
Finding an Optimal Route: Minimizing Police Stops

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Abstract

1 The goal of our project is to create an algorithm that will enable user to find an
2 optimal route to a destination in San Francisco. We determine a route as optimal if
3 one can avoid police stops and traffic as much as possible during the course of a
4 trip. We utilized a OSMnx dataset to capture the streets network of San Francisco,
5 giving us a graph in which the nodes were represented as intersections and the
6 edges were streets. We then implemented SARSA to compute the Q-values of
7 our model. Historic traffic and police stop data informed the calculations of the
8 rewards.

9 1 Introduction

10 Traveling from one point to another within a city is an activity done by hundreds of thousands of
11 people every day. As residents of the Bay Area, it is clear that this activity is especially difficult to
12 navigate in a densely populated city like San Francisco. Whether commuting to work or going for
13 a meal across the city, there is a constant movement of people transporting themselves from one
14 location to the next. Since a busy city implies a more active police force, we were inspired to create an
15 algorithm that would enable citizens of a city to take the route that minimizes traffic and police activity.
16

17 We began this project with the intention of using value iteration to calculate the Q-Value of
18 all states. We defined our states as a tuple, with the current node and the destination node. However,
19 after calculating the size of our state space, value iteration was no longer feasible, so we settled upon
20 SARSA and used the python random library to generate sample data. With Q-Learning, we defined
21 a policy that determines which action to take based on the given state and the desired destination.
22 Given the graph representing San Francisco's street network, we were able to add a higher cost or
23 more negative reward to edges that had lots of traffic and were historically frequented by police. This
24 weighting allowed us to determine an optimal route.

25 2 Motivation

26 Police are a source of fear for many people. With this in mind, we decided to use patterns in traffic
27 and police stops to optimize one's route from their starting location to their desired destination.
28 Currently, routing applications only take distance, traffic, and time of day into account. While Waze
29 does provide live updates from other users when a police officer is seen, it does not allow users to
30 pick a route that is historically less frequented by police.
31

32 We wanted to implement our model in a large city that is congested both in terms of vehi-
33 cle traffic and population density. San Francisco seemed like a clear choice because it is the nearest
34 large city to campus. Having all lived in San Francisco, we felt that these results could impact both
35 our lives and the lives of those around us. As a relatively diverse city, San Francisco also enabled us
36 to make predictions on varying races and genders.



Figure 1: San Francisco Drivable Streets

37 **3 Literature Review**

38 For this project, we wanted to incorporate police activity with reinforcement learning because there
39 are little to no studies that involve the criminal justice system and this particular type of machine
40 learning. Integrating police and criminal justice data with machine learning is still a relatively
41 new topic and a growing field, and it mostly deals with the likelihood of the police targeting and
42 condemning particular groups of people. Most of these existing machine learning models are biased
43 against Black and Brown people and do not help uplift the communities being targeted at large. [2]
44

45 For our project, we wanted to implement a machine learning model that would enable those who are
46 typically targeted by the police to drive with a stronger sense of security. A Stanford Computational
47 Policy Lab report produced by Pierson et al. (2019) shows that police officers are more likely to pull
48 over Black and Latinx drivers compared to white drivers. [3, 4] The project includes 100 million
49 records of traffic stop and search data nationwide, and determines that, compared to white drivers,
50 Black drivers are 20% more likely to be ticketed and Latinx drivers are 30% more likely to be
51 ticketed. Furthermore, reputable newspapers like the New York Times and San Francisco Chronicle
52 have accused San Francisco's Police Department in particular of being racially biased in their traffic
53 searches and for stopping African-Americans in disproportionately high numbers compared to San
54 Francisco's black population. [5, 6]
55

56 Victims of police harassment may be familiar with their own hometowns, but are often
57 caught off guard when visiting or driving in a new city. Marginalized groups deserve to be aware of
58 routes that would allow them to avoid the police and, as a result, avoid the harassment that could
59 accompany these interactions with the police.
60

61 Since we are dealing with driving routes, we also wanted to integrate traffic data to allow
62 for routes that have less traffic. We found that previous research exists with regards to traffic stops
63 and reinforcement learning.
64

65 Horiguchi et al. (2005) created a model to minimize routes with traffic congestion by using
66 reinforcement learning to optimize the control parameter of a neural network. [1] In this model,
67 reinforcement learning helps avoid traffic by rewarding routes that are not typically congested.
68 Almost all of the existing models in this topic area utilize this basic outline, yet they vary based on
69 how the rewards are weighted and how states are created in a particular location.

70 **4 Data Analysis and Visualization**

71 For this task, our datasets were crucial to our work. To determine a state space, we chose to use
72 the OSMnx dataset. This dataset includes a multitude of information about every city's driving,
73 walking, and biking networks. In OSMnx, the intersections are encoded as nodes and the paths
74 between intersections are encoded as edges, creating a network of the streets that is easy to use and

75 manipulate. The OSMnx graph of the city of San Francisco is cited above.

