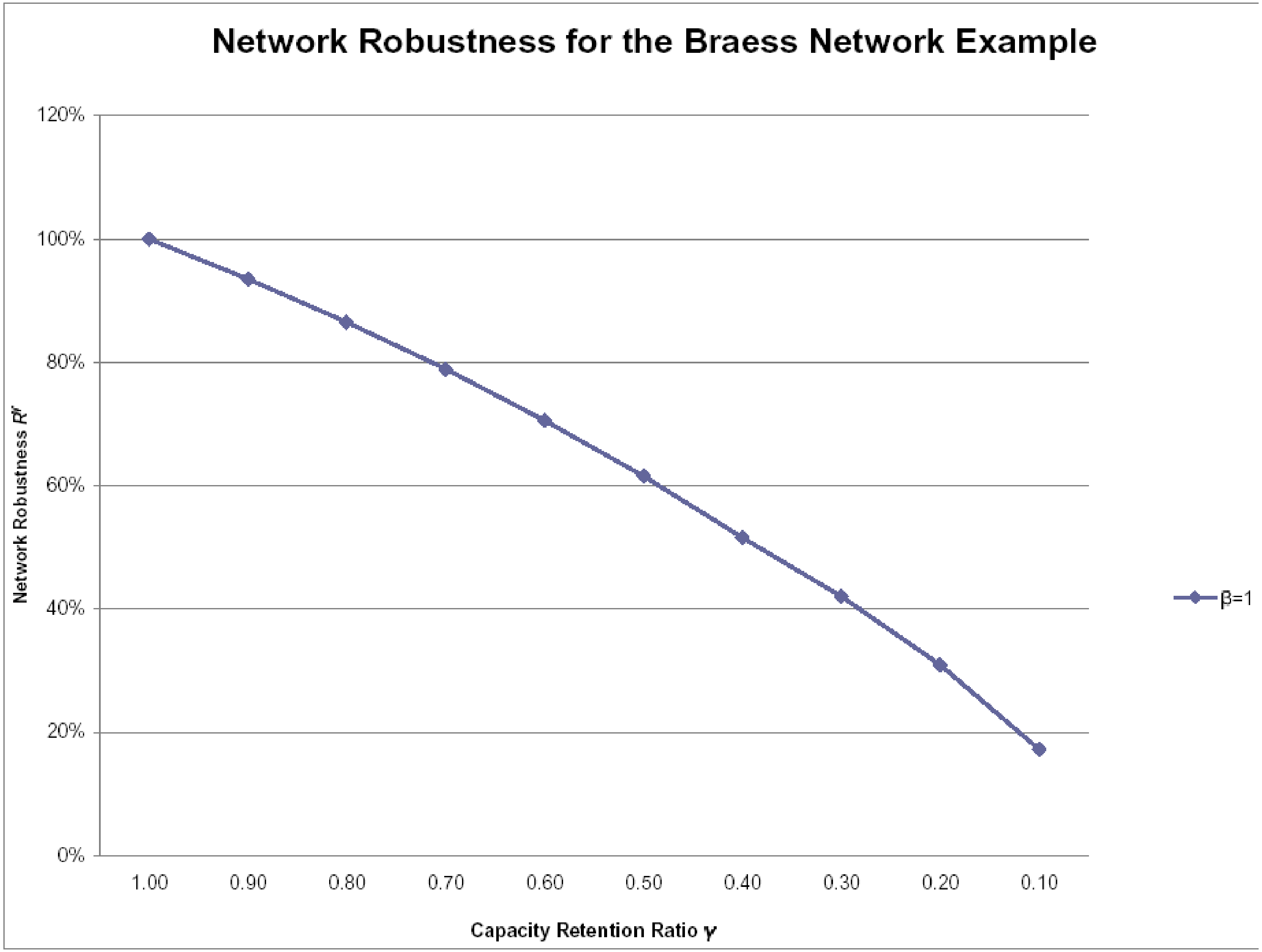
Instead of using the original cost functions, we construct a set of BPR functions as below under which the Braess Paradox still occurs. The new demand is 110.

$$c_a(f_a) = 1 + (\frac{f_a}{20})^\beta, \quad c_b(f_b) = 50(1 + (\frac{f_b}{50})^\beta),$$

$$c_c(f_c) = 50(1 + (\frac{f_b}{50})^\beta), \quad c_d(f_d) = 1 + (\frac{f_d}{20})^\beta,$$