76

77 In order to ingest police data, we used a dataset from the Stanford Open Policing Project.
78 Specifically, we chose a San Francisco CSV file with 905,070 entries of police stops from
79 December 2006 to June 2016. This particular CSV file was beneficial because it has a large array
80 of different features analyze. These features include: date, time, location, latitude, longitude,
81 district, subject_age, subject_race, subject_sex, arrest_made, citation_issued, warning_issued,
82 outcome, contrabound_found, search_conducted, search_vehicle, search_basis, reason_for_stop,
83 and raw_search_vehicle_description. We decided to use the features subject_race and subject_sex,
84 because we predicted those two features to be the most important in determining what factors are
85 most influenced by interactions with the police force.

86

87 Finally, we used the City and County of San Francisco’s dataset on traffic calming features
88 to understand traffic patterns among the streets of San Francisco. This dataset includes location
89 information about traffic calming features such as speed humps, speed cushions and speed tables.
90 Having been published by the Municipal Transportation Agency, it also uses

91 5 Implementation

92 In outlining the implementation of our project, we will describe our intuitions behind the model, the
93 reward function, the reinforcement learning algorithm used, and the ways in which we extended our
94 state space to include more features.

95 5.1 Model

96 In analyzing the intricate street network of San Francisco, we needed to define our model as
97 compactly as possible.

98

99 To do so, we first thought about the state space. The OSMnx dataset provided us with ev-
100 ery intersection in San Francisco. With this in mind, we decided to assign a number, or "id", to each
101 intersection, or node, beginning with 1 and ending in the total number of nodes. Thus, our state is
102 represented as a tuple, where the first value refers to the beginning node’s "id", and the second value
103 refers to the end node’s "id".

104

105 With regards to the action space, our understanding of street networks informed how we
106 defined the possible actions. The OSMnx dataset provides edges to and from every node
107 to reflect the different pathways going through that particular node. The maximum number
108 of edges coming out of a node, in the San Francisco dataset, is 6. For that reason, we defined
109 our model to have 6 possible actions. The map outputted of the city of San Francisco is included below
110

111 If one of those six possible actions is impossible from a particular node, then we assigned
112 a large negative reward to that state, action pair. The next section will go into more detail on how the
113 rewards were calculated.

114 5.2 Rewards

115 The rewards were calculated using both the police and traffic datasets. During SARSA, each state,
116 action pair was assigned a reward that consisted of a weighted sum of the police and traffic reward.
117 Our process for calculating rewards is described below.

118 For both the police stop and traffic calmer datasets we found the node in our model that was closest
119 to each data point in either dataset. Closeness was defined by the minimum haversine distance based
120 on longitude and latitude coordinates. Haversine distance is defined as :

$$2r \sin^{-1} \left(\sqrt{\sin^2 \left(\frac{lat2 - lat1}{2} \right) + \cos(lat1) \cos(lat2) \sin^2 \left(\frac{long2 - long1}{2} \right)} \right)$$

121 Where r is the radius of the Earth.

122 For the police dataset once the closest node was identified, the count at that node for police stops
 123 is decremented by 1 in the simple model, where the count is initialized to 0. In the more complex
 124 model where the state consists of the (current node, gender, race, goal node) a different calculation
 125 was used. With the extra states the reward at a specific node becomes a ratio of matching features in
 126 the state to features present in the police stops at the node the action is being taken. For example if a
 127 node has three stops where all three were male, but one was white and the other two asian; if you are
 128 a white male the reward associated with going to that node would be:

$$-\frac{\frac{3}{3} + \frac{1}{3}}{2} = -\frac{\frac{\#matchingfeature1}{\#stops} + \frac{\#matchingfeature2}{\#stops}}{\#features}$$

129 For both the simple and complex model the reward values were normalized by dividing all police
 130 reward values by the maximum number of police stops at any node in the graph.

131 For the traffic calming dataset once the closest node was identified, the count at that node for traffic
 132 calmers is decremented by 1, where the count is initialized to 0. All traffic calmer rewards were
 133 normalized by dividing all traffic reward values by the maximum number of traffic calmers at any
 134 node in the graph.

135 If the current node and goal node in the state are the same, the reward is 1 regardless of the police
 136 stop or traffic data at the goal node.

137 5.3 Reinforcement Learning

138 We came into this project with the goal of using value iteration. However, by defining our state as a
 139 tuple of nodes, our state space became $9,615 \times 9,615 = 92,448,225$. Thus, we turned to model-free
 140 reinforcement learning, and decided to implement SARSA using epsilon-greedy as our exploration
 141 strategy.

142
 143 In order to mimic the sampled states that are observed in SARSA, we used the Python's
 144 random library to randomly select the nodes for each state with every iteration. Then, we determined
 145 which of the six possible actions were possible from a given state. Using the epsilon-greedy
 146 strategy, we randomly select an action 0.01% of the time, and the rest of the time, we chose the
 147 action that maximized the pre-computed rewards. We used a learning rate of 0.01, and a discount
 148 factor of 0.95. Having pre-computed the node that is reached after taking a particular action
 149 from the current node, we easily computed the next state to be used in the modified Bellman Equation.

150
 151 We also needed to find the nearest neighbor of every state that was not sampled. Given an
 152 unvisited state, we referenced the latitude and longitude of its current and destination nodes using the
 153 OSMnx dataset. We then compared those latitude and longitude values to the latitude and longitude
 154 values of all seen states, allowing us to find the closest match.

155 5.4 Adding Driver Features to State

156 As is evident from our motivation and literature review, we wanted to build a project that would be
 157 useful to groups historically targeted by police. Thus, we decided to add race and sex to our state
 158 space, allowing the route to be optimized differently based on the race and sex of the individual, in
 159 addition to their starting and ending nodes. Our expanded state looked as follows: ((starting node,
 160 sex, race), ending node).

161
 162 To implement this, we modified our rewards to account for the race and sex documented in
 163 a police stop. If the driver's race and/or sex matches the race and/or sex of the driver who was
 164 previously stopped, then the reward was decreased to reflect the higher risk of being stopped.

165
 166 With regards to the SARSA Q-Learning, to account for the larger state space, the modified
 167 model also sampled from the possible race and sex classifications. In finding the nearest neighbor,
 168 we had to be thoughtful about calculating the closest match to a state. Given an unseen state, we
 169 decided to traverse every edge of the starting node, in the fashion of Breadth First Search, and check
 170 whether any of those neighbor nodes had been seen with the same race, gender, and destination. If

171 none had been seen, then we changed the gender and checked if any of those states had been sampled.
 172 Next, since we did not want to discard or ignore race, we checked the neighbors of all the neighbors,
 173 moving one degree outwards. This process continued until a seen sample was found.

174 **6 Results**

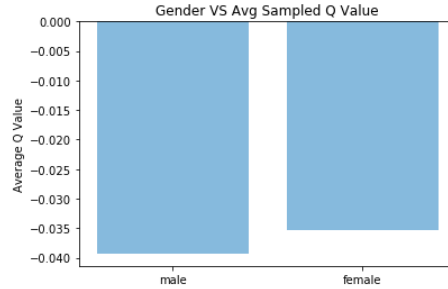


Figure 2: Q Values Gender Breakdown

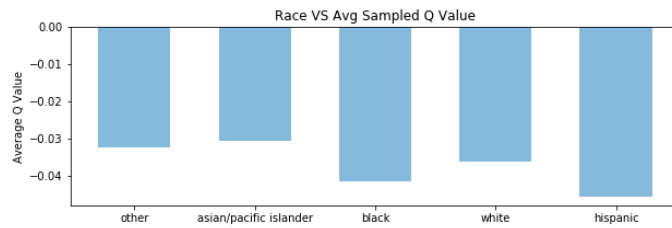


Figure 3: Q Values Race Breakdown

175 **6.1 Quantitative Analysis**

As seen in the bar graphs (Figures 2 and 3), the Q Values from any start and end node can be broken down by gender and race. Thus, when the traffic and police rewards are weighted equally, the average Q Values by gender are as follows:

Male : -0.039404770151252266
 Female : -0.03537874319378656

Broken down by race, the average Q Values are:

Black : -0.04172244000235774
 Hispanic : -0.04572235983446658
 Asian/Pacific Islander : -0.030605217538222023
 White : -0.036306118889654015
 Other : -0.032474203552906436

Due to the police data, the state-action value is lowest when the race "Hispanic" is included in the state. The second lowest average state-action value appears when the race "Black" is in the state.

In contrast, when the reward weights the police data by 0.75 and the traffic data by 0.25, the average Q Values are:

Male : -0.023323540427791455
 Female : -0.019268010887294348

Black : -0.021964136512749085

Hispanic : -0.022377988795041274

Asian/Pacific Islander : -0.020099872327573355

White : -0.02082697220514877

Other : -0.021207243541240667

176 Once again, Black and Hispanic drivers have more negative rewards, on average, than other races, but
177 the gender breakdown looks different. This time, men are seen to be at higher risk than women.

178

179 This confirms our knowledge of police officers dis-proportionally targeting black and brown drivers,
180 which causes the rewards for black and brown drivers to be generally lower because those groups are
181 at higher risk of encountering the police.

182

183

184 **6.2 Next Steps**

185 Right now, the model only accounts for police and traffic data along any edge. Our next step is to
186 also include distance from the destination or some sort of indication that the driver is getting closer
187 to their goal. Right now, we reward states that have the same current and end node, but we need to
188 implement eligibility traces to spread that reward closer to the start state.

189 **7 Group Contributions**

190 Daniel: Created and programmed the entire structure for how rewards were created and accessed.
191 This included processing all the data to find minimum distances, creating the methodology for
192 weighting rewards, storing them in an efficient manner, etc.

193 Priya: Coded and implemented Value Iteration and then SARSA for original and expanded states,
194 including how to combine rewards and find nearest neighbors. Quantitatively analyzed the results of
195 the Q Values. Research of datasets and existing evidence of racial bias in policing.

196 Amanda: Also worked on value iteration and the SARSA implementation. Conducted research for
197 the datasets, the literature review on past work, and the plan of action and milestones.

198

199

200 **8 References**

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