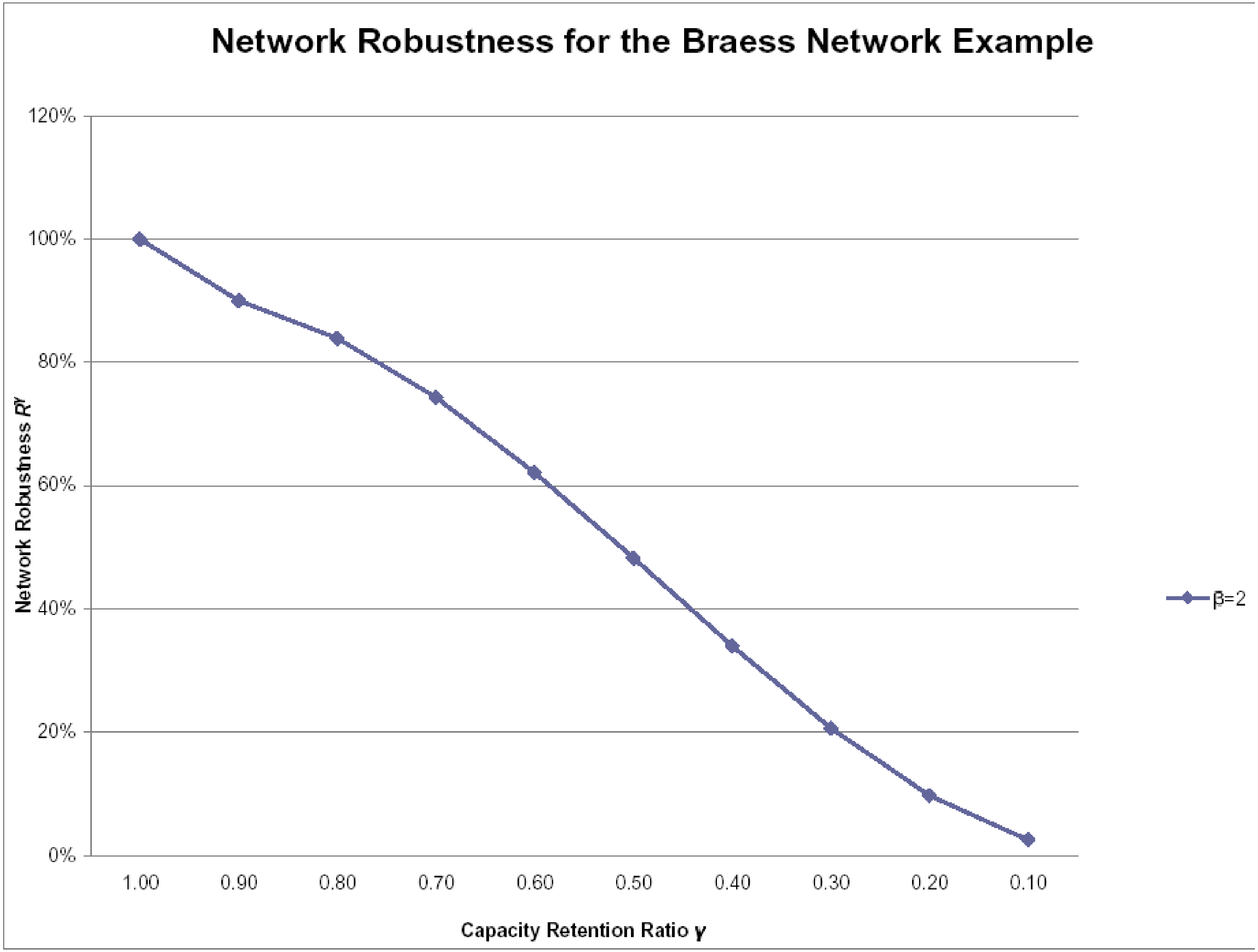
$$c_e(f_e) = 10(1 + (\frac{f_e}{100})^\beta).$$

$\beta = 1$

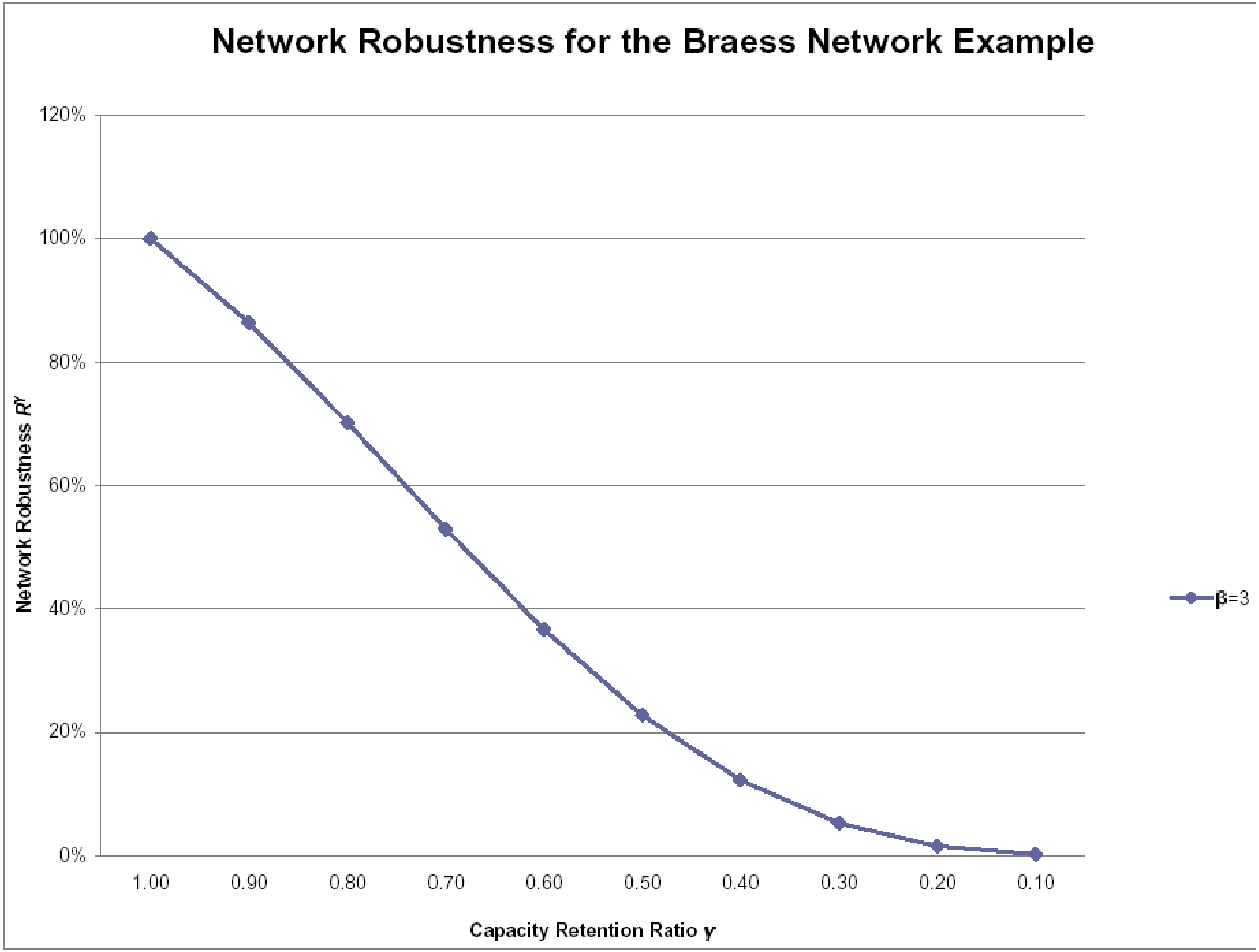


Network Robustness for the Braess Network Example
120%
100%
80%
60%
40%
20%
0%
Network Robustness R^{γ}
1.00
0.90
0.80
0.70
0.60
0.50
0.40
0.30
0.20
0.10
Capacity Retention Ratio γ
β=1

β= 2

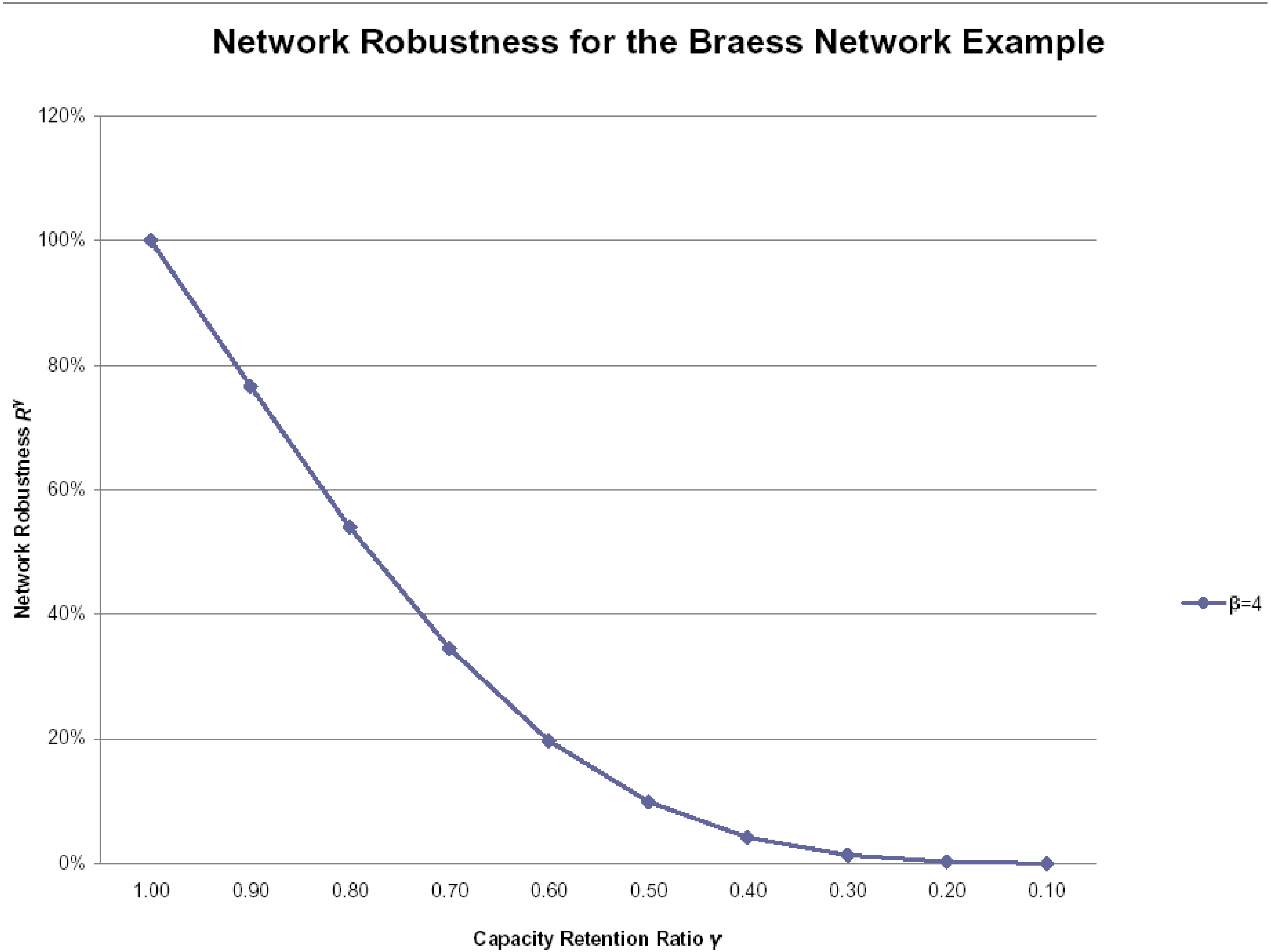

Network Robustness for the Braess Network Example
120%
100%
80%
60%
40%
20%
0%
Network Robustness R^γ
1.00
0.90
0.80
0.70
0.60
0.50
0.40
0.30
0.20
0.10
Capacity Retention Ratio γ
β=2

$\beta = 3$



Network Robustness for the Braess Network Example
120%
100%
80%
60%
40%
20%
0%
Network Robustness R^{γ}
1.00
0.90
0.80
0.70
0.60
0.50
0.40
0.30
0.20
0.10
Capacity Retention Ratio γ
β=3

$\beta = 4$



Network Robustness for the Braess Network Example
120%
100%
80%
60%
40%
20%
0%
Network Robustness R^γ
1.00
0.90
0.80
0.70
0.60
0.50
0.40
0.30
0.20
0.10
Capacity Retention Ratio γ
β=4

Some Theoretical Results

Theorem

Consider a network consisting of two nodes 1 and 2, which are connected by a single link a and with a single O/D pair $w_1 = (1,2)$. *Assume that the user link cost function associated with link a is of the BPR form. Then the network robustness given by the expression is given by the explicit formula:*

$$\mathcal{R}^{\gamma} = \frac{\gamma^{\beta}[u_a^{\beta} + kd_{w_1}^{\beta}]}{[\gamma^{\beta} u_a^{\beta} + kd_{w_1}^{\beta}]} \times 100\%,$$

where d_{w_1} *is the given demand for O/D pair* $w_1 = (1,2)$.

Moreover, the network robustness $\mathcal{R}$ *is bounded from below by* $\gamma^{\beta} \times 100\%$.

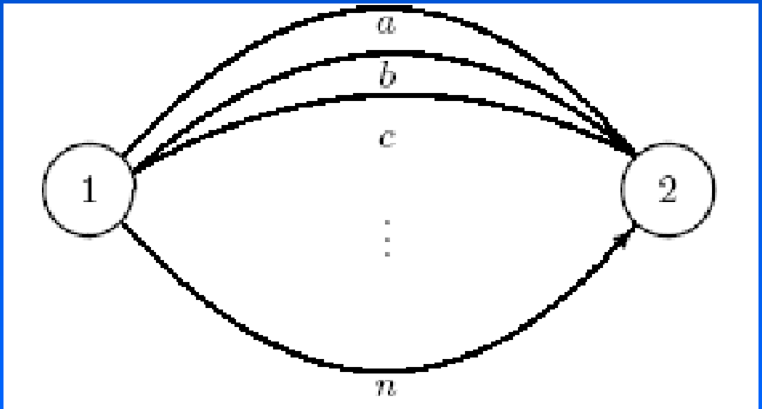
Theorem

Consider a network consisting of two nodes 1 and 2 as in the figure below, which are connected by a set of parallel links. Assume that the associated BPR link cost functions have $\beta = 1$. Furthermore, let's assume that there are positive flows on all the links at both the original and partially degraded capacity levels. Then the network robustness given by the expression is given by the explicit formula:

$$\mathcal{R}^{\gamma} = \frac{\gamma U + k\gamma d_{w_1}}{\gamma U + k d_{w_1}} \times 100\%,$$

where d_{w_1} is the given demand for O/D pair $w_1 = (1, 2)$ and $U \equiv u_a + u_b + \cdots + u_n$.

Moreover, the network robustness $\mathcal{R}^{\gamma}$ is bounded from below by $\gamma \times 100\%$.



What About Dynamic Networks?

We now define the feasible set $\mathcal{K}$. We consider the Hilbert space $\mathcal{L} = L^2([0,T], R^{Kn_P})$ (where $[0,T]$ denotes the time interval under consideration) given by

$$\mathcal{K} = \Big\{ x \in L^2([0,T], R^{Kn_P}) : 0 \leq x(t) \leq \mu(t) \text{ a.e. in } [0,T];$$

$$\sum_{p \in P_w} x_p^k(t) = d_w^k(t), \forall w, \forall k \text{ a.e. in } [0,T] \Big\}.$$

We assume that the capacities $\mu_r^k(t)$, for all r and k, are in $\mathcal{L}$, and that the demands, $d_w^k \geq 0$, for all w and k, are also in $\mathcal{L}$. Further, we assume that

$$0 \leq d(t) \leq \Phi\mu(t), \text{ a.e. on } [0,T],$$

where Φ is the $Kn_W \times Kn_P$-dimensional O/D pair-route incidence matrix, with element (kw, kr) equal to 1 if route r is contained in P_w, and 0, otherwise. The feasible set $\mathcal{K}$ is nonempty. It is easily seen that $\mathcal{K}$ is also convex, closed, and bounded.

The dual space of $\mathcal{L}$ will be denoted by $\mathcal{L}^*$. On $\mathcal{L} \times \mathcal{L}^*$ we define the canonical bilinear form by

$$\langle\langle G, x \rangle\rangle := \int_0^T \langle G(t), x(t) \rangle dt, \quad G \in \mathcal{L}^*, \quad x \in \mathcal{L}.$$

Furthermore, the cost mapping $C : \mathcal{K} \to \mathcal{L}^*$, assigns to each flow trajectory $x(\cdot) \in \mathcal{K}$ the cost trajectory $C(x(\cdot)) \in \mathcal{L}^*$.

The conditions below are a generalization of the Wardrop's (1952) first principle of traffic behavior.

Definition: Dynamic Multiclass Network Equilibrium

A multiclass route flow pattern $x^* \in \mathcal{K}$ is said to be a dynamic network equilibrium (according to the generalization of Wardrop's first principle) if, for every O/D pair $w \in W$, every route $r \in P_w$, every class k; $k = 1, \ldots, K$, and a.e. on $[0, T]$:

$$C_r^k(x^*(t)) - \lambda_w^{k*}(t) \begin{cases} \leq 0, & \text{if} \quad x_r^{k*}(t) = \mu_r^k(t), \\ = 0, & \text{if} \quad 0 < x_r^{k*}(t) < \mu_r^k(t), \\ \geq 0, & \text{if} \quad x_r^{k*}(t) = 0. \end{cases}$$

The Standard form of the EVI that we work with is:

determine $x^* \in \mathcal{K}$ such that $\langle\langle F(x^*), x - x^* \rangle\rangle \geq 0, \ \forall x \in \mathcal{K}.$

Theorem (Nagurney, Parkes, Daniele (2007))

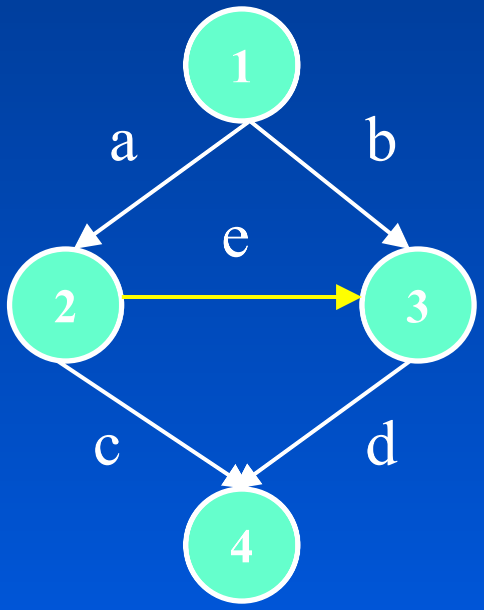
$x^* \in \mathcal{K}$ is an equilibrium flow according to the Definition if and only if it satisfies the evolutionary variational inequality:

$$\int_0^T \langle C(x^*(t)), x(t) - x^*(t) \rangle dt \geq 0, \quad \forall x \in \mathcal{K}.$$

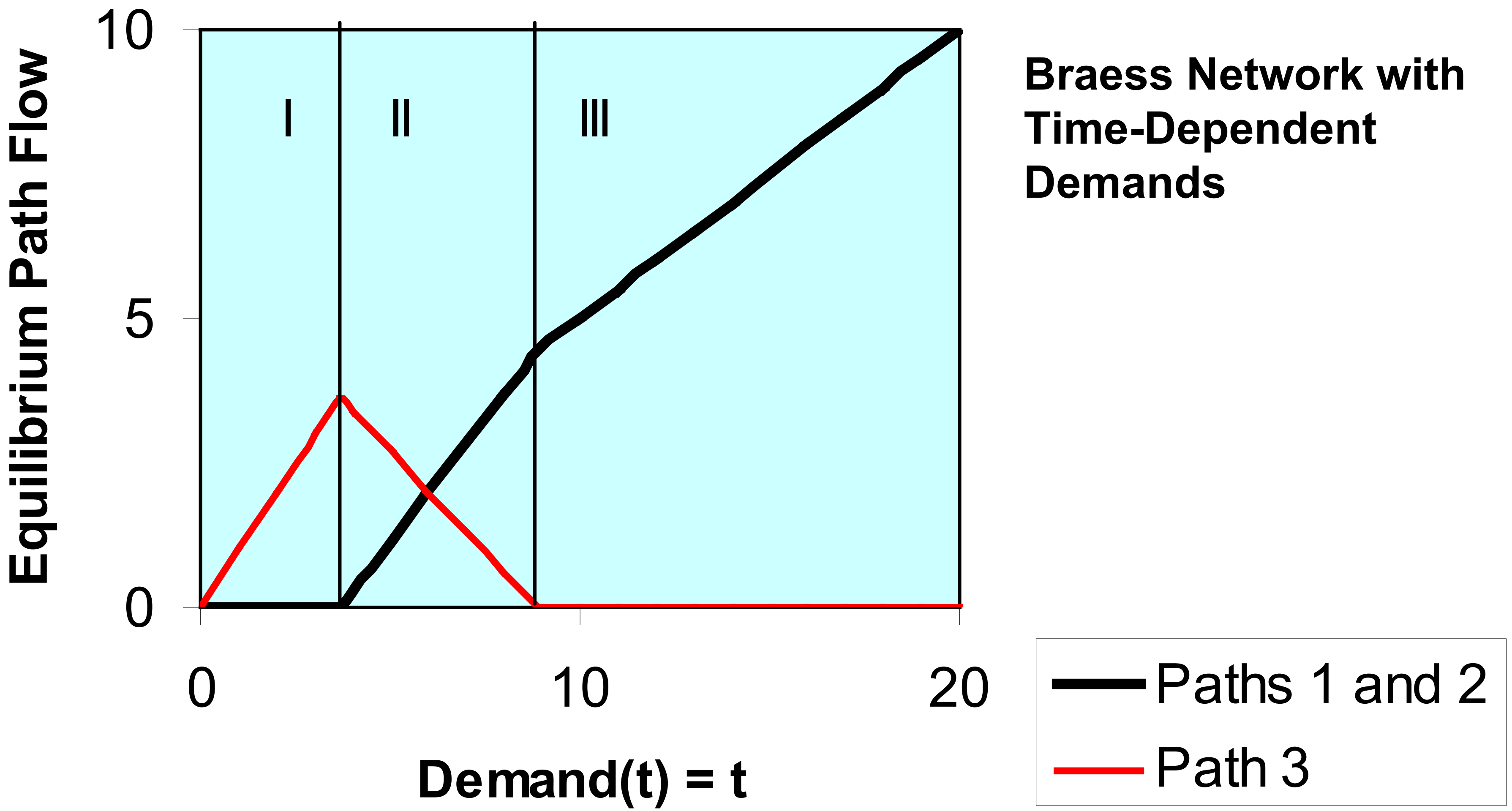
Nagurney, Parkes, and Daniele, *Computational Management Science* (2007).

The Time-Dependent (Demand-Varying) Braess Paradox and Evolutionary Variational Inequalities

Recall the Braess Network where we add the link e.



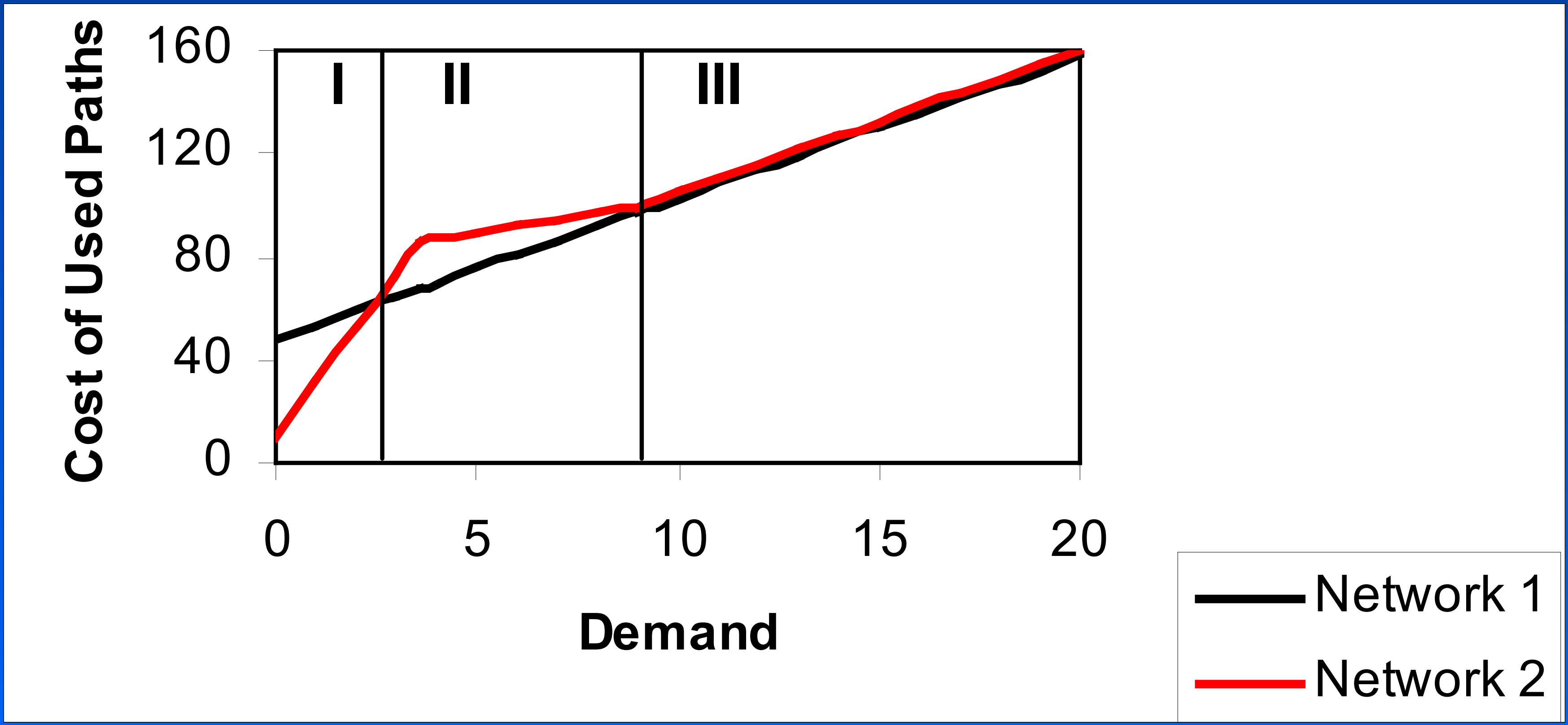
The Solution of an Evolutionary (Time-Dependent) Variational Inequality for the Braess Network with Added Link (Path)



In Demand Regime I, only the new path is used.

In Demand Regime II, the Addition of a New Link (Path) Makes Everyone Worse Off!

In Demand Regime III, only the original paths are used.



Network 1 is the Original Braess Network - Network 2 has the added link.

The new link is NEVER used after a certain demand is reached even if the demand approaches infinity.

Hence, in general, except for a limited range of demand, building the new link is a complete waste!

Extension of the Efficiency Measure to Dynamic Networks

An Efficiency Measure for Dynamic Networks Modeled as Evolutionary Variational Inequalities with Applications to the Internet and Vulnerability Analysis, Nagurney and Qiang (2007).

Network Efficiency Measure for Dynamic Networks - Continuous Time

The network efficiency for the network G *with time-varying demand* d *for* $t \in [0, T]$, *denoted by* $\mathcal{E}(G, d, T)$, *is defined as follows:*

$$\mathcal{E}(G, d, T) = \frac{\int_0^T [\sum_{w \in W} \frac{d_w(t)}{\lambda_w(t)}]/n_W \, dt}{T}.$$

The above measure is the average network performance over time of the dynamic network.

Network Efficiency Measure for Dynamic Networks - Discrete Time

Let d_w^1, $d_w^2, \ldots, d_w^H$ denote demands for O/D pair w in H discrete time intervals, given, respectively, by:
$[t_0, t_1], (t_1, t_2], \ldots, (t_{H-1}, t_H]$, where $t_H \equiv T$. We assume that the demand is constant in each such time interval for each O/D pair. Moreover, we denote the corresponding minimal costs for each O/D pair w at the H different time intervals by: λ_w^1, $\lambda_w^2, \ldots, \lambda_w^H$. The demand vector d, in this special discrete case, is a vector in $R^{n_W \times H}$. The dynamic network efficiency measure in this case is as follows:

Dynamic Network Efficiency: Discrete Time Version

The network efficiency for the network (G, d) over H discrete time intervals:
$[t_0, t_1], (t_1, t_2], \ldots, (t_{H-1}, t_H]$, *where $t_H \equiv T$, and with the respective constant demands:*
d_w^1, $d_w^2, \ldots, d_w^H$ *for all $w \in W$ is defined as follows:*

$$\mathcal{E}(G, d, t_H = T) = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{H}[(\sum_{w \in W} \frac{d_w^i}{\lambda_w^i})(t_i - t_{i-1})/n_W]}{t_H}.$$

Importance of a Network Component

The importance of a network component *g* of network *G* with demand *d* over time horizon *T* is defined as follows:

$$I(g,d,T) = \frac{\mathcal{E}(G,d,T) - \mathcal{E}(G-g,d,T)}{\mathcal{E}(G,d,T)}$$

where $\mathcal{E}(G-g,d,T)$ is the dynamic network efficiency after component *g* is removed.

Importance of Nodes and Links in the Dynamic Braess Network Using the N-Q Measure when T=10

Link	Importance Value	Importance Ranking
a	0.2604	1
b	0.1784	2
c	0.1784	2
d	0.2604	1
e	-0.1341	3

Node	Importance Value	Importance Ranking
1	1.0000	1
2	0.2604	2
3	0.2604	2
4	1.0000	1

Link e is never used after $t = 8.89$ and in the range $t \in [2.58, 8.89]$, it increases the cost, so the fact that link e has a negative importance value makes sense; over time, its removal would, on the average, improve the network efficiency!

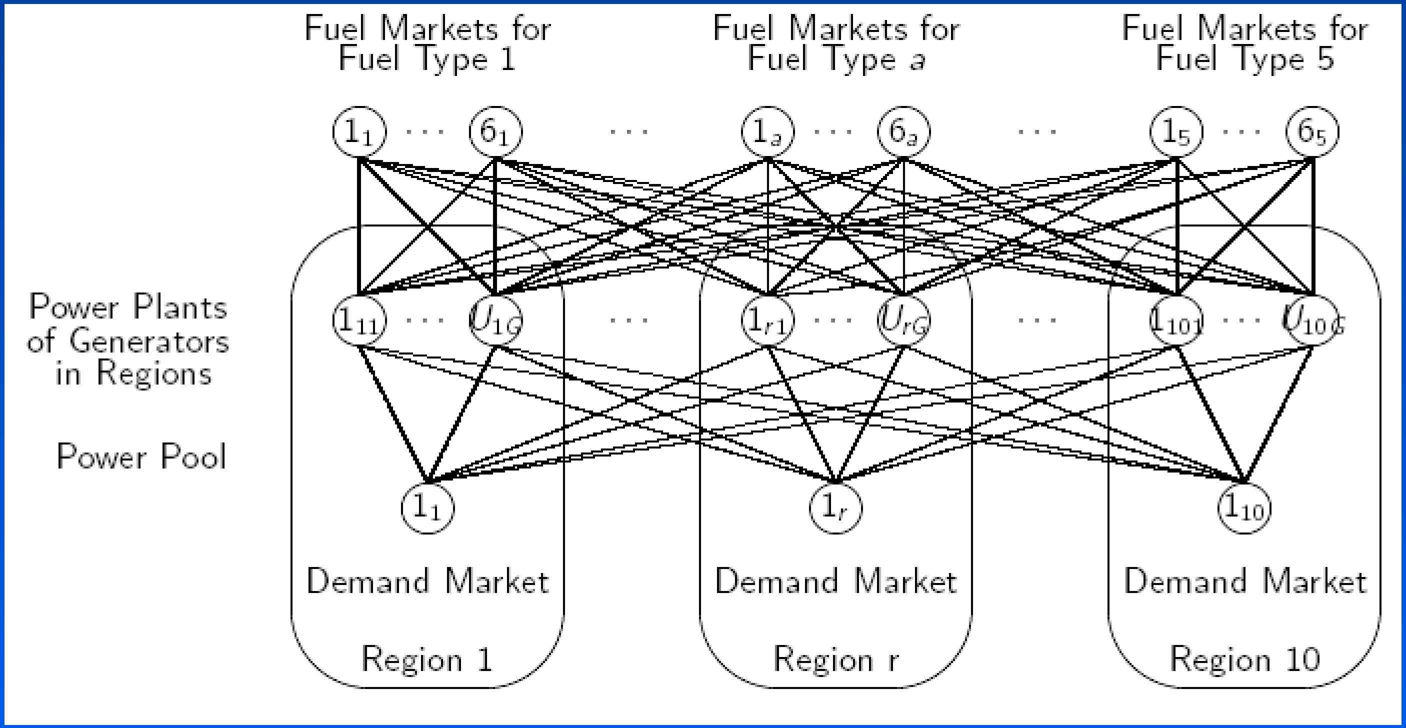
Where Are We Now?

An Integrated Electric Power Supply Chain and Fuel Market Network Framework: Theoretical Modeling with Empirical Analysis for New England, Liu and Nagurney (2007).

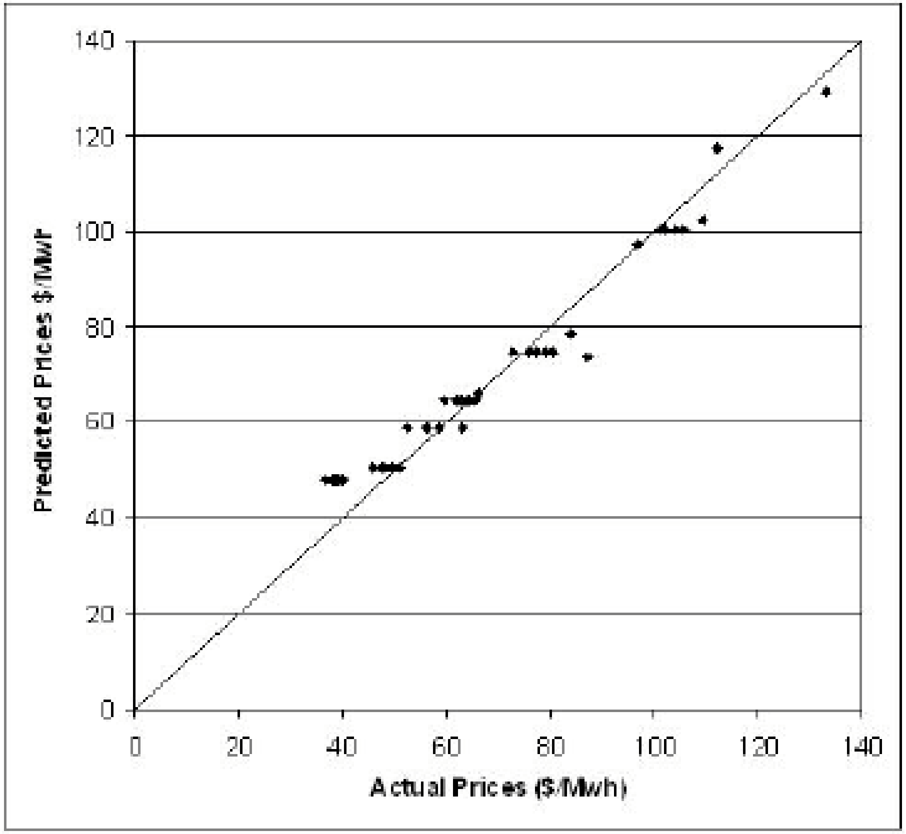
Empirical Case Study

- New England electric power market and fuel markets
- 82 generators who own and operate 573 power plants
- 5 types of fuels: natural gas, residual fuel oil, distillate fuel oil, jet fuel, and coal
- Ten regions (R=10): 1. Maine, 2. New Hampshire, 3. Vermont, 4. Connecticut(excluding Southwest Connecticut), 5. Southwest Connecticut(excluding Norwalk-Stamford area), 6. Norwalk-Stamford area, 7. Rhode Island, 8. Southeast Massachusetts, 9. West and Central Massachusetts, 10. Boston/Northeast Massachusetts
- Hourly demand/price data of July 2006 ($24 \times 31 = 744$ scenarios)
- 6 blocks ($L1 = 94$ hours, and $Lw = 130$ hours; $w = 2, ..., 6$)

The New England Electric Power Supply Chain Network with Fuel Suppliers



Predicted Prices vs. Actual Prices ($/Mwh)



http://supernet.som.umass.edu

Thank you!

For more information, see
http://supernet.som.umass.edu

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